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ERRATA.

Page 57, col. ii, line 33 from bottom. For "less" read "more."

Page 79, col. ii, line 33 from bottom. For "Der" read "Das."

Page 140, col. ii, line 13 from bottom. For "E. H." read "E. A."

Page 178, col. ii, line 17 from bottom. For "twelfth" read "fourteenth."

Page 206, col. i, line 4 from bottom. For "Everett" read "Quincy."

Page 258, col. i, lines 3 and 7 from bottom. For "Sargent" read "Codman."

Page 296, col. iii, line 13 from bottom. For "words" read "moods."

Page 399, col. i, line 28. For "strongest" read "strangest."

Page 491, col. iii, second paragraph. For "Bulwray" read "Bulwrag."

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☞ A considerable portion of this issue being devoted to the Gladstone-Blaine discussion, the number of pages has been increased to make room for the usual variety of articles.

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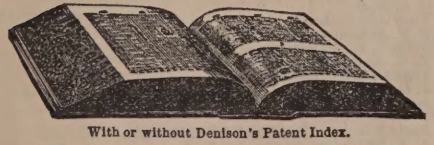

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 2, 1890.

The Week.

THE immigration to this country during the year just closed is likely to prove about 100,000 smaller than it was during 1888, when it was a little more than half a million. There has been a pretty steady decline since 1882, when the tide reached its highest point, bringing into the country in that year about 720,000 aliens. Germany continues to send the largest number coming from any single country, nearly 100,000. England, Scotland, Ireland, and Wales combined send about 140,000. From Norway and Sweden the tide is still strong, as it has been for many years, about 45,000 coming this year. The totals for 1889 will complete the record for seventy years, during which accurate statistics have been compiled. These will show that the United States has received from foreign countries since 1820 an aggregate of about 15,000,000 of people, of whom Great Britain has sent about 6,000,000, Germany about 4,500,000, Norway and Sweden about 800,000, and France about 350,000. Ireland alone has sent nearly 3,500,000.

Congressman McCreary of Kentucky is quoted as expressing the opinion that the Republicans in Congress will drop both the Sherman and the Chandler Federal Election Bills, and concentrate their strength on a bill which will practically give the control of Congressional elections to United States district judges. But it will prove as impossible to unite the party in favor of such a bill as it has proved to be in the case of the Sherman and Chandler bills. The trouble is, that a number of the United States district judges, both North and South, are Democrats; and instead of putting Congressional elections under the control of Republicans, the proposed change would intrust power to Democratic judges in Michigan, Illinois, Iowa, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and California at the North, and in South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Texas at the South. The Republicans will not pass such a bill when they find out what it really means.

It is alleged by colored Republicans of Birmingham, Ala., that there is "an attempt to reverse the results of the late war, and to nullify the Constitution and laws of the United States under which we hold our civil and political rights." The attempt is not made by wicked Democrats, but by white Republicans, who have organized what they call the White League in an effort to establish a Republican party with which the negro shall have nothing to do. The leader in this attempt is Lewis A. Parsons, who has been appointed by President Harrison United States District Attorney for that portion of Alabama, and whose nomination is now pending before the Senate. The colored Republicans of Birmingham have held a mass-meeting, and adopted resolutions declaring "that the appointment of said Parsons was a mistake, that his confirmation by the Senate would be an insult to the colored voters of the United States, and would produce a serious loss of voters to the Republican party in all the States"; and praying the Senate to reject his nomination. There is abundant food for reflection in this incident.

A list of "commercial headstones" in the wool and woollen trade (manufacturing and mercantile) is given by *Bradstreet's* for the years 1888 and 1889, together with the assets and liabilities of the failed concerns, which foot up as follows:

	No. of failures.	Liabilities.	Assets.
1888.			
Wool-dealers.....	8	$536,000	$253,000
Manufacturers	49	3,101,000	1,723,000
Total	57	$3,637,000	$1,976,000
1889.			
Wool-dealers.....	11	$2,293,000	$1,381,000
Manufacturers	61	8,149,000	5,651,000
Total	72	$10,442,000	$7,032,000

It appears from this that the number of woollen failures under the Harrison Administration has been about 15 per cent. greater than under that of Cleveland, while the liabilities of the failed concerns have been about 150 per cent. greater, and the actual losses (difference between assets and liabilities) 100 per cent. greater. It is not supposed that a mere change of administration has caused the difference or had any influence one way or the other, but the facts may serve to induce reflection and a becoming reserve on the part of those orators and editor men who predicted great business prosperity, especially in manufacturing industry, in case Mr. Harrison should be elected. The effect of Secretary Windom's worsted decision to restore prosperity does not seem to have been anything remarkable.

The steel bark *Fong Suey*, sailing under the Hawaiian flag, arrived at Philadelphia the other day, from the harbor of Manila, with a cargo of 1,680 tons of raw sugar, which she discharged at the Harrison refinery. She was then towed around empty to New York, although she might have carried 1,680 tons of coal as easily as not, and would have done so had such carrying not been prohibited by our navigation laws. The *Fong Suey* will load at this port with petroleum for Manila, and in due time come back with another cargo of raw sugar. She is owned by an American, but since he cannot obtain an American registry for her (the vessel having been built in England), he sails her under the flag of King Kalakaua. There is no law against that. She is probably as fine a specimen of sailing craft as can be found in any part of the world, requiring for her proper handling and navigation no more men than were required for a 300-ton vessel forty years ago. Her captain is an American citizen. In fact, she is altogether American except as to her colors and her registry, for, although built in England, she ceased to be English when she was turned over to her present owner. That she is earning money for him may be inferred from the fact that she keeps going. He is not moved by patriotic feeling to fly the Hawaiian colors on the high seas, as he is not a subject of that country. He accepts the hospitality of Hawaii because his own country denies him the privilege of flying the American flag. He would be better off, and the United States would be better off, if he could have an American registry, in which case the *Fong Suey* would perhaps be known to Lloyds as the *Benjamin Harrison* or the *Grover Cleveland*. Meanwhile, a lot of people in Washington city and elsewhere are bewailing the decline of American shipping and the disappearance of the stars and stripes from the ocean, and wondering whether a subsidy or a bounty from the Treasury would not be a good thing for ships.

The Washington correspondent of the Topeka *Capitol* has been taking the opinions of the Kansas members of Congress on the subject of the duties on sugar and salt. Mr. Peters says that he is opposed to any change in the duty on salt, and that he is waiting to hear from the sugar industry in Kansas before deciding the other question. He is opposed to the bounty on home-grown sugar, because he thinks it could not be permanently maintained. If the duty on sugar were repealed and a bounty substituted in place of it, and if the bounty should prove unpopular, and Congress should repeal that also, where should we be? No, you will not catch Peters with any such chaff as that. Major Morrill believes that Kansas can produce salt as cheaply as any State or country, and therefore he is in favor of repealing the salt duty, and in this Gen. Kelley and Mr. Turner agree with him; but Senator Ingalls and Judge Perkins and Mr. Funston are, for the same reason, in favor of retaining the duty. Senator Plumb and Mr. Anderson were not prepared to express any opinion on either question. All the members who said anything said that they should be governed as to the sugar duties by the wishes of the sorghum-producers. Regarding salt, one member said that Kansas was now producing the article at 56 cents per barrel profitably and paying 27 cents of that for the barrel itself. This means that the salt is produced profitably at 29 cents per barrel. Is not this a good reason for maintaining a duty of 12 cents per hundred pounds at the seaboard, 1,500 miles distant? There were plenty of Congressmen last year

who could prove to you that the less the cost of producing salt, the greater was the need of a duty on the foreign article, and we doubt not some such will turn up in both House and Senate this year when that schedule of the tariff is reached.

Mr. Herbert Root, a Dakota banker, has written an open letter to Secretary Windom, making a strong plea, in behalf of North Dakota and northeast Minnesota, for the use of wheat as a basis for paper currency like the certificates which Mr. Windom proposes to issue against silver. He shows that wheat was the earliest Anglo-Saxon measure of value; that it regulated rents in England down to a very recent period; that its value has not in 3,000 years varied more than that of silver; that, unlike silver, it has never in any country or age been discredited or thrown out of use; and that it is always and everywhere in demand, as one of the necessaries of life, which silver is not. He proves the superiority of wheat to silver as the basis of a circulating medium by the following undoubted facts: (1) the universal usefulness of wheat as compared to the limited usefulness of silver; (2) the possession by wheat of a special market value at every town, city, and hamlet, while silver has a market value only at the great financial centres; (3) the consumability of wheat, preventing its inordinate accumulation, as compared to the indestructibility of silver; (4) the production of wheat by the people instead of, like silver, by a few millionaires, thus making a monopoly in it impossible; (5) the possibility of always finding a market abroad for the Government wheat when its store becomes excessive; (6) the great security against robbery offered by wheat, owing to its bulk and the difficulty of transporting it. The objection that a wheat currency would require large storehouses, he meets by asking what better use Government could make of its money than building large storehouses; that the national wheat product must be stored somewhere, and the Government can store it to better advantage than anybody else; and that in any case such granaries would be a more useful public possession than the silver vaults. There is no doubt that Mr. Root makes out a strong case, and Mr. Windom will find it very difficult to answer him, especially if he is backed up, as he doubtless will be, by the Great Northwest. But he has not apparently perceived the suggestion which his plan contains for the iron-men and the copper-men. Will they not also demand the use of their commodity as a basis for Government certificates?

The absorption by English capitalists of American breweries, grain elevators, flouring mills, etc., has been looked upon with disfavor by nearly everybody except the sellers of the property. On the other side of the water, too, the purchases have been deprecated by so high an authority as the *Economist*, on the ground that the transactions represented a craze similar to that which has periodically seized the British investing public ever since the days of the South Sea bubble. Meanwhile the absorbing goes on without any signs of satiety. A class of promoters have taken the field, and it is quite certain that their activity will not cease as long as John Bull has any appetite for American property. They scour the country to find dividend-paying plants that the owners are willing to part with at some price, and then they go to London and organize syndicates to take them up. These syndicates are promoters in the second degree. They take the property in a lump and sell it out in the form of shares to small investors. Both sets of promoters get a commission.

There is nothing new or alarming in these transactions. British capitalists have been investing in our railroads, our silver mines, and our cattle companies for a long time past. Before the days of railroads they invested largely in our canals. These later investments are merely a variation on the old tune, and, unless we are prepared to say that the introduction of new capital into the country is a bad thing for us, we cannot say that it is a disadvantage that the breweries of Newark or the mills of Minneapolis should be bought by Londoners. The fact that the price paid is satisfactory to the sellers is conclusive of the whole question so far as *we* are concerned. It is presumed that the sellers will know how to invest their money so that it will bring them at least as great a return as they were getting before. Whether the buyers will get as much profit out of the things bought as their predecessors obtained, is more doubtful, but that is their lookout. The mainspring of the whole movement is the fact that capital is accumulating in Great Britain more rapidly than it can be employed there. The island cannot contain it.

South Carolina's law-makers meet every year towards the close of November and adjourn the day before Christmas. The session just closed was chiefly notable for the defeat of two or three attempts by reactionists to change the policy of the State towards the education of the negro. One such attempt was a movement to secure a Constitutional amendment repealing the clause which requires the imposition of a certain minimum school tax, and another a motion to strike out of an appropriation bill an item of $5,000 for Claflin University, an institution where several hundred negroes are being trained in the class-room, the workshop, and the field. Each proposition was defeated by an overwhelming majority, the vote in the latter case being 99 to 9. The cause of popular education makes steady progress in South Carolina, as in every other State, although it has suffered much from the agitation of the policy of Federal aid, which has furnished an excuse for failure to increase school taxes as much as could and should have been done.

What has the Baltimore *Sun* in mind when it says: "Few men in public life have been more persistently misrepresented and traduced by political opponents than Gov. Hill"? Specifications upon this point would be interesting. The remark indicates that Gov. Hill's political opponents, and not he himself, are responsible for the general estimation of him as a statesman which prevails in all parts of the country. That estimation puts him down as an opponent of pressing reforms, as a supporter of undesirable public measures, and as a politician who relies mainly upon patronage and political trickery for his advancement. Who is responsible for these views of his character? Is he or is he not an opponent of such pressing reforms as high-license and improved-ballot laws? Has he not vetoed three successive high-license bills, the second of which was drawn to meet as nearly as possible all the recommendations which he made when he vetoed the first? If he has a bad reputation on that point, it is due to his own acts. Has he not also vetoed two ballot-reform bills, though they contained the same principles as are embodied in the laws which nine other States have enacted? If he stands to-day as the leading opponent of that reform, it is because of his own acts. Did he not enter into a "deal" with the Republicans of the Legislature to turn over the building of our new aqueduct to an unprincipled adventurer, whose character was perfectly well known to him at the time, and did he not sustain him and refuse to remove him until forced to do so by public opinion? Can even political opponents traduce a Governor who permits himself to engage in such performances as this was? As for the use of patronage, does he ever give office to any one except a Hill man, or look upon it otherwise than as being primarily a means for advancing his personal ambition? There is no man in the country to-day who better deserves his reputation than Gov. Hill does, for he has earned every particle of it by his own exertions.

The doubts which continue to be expressed as to the stability of, and indeed as to the existence of the Brazilian Republic, are largely based on the wide extent of its territory, the want of real community of interest between the provinces, the heterogeneous character of the population, and the ignorance and barbarism of a large portion of it. It is not enough, as every one knows, to get rid of a monarch in order to set up a republic. There must be enough community of ideas and aims among the people, and enough political capacity among their leaders, to reorganize the Government after the monarch has gone. Whether these things exist in the case of Brazil, time only will tell, and time must be allowed to tell. Everybody for this reason recognized the indiscretion of Mr. Henderson in trying to push the Pan-American Conference into a vote of welcome to the Brazilian Republic, and the great discretion of the Senate in resisting the attempt of Mr. Morgan to force a recognition of the Fonseca Government by ours. Any such haste would have come with probably worse grace from the United States than from any other Power in the world, considering the warmth with which we insisted on the importance of delay on the part of

England and France in recognizing the Southern Confederacy. It takes a good while to ascertain the real results of a revolution. Any one who doubts this should recall the history of the first and second French republics, of the Spanish Republic of 1874, of the most of the South American republics, and of the Southern Confederacy.

But there is one element in the Brazilian problem which is more important than any, and which does not seem to have attracted all the attention it merits. No matter how widespread republican feeling may have been, or how slender the hold of the monarchy on popular affection, the fact is that the revolution was wrought by the army. It was "troops" that did the work. It was a general in full mutiny against his superior officer who gave the old Emperor notice to quit. It is this same mutineer who is now at the head of the Government. He holds the capital by military force. As far as we can make out, he issues orders to himself and is only answerable to himself. Has any permanent constitutional government, either monarchical or republican, been set up by such an instrumentality? We can recall none, unless the restoration of Charles II. by Gen. Monk can be called by that name. Human nature must, in fact, have undergone considerable change in Brazil if a parliamentary republic issues all at once from a military revolt, under the auspices of a general who gave a sovereign of fifty years' standing only twenty-four hours' notice to leave the country, and put him on shipboard as a prisoner. Everybody's head is more or less turned on all subjects by the possession of overwhelming physical force. Gen. Fonseca may prove an exception to this rule, but the presumptions are against it, and there is nothing disrespectful in a great distrust of him. The difficulties that are feared or expected about bringing the provinces into the republican line, will furnish him with plenty of excuse for maintaining a strong military force at the capital, and using it unflinchingly to repress what all saviours of society call "incendiary language."

President Celman has sent a special message to the Argentine Congress on the financial crisis through which the country is passing. In a preliminary statement, he maintains that the cause of the trouble is not to be sought in the depreciated currency, but that it is inherent in the nature of the case. Any new and rapidly expanding country, he says, has to go through the same thing. With a sudden development of all resources, the inflow of a great immigration, the building of extended lines of railways which have to be, for a time, comparatively unproductive, there must be, he argues, a demand for capital beyond the power of the country itself to supply. Hence came the flood of paper money and its consequent depreciation. As a clincher, he says that the present crisis is no worse than that experienced in 1872–76, when the country was on a gold basis. That the President perceives this to be rather hollow reasoning appears from the fact that he goes on to admit the state of things financially to be very bad, and to propose some measures to remedy what he had declared to be inevitable. He asks Congress to prohibit the further issue of paper money, as also of *cédulas* of the Mortgage Bank. He also wants the outstanding circulation to be called in and destroyed, until the total shall be reduced to $100,000,000. He would have the Government maintain a gold reserve of $80,000,000, recommends higher taxes on luxuries and lower on necessaries, and advises the suspension of public works voted but not actually begun. It is essential, he says, that the Government should be administered as economically as possible, and the surplus applied to the purchase and refunding of the outstanding 5 per cent. bonds. It is reported that this message itself has had the effect of bettering affairs somewhat, though foreign exchange still remains high, and gold continues to be quoted at a dizzy figure—considerably over 200.

The reassembling of the Cortes and the reopening of party struggles in Spain bring Sagasta no end of troubles. His effort to reorganize the Cabinet and to conciliate disaffected Liberals has thus far proved fruitless. Martos still resents his deposition from the Presidency of the Chamber, and declares that his honor forbids him to have any communication at all with the Prime Minister. Gamazo and his band of protectionist Liberals decline to make any alliance with Sagasta until the latter is prepared to surrender unconditionally to their programme. In like manner, Gen. Cassola insists upon the adoption by the Government of his scheme of military reform before he will give in his adhesion. Still, the situation is favorable to the continuance of Sagasta in power. He has the prestige of the bit of national glory won during the summer in the collision with the Sultan of Morocco. He has apparently the unlimited confidence of the Queen Regent, and can call upon her for any assistance within her power. Then he is pushing the universal-suffrage measure so as to win all possible popularity from that popular movement. The Opposition, it is true, have taunted him with insincerity in the matter, pointing to the empty Government benches as the debate goes on, but, sincere or not, Sagasta urges the bill, and has a great hold on the people in consequence. The greatest difficulty he has to face is the bad financial situation of the country. The deficit has been piling up for several years, at the rate of about $20,000,000 per annum, and shows no sign of falling below that figure. The Government is reaching out for every peseta in sight, proposing tobacco monopolies and suggesting the sale of the public salt works, but has nothing except such temporary shifts to propose, though the need of some thorough and comprehensive measure is urgent.

The action of the Italian Government in so soon repealing the differential duties laid on French imports in 1887 is a marked display of international good sense, at the same time that it is a rather conspicuous eating of humble pie. The measure was distinctly foreshadowed in the speech from the throne, and the Minister of Finance, Signor Seismit-Doda, at the time of introducing the Government bill into Parliament, made a long speech in explanation of the sudden reversal of policy. He frankly admitted that the original legislation had not been intended as permanent, but only as a move to bring France to terms in several pending disputes between the two countries. The scheme had failed disastrously, the Minister acknowledged. There had been a very great loss of trade to Italy, and smuggling had been enormously stimulated. The Government had seen its mistake, and now proposed to retrace its steps, and to do it without any haggling with France. The latter nation might or might not repeal its own retaliatory legislation; Italy was sick of the commercial warfare, and was going to end it so far as she was concerned. This decision has been received very favorably on both sides of the Alps. The French press—so far at least as it is represented by the *Republique Française*—is pleased at the situation, and says that France may be counted upon to go as far as Italy in removing the barriers to trade. The German press, on the contrary, is not altogether happy over the prospect of a reconciliation between two nations that Prince Bismarck has been trying to set by the ears.

The materials are evidently accumulating for an Anglo-German row between Stanley and Emin when the latter gets well and gets back to Europe, somewhat like that in which Sir Morell Mackenzie figured around the Emperor Frederick's deathbed. The Berlin *Tageblatt* severely criticises Stanley for his stories about Emin's vacillation, and threatens him with exposure when Emin comes home. Stanley's theory is that, after reaching Emin, through incredible hardships, he found him surrounded by mutinous troops, whom he (Stanley) had to thrash into subordination, and that for months Emin was unable to make up his mind whether to come away with him or stay behind, thus causing the whole party great delay and danger. The German theory is, that when Stanley reached Emin's territory, instead of commanding a real rescuing force, he was at the head of a small band of worn-out ragamuffins whose assistance seemed a mockery, and that Emin was naturally reluctant to abandon a province which he had ruled for years to go off with such a party. It will be seen that there are in these two opposing views wherewithal to make a journalistic controversy of considerable length and great bitterness. The sympathy of the world we think, however, will be with Stanley. To have reached Emin with any kind of force, even with a single follower, was the exploit of a hero, and no want of welcome from Emin can diminish his glory. It is one of those cases in which each side may be right without discredit to the other; but we fear the newspapers will not be satisfied with any such solution of the difficulty.

HEARINGS ON THE TARIFF.

THE hearing of the Committee of Ways and Means on the iron-ore question is the first of a series intended to embrace the whole tariff before it comes up for general discussion in Congress. These hearings will attract more attention than has been given usually to such inquiries because of the great awakening of last year. When a man comes forward, as Mr. Geo. H. Ely did on Thursday, and advocates a duty of seventy-five cents a ton on iron ore because he is a producer and seller of the article, his opinions will be subjected to a more rigid scrutiny than they were in 1883, when the present duty was imposed, because more people are now familiar with the subject. But probably few know how great an outrage this duty on iron ore is, or remember the swindle by which it was enacted.

There was no mention of iron ore in our tariff from the beginning of the Government until the year 1874. Prior to that time it had been classed with unenumerated raw materials at a nominal duty of 10 per cent. ad valorem. In that year it was lifted to 20 per cent., in order to accommodate the mine-owners of the Lake Superior region. This step was taken in pursuance of the principle adopted in the copper tariff, that if an American producer of any article has peculiar advantages in the production of it, he ought to have a Government subsidy in addition. This principle had been applied so extensively to other things that when the great deposits on Lake Superior were brought to profitable working, and the demand for ore was increasing from year to year, the petition of the mine-owners for 10 per cent. more could not be resisted. The Tariff Commission of 1882-3 found that, notwithstanding this duty of 20 per cent., the importation of ores adapted to the making of Bessemer steel was rapidly increasing. These were ores from Spain and the Mediterranean described as "low in phosphorus." The rate of 20 per cent. ad valorem they found to be equal to 54 cents per ton average. They recommended that it be changed from ad valorem to specific and fixed at 50 cents per ton.

This rate was agreed to by both House and Senate, but when the bill went to a "Committee of Conference on the *disagreeing* votes of the two houses," it was reported back with a clause fixing the rate of duty on iron ore at *seventy-five cents per ton*. This was most unquestionably a swindle upon Congress and upon every industry in the United States dependent upon iron or steel—and what industry is not so dependent? It was a swindle upon Congress, because Congress had already decided that it should be fifty cents per ton. There were no disagreeing votes on that question for a conference committee to harmonize. But since a conference report must be adopted as a whole or rejected as a whole, the swindle was ratified, and American industry has been suffering the consequences, as depicted by Mr. Tobey of Massachusetts, ever since. In the same bill the House had fixed the duty on steel rails at $15 per ton and the Senate had raised it to $15.68 per ton. The Conference Committee reconciled these disagreeing rates by fixing it at $17 per ton.

Mr. Ely, the President of the Western Ore Association, in his argument before the Committee, contended that the duty of 75 cents per ton had been beneficial because, under that stimulus, the production of ore had risen from 10,000,000 to 15,000,000 tons within the short space of three years. This was for the benefit of the country according to his view. Mr. Tobey of Massachusetts held, on the other hand, that it was no benefit to him as a manufacturer to pay 75 cents per ton tax on an article indispensable to his business. Leaving Mr. Ely and Mr. Tobey and their respective claims for the present, is it not worth asking whether it is an advantage to the country to be rapidly deprived of one of the most important treasures with which Divine Providence has endowed it, and which, when once extracted and used, can never be replaced? At the recent meeting of the British Iron and Steel Association, the shortage of Bessemer ores in the United Kingdom was the principal subject of discussion. The approaching exhaustion of the most accessible mines of Spain and the Mediterranean was considered, and the means of reaching the deposits further inland, involving of course greater expense to the smelter, was somewhat anxiously debated. The recent rapid advance in pig-iron in England, leading to large importations of pig from the United States, has undoubtedly some relation to the deficiency of Bessemer ores in the Old World. At such a time as this, some persons already enriched by the possession of an article limited in amount, the demand for which is in excess of the supply, have the effrontery to demand seventy-five cents per ton more than it is worth in order that they may be stimulated to dig it out of the earth faster than ever, and deprive future generations of Americans of one of the prime necessaries of life!

MR. M'KINLEY'S REMARKABLE BILL.

THE third section of Mr. McKinley's bill "to *simplify* the laws in relation to the collection of the revenues" declares that an invoice shall be presented to the consular officer of the *district* whence "exported," and must be made at the *place* of exportation. But if a traveller buys an article in Russia, carries it in his portmanteau to France, and sends it thence to New York, which is the country of exportation? Must he return to Russia to make an invoice?

The law now requires the manufacturer sending his goods hither on consignment to his agent, to invoice them at their actual cost at the time of *manufacture*. The proposed bill requires the manufacturer to affirm that he has inserted the market value at the time of *shipment*

"That such actual market value is the price at which the merchandise described in the invoice is freely *offered* for sale to all purchasers in said markets, and that it is the price which the manufacturer or owner making the declaration would have received, and was willing to receive, for such merchandise sold in the ordinary course of trade, and in the usual wholesale quantities."

But what if the manufacturer consigns the whole product of his factory to this country, and never sells at home?

In another section, such a manufacturer is required to declare as follows:

"The invoice which I now produce contains a just and faithful valuation of the same, at their *actual market value or wholesale price* at the time of exportation to the United States, in the principal markets of the country from whence imported for my account [or for account of myself or partners]; that the said invoice contains also a just and faithful account of all the *cost* of finishing said goods, wares, and merchandise to their present condition."

But what if the *cost* of manufacture is unlike the *wholesale price?*

Section 7 permits one who has *purchased* abroad to add, on entry, to the invoice value in order to make market value, but does not permit such addition in case of consigned goods. Why not? If, according to the McKinley bill, the appraised value exceeds the entered value by 10 (it is now 20) per per cent., then a penalty of 20 per cent. follows as an additional duty. And if the difference between the entered and the dutiable value is more than 20 per cent., then, declares Mr. McKinley:

"Such entry may be held to be presumptively fraudulent, and the collector of customs may seize such merchandise and proceed as in cases of forfeiture for violations of the customs laws; and in any legal proceedings which may result from such seizure the fact of such undervaluation shall be *presumptive evidence of fraud*, and the burden of proof shall be on the claimant to rebut the same, *and forfeiture shall be adjudged unless he shall rebut said presumption of fraudulent intent by sufficient evidence.*"

Which means that if an appraiser differs from the importer in regard to value by 20 per cent., the latter is to be by law taken to be a defrauder of the revenue and required to prove a negative. The importer must deposit the estimated regular duties on entry, and, if he cannot establish a negative, he will lose his goods and his deposit for duties besides.

Section 8 of the McKinley bill declares that when a manufacturer or his agent makes an entry, there shall be presented,

"in addition to the certified invoice or statement in the form of an invoice required by law, a statement, signed by such manufacturer, declaring the *cost of production of such merchandise*, such cost to include all the elements of cost as stated in section 34 of this act."

Why require the *cost* of manufacture, in addition to the price or value at time of shipment? The goods may have been made years before shipment. Why compel the manufacturer thus to disclose the secrets of his business? How can such cost of manufacture aid the appraiser to ascertain dutiable value?

Mr. McKinley's section 10 requires appraising officers to ascertain and report to the collector,

"(any invoice or affidavit thereto or statement of cost or of cost of production to the contrary notwithstanding), the actual market value and price of imported merchandise, *as bought and sold in usual wholesale quantities*, at the time of exportation to the United States, in the principal markets of the country whence the same has been imported."

But what will happen if the importer bought in *retail* quantities? Will the appraiser appraise *below* the entered value?

Section 11 then declares that if the ap-

praiser cannot ascertain the market value, he shall ascertain the *cost* of production, and add a "reasonable profit," which sum shall be the dutiable value. And then if the appraiser's sum exceeds the entered sum by 20 per cent., confiscation is to follow as provided in section 7. Are such barbarism and despotism possible?

Section 12 sweeps away all merchants from participating in reappraisements, and declares that the dutiable *value*, as finally fixed by the new Board of General Appraisers, shall be final, but the collector shall nevertheless fix and levy the *rate*. If the importer, however, finds the rate unlawful, he can protest as now, but the protest shall go to the new Board of Appraisers (not to the Treasury, as now on appeal), and thus the appraisers may decide both the value and the rate. If the importer believes the appraisers' *rate* to be unlawful, he can apply to the Federal Circuit Court "for a review of the questions of *law* involved in such decision." What of the *facts?* it will be asked, The section declares:

"Thereupon the court shall order the Board of Appraisers to transmit to said Circuit Court a certified statement of their findings of the *facts* involved in the case and their decision thereon; and the *facts* so found and certified *shall be final and conclusive upon the court.*"

Have the Secretary of the Treasury and Mr. McKinley gone mad over protective taxes? The rate depends on the *facts*, and the facts make the case, but the facts the importer cannot try! If the bill shall become a law, the Harrison Administration will select the members of the new Board, and, whether nominally Democrats or Republicans, they will all be protectionists, or opposed to taxation reform, and confederates of the manufacturers seeking the highest rates of tariff taxes. And such a partisan board is to be supreme over dutiable values and the facts which lead up to rates.

Section 19 furtively restores taxes on packing-boxes and coverings, and will enormously increase customs taxes.

But the climax of protectionist deviltry in this McKinley bill is in the twenty-ninth section, where a sly and stealthy effort is made, by reducing non-enumerated articles down to a minimum, or none at all, to inflict, in every ambiguous case, and where Congress has not spoken distinctly, the very highest possible rate. It is a furtive attempt to nullify the decision of the Supreme Court that the lowest rate shall be levied in all cases of reasonable doubt. One sees in that section the fine Roman hands of Tichenor and Hepburn, who put through the worsted decision. The section must be read to be appreciated. No synopsis or abridgment can do justice to its cunning devices intended to mislead the average Congressman.

We do not doubt that this bill will, in order to give it popularity, be heralded as the Hewitt-Manning bill, which it resembles as an Hyperion does a Satyr. And yet one having a sense of humor can but laugh who sees that this McKinley bill is the thin edge of an entering wedge to be driven home in order to prepare for the Republican tariff revision that is to follow. By this McKinley bill the protectionists hope, first of all, to get partisans of theirs to fix values and rates—always the highest possible rates—and fix them without interference by juries who now decide the facts, and then to manipulate new tariff schedules with ambiguities which will enable the schedules to slip through Congress unobserved. In the presence of such a peril, now that the Republicans have both branches of Congress and the Executive, the friends of lower tariff taxes will need to do something more effective than debate the relative advantages of internal and external taxes respectively, or discuss the relative orthodoxy of Mills or Randall.

OUR ALASKAN SEAL ROOKERIES.

It is quite impossible for one to read the letters that have recently appeared in the London *Times* on the habits of fur-seals, and not feel a deep interest in the questions respecting them now under discussion by the Governments at Washington and London, and in the questions growing out of the expiring contract of lease by our Government of our seal islands and fisheries to the Alaska Commercial Company. Mr. Flower, of the London Natural History Museum, writing apparently from a professional point of view, says:

"Scarcely a century ago fur-seals existed in numbers which appear now almost incredible on many coasts and islands of the Southern Ocean. Juan Fernandez, Chili, the Falkland Islands, South Georgia, South Shetland, Prince Edward Island, the Crozets, some parts of Australia, Antipodes Island, and many more, mostly within our dominions or within British influence, all possessed 'rookeries,' or breeding-places of seals, which, if protected, might have been still as populous and valuable as those on the Pribyloff Islands in the Bering Sea. Every one of these, however, has, owing to the ruthless and indiscriminate slaughter carried on by ignorant and lawless sealers, regardless of everything but immediate profit, been totally annihilated, or so reduced in numbers that it is no longer worth while to visit them. The only spot in the world where fur-seals are now found in their original, or even increased, numbers is the Pribyloff group, a circumstance entirely owing to the rigid enforcement of the wise regulations of the Alaska Commercial Company, which are based on a thorough knowledge of the habits of the animals. But for this, the fur-seal might before now have been added to the long list of animals exterminated from the earth by the hand of man."

Mr. Staveley Hill, a member of Parliament, writes from a different point of view. He looks at the subject as an Englishman, and as a partisan of the Canadian sealers who kill seals in Bering Sea and not on the rookeries, which all belong to us or to Russia. What he says should be read by the aid of a large and accurate Coast-Survey map of the region, in order to appreciate the precise locality of the two islands—the Pribyloff and St. Paul's—on which are our rookeries, and the relation of the Aleutian group of islands to the peninsula of Alaska, and the distance between the westernmost of our islands (Attou) and Kamtchatka, on the one hand, and between Attou and the Komandorski islands, which belong to Russia. It is some five degrees of longitude from our westernmost island to the easternmost islands of Russia, and that is the width of the wide channel which is the entrance there, at the south, to Bering Sea. Our rookeries are on the line of longitude 172° and of latitude 57°. They have been leased to the Alaska Commercial Company till May 1, 1890, for $55,000 a year and $2.62½ a skin. All the skins go to London to be dressed. The company is limited to 100,000 skins a year.

The most competent experts estimate the entire annual yield of fur-seal fisheries in the world to be only 192,457 skins, or less than double the limit which we prescribe to the Alaska Commercial Company. The world's catch is thus classified:

Pribyloff Islands, Bering Sea	94,967
Commander Islands and Robben Reef	41,893
Islands belonging to Japan	4,000
British and American sealing fleets on northwest coast of America (including catch at Cape Flattery and Bering Sea)	25,000
Lobos Islands at mouth of Rio de la Plata	12,385
Cape of Good Hope, including islands in Southern Indian Ocean	5,500
Cape Horn region	8,162
Falkland Islands	550
Total	192,457

To Mr. Staveley Hill's letter the London agents of the Alaska Commercial Company replied that it is forbidden to that company to kill *female* seals, and it does not. Another writer, Mr. J. R. Baillie, sent the following to the *Times:*

"Mr. Hill makes a serious mistake in charging the company with 'killing on the nest.' In point of fact, the breeding seals are never molested, and the only ones killed are the young 'bachelors,' which occupy a separate portion of the island. As they roam about considerably, they fall a prey to the outside hunters, and the company's position is like that of a man who sees his cottage neighbor shooting the pheasants that have been bred in his own preserves."

Mr. George Baden-Powell, a member of Parliament, enters into the discussion to say that the Canadian sealer's main catch "is almost entirely composed of *females*"; that it is made only twenty-five miles from land; that Canadians begin in December and seal till August. Mr. Hill makes a very lame rejoinder. It appears to be quite clear, on Mr. Hill's statement, that the Canadian sealers do kill the *female* seals when getting food for their young there on our islands, or on the Russian islands, the *male* and the full-grown seals being also chiefly on the islands. Nobody denies that the Pribyloff and St. Paul Islands are as completely ours as is Staten Island in New York Harbor.

It is to be borne in mind that we have leased all our seal-fishery rights to the Alaska Commercial Company till next May; that the Treasury is asking for bids for another long lease; that the value of the lease will depend on the exclusion from Bering Sea of Canadian marine sealers described by Hill and Elliott, and that Canadian rights in that part of Bering Sea included in the boundaries of what was ceded to us, and described in the first article of the Russian cession to us, should be defined by the Harrison Administration before a new lease is sold, if we are to get the full and proper value of the concession.

There are two pending questions to be decided by the Administration:

(1.) Should we, and can we, make an international agreement between ourselves, Great Britain, Russia, and Japan, to "prevent the citizens of either country from killing seal in Bering Sea at such times and places and by such methods as at present are

pursued, and which threaten the speedy extermination of those animals and consequent serious loss to mankind," as Mr. Bayard proposed?

(2) If not, then can we, under the rules of public law applicable to our Alaskan possessions, and shall we, "solitary and alone," police one side of Bering Sea, and keep out Canadian and alien sealers who kill the female seals, and threaten the destruction of the great value of our rookeries—always taking care that by such policing we do not prevent or disturb anybody's right of navigation in Bering Sea, or any other innocent use thereof?

PEEL AND BLAINE.

THE Providence *Journal* sees indications that "Mr. Blaine may be meditating a sort of *coup d'état* on the tariff question similar to that master stroke of statesmanship which makes the best reputation of Sir Robert Peel"; and it believes it "among the possibilities that he may presently come forward with a grand scheme of reciprocity treaties with South American countries under which freedom of trade between them and ourselves would be established." It adds, after describing Peel's achievement: "Mr. Blaine can do much the same if he chooses. The conditions surrounding him are almost exactly a duplication of those that beset Peel. The opportunity before him is fully as great, if not greater."

There is likeness and unlikeness in the situation of Peel in 1841-'46 and of Blaine in 1889. Peel was First Lord of the Treasury and Prime Minister, with a seat in the House of Commons; but Blaine is only Minister for Foreign Affairs, with no speaking or voting power in our Congress. Peel, as chief of the Ministry of his day, had more power over English legislative and executive affairs than President Harrison has to-day over American legislative and executive affairs. Blaine is, in law, little more than his clerk. If the President permits, and he can negotiate treaties to that effect with the foreign governments represented by the Pan-American Congress, which treaties the Senate ratifies, he can, nevertheless, make free trade with those countries which will be "the law of the land." So much for personal similitude.

There is similarity and there is dissimilarity in the currency, the taxation, and the finances of Great Britain in 1841-46 and of the United States in 1889. Then England had a deficiency of income; now we have a surplus. Her revenue was sinking; ours is rising. Then the British Union was threatened; ours has been secured. Peel succeeded a discredited government; Blaine follows after an honorable and honored Administration. Peel came to power with a large majority in the House of Commons. Blaine has now a slender one in Congress. In 1841 the great Whig party of England had been "muddled away," but, in 1889, the Democratic party of America is more compact and vigorous than ever. Currency reform and taxation reform were in the air in England in 1841, and they are to-day in the United States. It was true of Peel that he went back and adopted the free-trade ideas of Huskisson set forth twenty years before, and accepted the recommendations of the House of Commons Import Duties Committee of 1840. Disraeli said in 1846 of Peel: "He is a burglar of others' intellect. There is no statesman who has committed petty larceny on so great a scale." Blaine cannot appropriate free-trade plans from any leader of his own party who has gone before him, but he can use the ideas set forth by Manning in his Treasury reports as Peel did the ideas of Huskisson and of Hume's Import Duties Committee. Peel had a brief experience as Prime Minister in 1834 (to be followed by Melbourne) before he came to power in 1841, just as Blaine had in 1881. The Tory party which carried Peel back to power in 1841, was not a free-trade and anti-corn-law party any more than the Republican party of 1888 was a tariff-reform party.

As in England, before Peel's day, a protective tariff was tempered by smugglers and undervaluers, so it is now among us in Blaine's day. The British tariff of 1841, like ours of 1889, was a barbarous system. It had a thousand different rates, and more than as many has ours of 1889. But Peel had to face a falling revenue: income less than outgo. England then had export taxes; we have none, thanks to the men of 100 years ago. Peel had to invent or enlarge another tax to supply the place of customs taxes reduced or abolished; Blaine has no such necessity. Peel reimposed the income tax on *property*, in order to release trade and industry from taxation. England had in 1841 a Chinese war on hand; we are in 1889 at peace. English deficits were then chronic as is now our Federal surplus.

These are some of the similarities between 1841 and 1889. In England the limit of taxation on consumption had been reached, and so has it to-day, in effect, in our country. What Peel did, Blaine can and should endeavor He should, as Manning advised, put an end to tariff taxes on imported raw materials, including wool and all ores. He should sweep away innumerable vexing little customs taxes, as Peel did. He should foster American manufactures as Peel did British manufactures. In 1842 Peel, at one blow, abolished 520 British tariff taxes, all vexing and costly of collection. In 1841 there were in England 1,046 articles subject to tariff taxes; Peel retired from office leaving less than half that number, having reduced duties on 1,035 and repealed duties on 605 articles, chiefly the food and clothing of the people. And finally, in 1846, a House of Commons chosen on a protectionist platform condemned the corn laws by a majority of 97.

And now for a future which may give Mr. Blaine pause! The division of his party on the Corn Laws was fatal to Peel. "He had forfeited the hearts of his Tory adherents," and had to turn to his opponents, as Blaine might have to turn to Democrats. The Tories could not maintain the Corn Laws or forgive Peel. Many loved the treason, but yet hated the traitor. So it may be with Blaine. Peel's Government did a noble work, but fell "in the light of day, with their face to the enemy." He hit protection a right-hander, and so can Blaine. *He* triumphed, but without his Tory army. Within six years a protectionist Ministry in England declared for "unrestricted competition," and the protectionist party vanished. The Tory party, having lost its great leader, wandered in the wilderness for twenty-eight years. But the glory of Peel to-day: how he "fills the sounding trump of fame"! Blaine should think of *that!* The cause of protective taxes is a falling cause.

A TEST OF NATIONALISM.

EDWARD BELLAMY, in his recent lecture in Boston, laid down very clearly under different headings what the Nationalists demand. Here is one of his declarations:

> "(4.) We demand that the coal-mining business, which is at present most rapaciously conducted as respects the public, and most oppressively as regards a great body of laborers, should be nationalized, to the end that the mines may be continuously worked to their full capacity, coal furnished consumers at cost, and the miners humanely dealt with."

It is always very satisfactory to get from the advocates of any new system of government, religion, or philosophy an exact statement of their aims and expectations, since it enables us to test their theories by experience and practice. Applying this test to Mr. Bellamy's coal platform, what is the result? He begins with the assertion that "the coal-mining business is at present most rapaciously conducted as respects the public." This would seem to be a very difficult proposition to prove. If the public are the victims of the coal-producers' rapacity, it must be in the way of prices for coal. But coal is, as every consumer knows, very cheap. The natural law of supply and competition has made it so. Rapacity on the part of the owners of any necessity of life is also associated in the public mind with large profits to its purveyors. But the coal companies in the last twenty years have had their full share of financial tribulation. Look at the history of the Reading and New Jersey Central Companies, and count the years in which the stronger coal companies have skipped their dividends. It is true that we have had "coal combinations" which sought to fix the price of coal arbitrarily, and succeeded for a time. But the final outcome was the disruption of the combinations, with disastrous results to the combiners. With the vast amount of capital now invested in coal lands and coal-carrying roads, the investors in such enterprises would seem to have more to fear from competition than the public has from combination.

Next Mr. Bellamy asserts that "the coal-mining business is at present conducted most oppressively as regards a great body of laborers." In making this assertion he evidently means that the miners are underpaid and irregularly employed. Any industry employing the vast number of men engaged in coal-mining must be subject to the disturbances which come from overproduction, decreased consumption, strikes, etc. The skill required in getting coal out of mines is of so low an order and so quickly acquired that the companies have no trouble to add to

their force when demand is good, and this force has to be decreased when demand becomes less.

This, however, is no practice peculiar to corporate or private employers. The same thing is done, for instance, every year in the Government navy-yards. The careful statistics of the coal trade now attainable are destructive of Mr. Bellamy's generalities. Thus, side by side with the present announcement of decreased time in the anthracite mines of Pennsylvania, are the figures showing a decrease of 1,866,994 tons in this year's shipments compared with last. The Secretary of Internal Affairs of Pennsylvania devotes a large part of his last annual report to coal-miners' wages. He shows that the average daily earnings of 710 "most skilful" bituminous miners in the year 1888 were $1.96, and of 450 similar anthracite miners $2.98. The smaller earnings of the bituminous miners are due to a regulation of their union limiting the daily "cut" to four tons per man, in order to secure employment for a larger number. These wages would not seem to be "oppressive," and as the wages of the Pennsylvania miners are regulated by the price of coal, the miners profit by any advance from which the public may suffer in the way of "rapacity." There have been pitiable scenes in some of the Western coal districts during the last year because of strikes against low wages. But the reason seems to be that those districts are at so great disadvantage as regards others that, if coal is mined there, the miners must accept the smallest pay. A report of the Illinois State Board of Labor Statistics on the year's coal operations in that State, made public last week, gives fifty cents a ton on the track as the average value of coal in several places in St. Clair County. The only remedy seems to be for these miners to seek different employment.

In the way of remedy, Mr. Bellamy would have the Government own and operate all the coal mines in the country: first, "to the end that the mines may be continuously worked to their full capacity, and coal furnished consumers at cost." The predicament into which this scheme would plunge the Treasury Department may be seen from the present situation in the Pennsylvania coal regions. The corporations owning the mines have had the demand on them for coal curtailed by two very mild winters and the stagnation of the Eastern iron trade, and have in consequence been obliged to lessen their production. This reduces the miners' incomes, or, according to Mr. Bellamy, "oppresses" them. The companies have every motive to continue production if they can find a market. The Government would be no more successful a seller than are the corporations. How would the Bellamy plan work? Mining would go on to "the full capacity" of the mines; there would be no reduction of wages and so no decrease in the cost of production, and there would be a vast accumulation of mined coal for which there would be no present market, and which would remain to glut the market of the future, while the expense of the work at the mines would go steadily on. The present accumulation of silver dollars in the Treasury would be nothing to the accumulation of coal at the Government mines, and a future Windom would probably propose as a cure the issue of coal certificates to serve as additional currency.

Finally, Mr. Bellamy would have the Government operate these mines in order that the miners be "humanely dealt with." Here he descends abruptly to the humorous. Prescribing, as "humane," employment by a government which rewards a dying Pearson's almost unexampled efficiency with removal to make a place for a "worker"; which dismisses an employee like Burt for a similar reason with a brutal lack of delicacy; which has filled the country with expostmasters whose only offence was the ticket they voted; and which gauges the fitness of its day laborers by their politics! Think of the Bellamy kind of coal mines under a Harrison as President, with a Quay as patronage-dispenser in the State where most of them were situated!

The Bellamy kind of reformers should beware of the danger of descending to particulars.

MILLIONAIRES.

THERE was probably nothing in the morning papers on Friday which interested so large a public as the account the *Times* gave of the fortune of Mr. John D. Rockefeller. It amounted in all to $129,000,000, as reported by "a gentleman who knows as much of inside Standard Oil affairs as any outsider can possibly know, and who has a closer personal acquaintance with John D. Rockefeller than is usual even among those counted his friends." This goes far to confirm the rumors, which have been for some time afloat, that John D. Rockefeller was the richest man in America. The amount is probably exaggerated, because the tendency of popular rumor to-day is to magnify all fortunes above $2,000,000. Great fortunes are perhaps the thing about which the American imagination most loves to play; and in order to make the play as exciting as possible, it always makes the fortunes as large as popular credulity will possibly bear.

The millionaire is in fact the Paladin of our day. He is to American youth what Roland and Amadis de Gaul were to the youth of the middle ages, and what the wicked Marquis used to be in England in the last century—a powerful, mysterious person, *capable de tout*, whose ways and thoughts and even manners and customs are different from those of the rest of the community, and have a fascination of their own, sometimes terrible, but always overpowering. Not long ago a very rich man was killed in a railroad accident. He was caught in the débris of a broken car and burnt to death before he could be rescued. The reporter who recorded it could not get over the mystery of such a death. He was bewildered by the inability of the victim to extricate himself by drawing a check. So he headed the accident, "A Millionaire Roasted Alive—All His Millions Could Not Save Him." More recently three millionaires were together in a carriage in Minnesota when the horses took fright and ran away. Had there been only one millionaire in the vehicle, the spectacle would have been almost more than the nerves of an ordinary newspaper man could stand. To have three millionaires involved in such a catastrophe was to fill the cup of horror to the brim. So the editor headed the accident, "Three Millionaires in Danger"; a sight so appalling that probably no one who witnessed it would like to gaze on it again.

Some time ago an editor was describing the wedding of some rich people. After expending all his powers of rhetoric on the bride and groom, and the decorations of the church, and the social distinction of the guests, he reached a carefully prepared climax by exclaiming, "That little group in front of the altar represented at least $20,000,000!" The practice of mentioning the sum of money people "represent," no matter in what character they are spoken of, is in fact becoming almost a regular feature of popular parlance. The delegation which presented the petition to the Mayor in favor of the retention of Mrs. Agnew and Miss Dodge in the School Commission was described to us in one word as "representing, at a moderate estimate, $400,000,000." It is quite within the bounds of probability that we should see an astronomer or a chemist commended to popular confidence by the mention of the amount of his fortune—so deep a hold on the public mind has the idea secured that the moneyed man must necessarily be a being of infinitely varied capacity. The very servant-girls seeking places now occasionally mention the fact of having lived with "Mr. Smith the millionaire" as a certificate of every sort of competence.

The habits of millionaires probably to-day excite as much interest and curiosity as those of European royalty. The public is touched by learning the precise way in which a certain thing is done by a man who could, if he pleased, do it in so many other ways without exciting criticism. The American rich man differs greatly from his European brother in avoiding eccentricities, and leading, on the whole, an unostentatious life; but he need not do this out of any respect for public opinion, for the public really does not care to have him quiet and commonplace. It likes him to do queer things with his money, if only it can hear all about it. It does not like to think that a creature so interesting is not peculiar in some way. For there is nothing which men look for with so much eagerness as outward signs of the money-making capacity, although such signs hardly ever exist. But few observers can bring themselves to believe that they do not exist, that the millionaire does not carry somewhere in sight the traits which enabled him to make his fortune. They therefore watch him with never-dying interest, with a sort of sub-conscious hope of getting at his secret. The truth is, however, that there is no capacity so frequently concealed or invisible as the capacity for making money—the "sense of values," as some one has called it. The great financiers of all countries look and act like all sorts of people—old-clothes dealers, peddlers, colonels of cav-

alry, dukes, professors, dancing-masters, divines, and New England deacons. Nobody can tell a millionaire when he sees him, but there lies all the while, in the popular mind, an ideal millionaire whom people expect every owner of millions to resemble, and are disappointed when he does not.

One secret of this fame is, that so many people are trying for the success which millionaires have achieved. Most other sorts of eminence excite the envy or interest of a comparatively small number. Very few people think, as a possibility, of their becoming great soldiers, or statesmen, or poets, or orators, or scientific men themselves. But everybody thinks of the ownership of millions as among the chances of his own life, and now and then occupies his mind with the consideration of the things he would do with a great fortune if he had it. In other words, the life of a millionaire has a human interest for great multitudes because they often dream of leading it themselves. It is the one form of greatness to which they consciously and hopefully aspire. The results of this state of the public mind are such that a millionaire who has no sense of humor doubtless misses a great deal of innocent fun. Probably no class of men in the community, not even doctors, find their way into such unfrequented nooks of human nature as a conspicuously rich man. There is no favor so extravagant or grotesque that somebody does not ask it at his hands. His acquaintance with the base and mean side of humanity must be nearly as great as his acquaintance with its weak and silly side. His experience, too, is nearly the same in every country. If he dies with undiminished respect for his kind, it must be because his own nature is one of extraordinary simplicity.

THE LATE PROFESSOR FRIEZE.

ANN ARBOR, Mich., Dec. 20, 1889.

PROF. HENRY S. FRIEZE, who died at Ann Arbor on Dec. 7, for many years exerted a moulding influence in the development of the University of Michigan, an influence which was indirectly felt also in the work of other educational institutions. Several aspects of his career are of interest, especially when viewed in connection with the problems of the higher education.

Henry Simmons Frieze was born in Boston, in the year 1817. He received his first schooling mainly at Pawtucket, where his father, then a minister of the Universalist denomination, was settled from 1827 to 1830. At the age of thirteen he was forced to shift for himself. Six years later, with barely one year of preparatory study at Newport, he succeeded in gaining admission to Brown University. During his collegiate course he supported himself by his skill in music, and graduated in 1841 at the head of his class. He remained at the University as tutor till 1844, when he became associate principal of the University Grammar School at Providence. Among his pupils here were President Angell of the University of Michigan, Dr. H. L. Wayland of Philadelphia, the late Gen. Underwood of Boston, and many others who have gained positions of prominence, especially in Rhode Island life and affairs.

In 1854, through the influence of Prof. J. R. Boise, Mr. Frieze was called to the chair of the Latin language and literature in the University of Michigan, a position which he held till death. In 1855, and again in 1871-3, he was in Europe on leave of absence. After the resignation of President Haven, in 1869, Prof. Frieze was acting President of the University for two years. His administration was eminently successful. He suggested to the Regents the election of President Angell, then at the head of the University of Vermont, who was finally secured for the position. He was acting President again in 1880-1882, during the absence of President Angell as United States Minister to China. After 1875 he was dean of the department of Literature, Science, and the Arts. The degree of Doctor of Laws was conferred upon him by four different institutions.

In the administration of the Latin department, Prof. Frieze was a pioneer in the present so-called "advanced" methods of instruction. He was one of the first American teachers to break with the traditional treatment of the Latin classics chiefly as illustrating grammatical rules. From the very beginning of his work here he supplemented the reading of texts with lectures on the antiquities, literature, and history of Rome. He never slighted grammatical work where it was necessary, but his power lay in the interpretation and presentation of the classical masterpieces as literature. In his hands they became living and real, a means of inspiration and rare culture. Finding that the current pronunciation of Latin failed to bring out the phonetic genius of the language, in 1859 he adopted and recommended the Continental method. This was not altogether satisfactory, and in 1873 he abandoned it in favor of the Roman pronunciation. The University of Michigan was thus among the first to adopt the new system of pronouncing Latin.

One of the most important of the new features which Prof. Frieze made prominent in the work of his department was a special course for advanced students who purposed to teach Latin "in union or high schools." This course comprised both the theory and practice of instruction in Latin, together with careful drill in the minute points of the language, and was first announced in 1860. In following years other departments offered similar work. This has led to the establishment of a system of teachers' courses in special branches, supplementing the work of the Chair of Pedagogy. Students who complete a specified number of these courses receive a teacher's diploma. The far-reaching importance of such a system, especially in a State university, is obvious.

The extent of Prof. Frieze's influence upon the general organization and administration of the University can be more easily perceived than described in exact terms. He came to the institution when it contained 288 students taught by eighteen professors; when it offered to undergraduates only the conventional classical course and a new scientific course introduced by President Tappan, and provided facilities for professional study only in the Department of Medicine. He lived to see the University with an attendance of 2,100 students; with a faculty of a hundred professors and instructors; with an undergraduate curriculum offering the widest range of elective studies; and with five professional schools in successful operation. In his thirty-five years of service he worked for the interests of the University as a whole, with a practical wisdom and untiring devotion that contributed in no small degree to its rapid and permanent growth.

The ideal of the State University as distinguished from the typical college, and as the capstone of the State system of public education, had been impressed upon the University of Michigan by its first President, Dr. Tappan; but no one connected with the institution ever worked towards that ideal more persistently or more consistently than Prof. Frieze. With his peculiar grasp of educational principles he united a breadth of intellectual sympathy which enabled him to appreciate fully the claims and needs of departments other than his own. Among the important measures of which he was a prominent advocate, two are worthy of special mention—the transition from the system of compulsory to that of elective studies, which reached its culmination in 1878; and the conferring of the Master's degrees only on examination. He maintained that "the Masters' degrees should never be given for existence merely," a position which the Eastern institutions are coming more and more to adopt. He was influential in bringing about the abolition of speeches by members of the graduating classes at commencement, an exhibition which he considered inconsistent with the dignity of a real university. During the first period of his service as acting President, in 1869–'71, the pressure of public opinion led to the admission of women to all departments of the University. This rendered necessary a readjustment of many existing relations, which was skilfully and happily accomplished. When acting President in 1880, he warmly supported the project of the establishment of the "Michigan University School of Political Science," and the adoption of what is known here as the "University System" of studies for undergraduate students.

There remain two important matters connected with the University the inception of which may be credited to Prof. Frieze alone. The one is the introduction of studies in art and music on the same basis as other studies, with the bringing together of a valuable collection illustrating the history of the fine arts; the other is the "diploma" system of admission.

The nucleus of the art collection was obtained by Prof. Frieze when in Europe, in 1855; funds being furnished for this purpose by the Board of Regents. As the result of constant effort, this beginning has been supplemented by means of further appropriations and private gifts until now, when the "Museum of Art and History" contains one of the largest and best collections of the kind connected with any American institution of learning. The latest acquisition of note comprises the original plaster casts of all the works of Randolph Rogers, presented by the sculptor himself.

The diploma relation between the University and preparatory schools is an arrangement by which the University, once in a stated period, sends to any school desiring it a Committee of Inspection. The school, if approved by the Faculty, then has the privilege, for a limited period, of sending its students for admission to the University on presentation of their diplomas, without examination. This plan was originally suggested by the relations of the German gymnasia to the universities, and was first tried in 1870. It has been increasingly successful. It was so carefully formulated at the start that no essential change in its provisions has been found necessary, although there are now 71 schools sustaining the diploma relation, and about half of the students (nearly 200 this year) entering the literary department are received in this way. The plan "has been widely imitated both in the East and in the

West, though sometimes with modifications which have diminished its efficiency." Of its operation here President Angell says (Report to the Board of Regents for 1889, p. 9):

"No other system of coöperation of school and university has been found which brings them into so harmonious relations, and which impresses both so deeply with the fruitful truth that their interests are in large part identical, and that in order to discharge their full duty to the public, they must work heartily together."

It is not surprising that, endowed with a mind so alert, cultured, and progressive, Prof. Frieze at times turned his attention to the making of text-books, and produced works of more than ordinary merit in his department. His 'Æneid of Vergil,' published in 1860, was one of the earliest illustrated American editions of the poem. It showed at the same time a delicate appreciation of the spirit of the original, and an insight into the nature of the student's difficulties, which won for it at once a warm reception. A second edition was called for in 1866, followed later by a complete edition of the works of Vergil on the same plan, with a vocabulary. In 1865 he put forth an edition of the tenth and twelfth books of Quintilian (previously a *terra incognita* to American students) which immediately gained a place among the best-edited college Latin books. A second edition appeared in 1888. His last book appealed to a wider public than the preceding, and was an outcome of the art studies which he had pursued with so much interest in his later years. It is entitled "Giovanni Dupré." It contains a biographical and critical sketch of this well-known sculptor and his works, followed by two dialogues on art translated from the Italian of Augusto Conti. The book appeared in London in 1885. A second edition soon followed.

Several of Prof. Frieze's published addresses and papers are of permanent educational value. Among these the best known are his memorial address on the "Life and Works of Henry Philip Tappan, First President of the University of Michigan," 1882; "The Relations of the State University to Religion," 1887; and his report as acting President to the Board of Regents in 1881, in which he discussed the proper sphere of university education with much skill, and recommended that the period of study required for the Bachelor's degrees be reduced to three years.

From the fact that several of the younger State universities, in greater or less degree, have looked to the University of Michigan as their model, the influence of Prof. Frieze as an educator has been extended together with that of the institution which he so faithfully served. A careful statement of his work, however, can give little conception of the power of his life in the University itself. He left everywhere an inspiration for whatever is genuine and good, and a personal impress of refinement upon all who came in contact with him. His rare qualities of mind and character, his kindness to all, and finally the simplicity of his daily life, and the modesty which led him to shun even the prominence that naturally fell to his lot, increased the regard of students almost to veneration. It has been the fortune of few men in his position to be mourned by so wide a circle.

FRANCIS W. KELSEY.

DAUDET'S "STRUGGLE FOR EXISTENCE."

PARIS, December 13, 1889.

OUR novel-writers are all possessed at present with a dangerous mania: they are anxious to transfer their novels, in a dramatic form, to the stage. The reason is only too obvious: the most successful book brings little money in comparison with a successful comedy or drama. The "Monde où l'on s'ennuie" has been played nearly three hundred times, and a single representation at the French Theatre represents for the author a good round sum. There is besides in the triumphs of the stage something which flatters the vanity much more than the quiet success of a book read by the fireside. The emotions of the first representation, the applause of a large public, the emotions of the actors—all this almost intoxicates an author; if he is successful, his name is immediately in everybody's mouth, he is discussed in every drawing-room, in every newspaper.

There is much to be regretted in this tendency of our modern writers, for the qualities which make the dramatist are very different from those which make the good novelist. The drama, in its present form, is a coarse and rapid development of events, it excludes a fine analysis; it is a series of pictures, it has none of the charms of a good novel, which makes us acquainted with the most minute details of moral life. A lady friend of mine, who never goes to any theatre except when she can hear music, once said to me, as I was asking her why she so disliked the small theatres: "Well! the theatre seems to me the latest doll; I long ago ceased to play with dolls." This judgment seemed to me severe at the time, but I have always remembered it; and how often, on leaving a theatre, after having heard a new vaudeville, or operetta, or some piece even which went under the nobler name of comedy or drama, have I not said to myself: "Yes, it is but the latest doll. This is not life, it is but a poor semblance of it." I did what the children so often do—I cut my doll in pieces, to see the inside of it, and I found nothing better than what the children find.

M. Alphonse Daudet has been tempted, like many others, by the theatre; and surely neither his qualities nor his defects had marked him for a theatrical writer. The great charm of his novels is in his descriptions, which are as minute and as exact as photographs, and in his subtle analysis of character. The stage requires something shorter, more clearly defined, more simple. Daudet has tried several times to write dramas; if he did not fail in the "Arlésienne," he owed it to the charming music of Bizet; I will not speak of one or two unsuccessful attempts. This time he has met with a half-success in the "Lutte pour la vie" (The Struggle for Existence).

A curious article might be written on the introduction of scientific words into literature. In the second act of Dumas's "Étrangère," our best dramatist has introduced a doctor of the Pasteur school, who explains at length all he knows about the microbes, the vibrios, etc. The wicked Duke of the piece is compared by him to a vibrio, who fulfils his mission till the stronger vibrio shall kill him—and surely there comes M. Clarke, the husband of the Étrangère, who kills the Duke de Septmonts. I have often heard the "Etrangère," and I have always wondered why Dumas had all this talk about the microbes. There were wicked dukes before our time, and wicked people were killed in duel before Pasteur made his discoveries.

It is the same with the "Struggle for Existence." What would Darwin say, if he came to life again and saw to what uses his theories have been put, and what our ignorant literary men make of his "Natural Selection," and "Survival of the Fittest," and "Struggle for Existence," and the laws of heredity? Our "Darwinians" all think themselves little Bismarcks, and stand by his "beati possidentes" and some other famous aphorisms; the right of the strongest is the only right. They are not in the old boat of their ancestors; in the new boat, says one of the actors in Daudet's new piece, "There is nothing left." "Why," says another, "not even a gendarme?" The young men of the new school speak with contempt of all the old institutions, of religion. Another bids him not to abolish religion altogether. "It is like the banister of a staircase: you don't often use it, but it reassures you."

Such is the tone of the "strugglers for existence" in M. Daudet's piece. They pretend to be strong men, without a prejudice, without an unnecessary emotion, born to satisfy their instincts just as a lion or a fox or a hawk; they are men of prey. This is not a new idea. If you read Mme. Sand's first novels, you will see the constant development of the idea that all is good in man's nature, that the satisfaction of all his instincts is legitimate, and that all the misfortunes of the world arise only from the opposition of the wicked laws of society to the instincts and aspirations of the natural man. You can go further: you will find this doctrine, in its rudimentary form, in the 'Nouvelle Héloïse' of Rousseau, you find its systematic development in his 'Émile.' Scientific words, taken from Darwin's works and perverted from their natural sense, have found their way into our modern literature, but there is nothing new in human nature: there have at all times been men without principles, without religion, unruly creatures whom nothing can bind. The peculiarity of such creatures is that they are really unconscious and that they do not act according to any theory; and here is the great mistake of Daudet and of M. Bourget (who has recently told, in the 'Disciple,' the history of a man who ends by becoming a murderer because he believes in Darwinism). They try to prove that a man imbued with the doctrine of evolution is capable of any crime. In reality, the murderers obey no theory whatever, they follow a blind passion; they are not the slaves of an idea, they are the slaves of a desire, the slaves of the hour. It is almost painful, for those who have known Darwin, to think that he has been so much misunderstood, not only by many of his admirers, but also by his adversaries; but, after all, the storm of the present hour will pass, and whatever truth there is in his writings is independent of all the discussions, quarrels, and misrepresentations of the present time.

The 'Struggle for Existence' is the sequel of the novel 'L'Immortel.' At the end of the book Paul Astier, the ambitious young architect, has succeeded in marrying the rich Duchess Padovani. She is a great lady, much older than he, and she loves him; he only looks upon her as an instrument of his ambition. He enters the political arena; he becomes a Deputy and Under-Secretary of State. He is a strong man, but this strong man is a poor financier; in two years he has succeeded in spending twelve millions. The Duchess is ruined, she is obliged to sell the old historical Château of Mousseaux; that would be nothing if Paul loved her, but she has found him out; she knows him, though she still loves him: she knows that he has two intrigues, that he has seduced the innocent daughter of one of her own dependents, called Vaillant; that he wants to be divorced from herself and to marry a rich Austrian Jew girl, one of those foreigners who are drawn to Paris as butterflies are drawn to a light. She refuses to be divorced; she will not give him his liberty, and go through the farce which might procure him a separation.

We find them together in the third act in

Paris. Twenty-five guests have been invited to a great dinner; the Under-Secretary, Paul Astier, has not yet arrived. His two secretaries are waiting for him, and while they wait, they develop at leisure their fine theories on modern progress. They are cynical and amusing; they speak of their master with admiration mixed with some contempt. Paul Astier comes. He remains alone with his first secretary, and tells him, while he is rapidly dressing for dinner, how he was detained by Mlle. Vaillant, who wanted to poison herself. Mlle. Vaillant is the poor girl whom Astier has seduced at the same moment that he is looking for a new wife; she has discovered that Astier loves another woman, and tried to kill herself with a bottle of strychnine. Astier had taken the little bottle from her; there it is—he puts it on a table. He dresses hurriedly, talks with his secretary about his troubles, complains of the opposition of the Duchess to a divorce; he is a ruined man if he cannot marry his Austrian Jew girl. The secretary goes, and then, suddenly, in view of the small bottle of strychnine, a poison which leaves no trace, the thought of a crime darts through Astier's mind. The criminal man becomes conscious; he says nothing; we see him put the bottle aside; we understand at once that the Duchess will be poisoned.

The great official dinner has been followed by a concert, and during the concert the Duchess comes a moment to her bedroom to have a little rest. Paul Astier follows her; she is nearly fainting—wants a little air, a little water. Astier goes himself to get it, and he brings her a poisoned glass. As she is lifting it to her lips this strong man has a moment—shall I say of conscience? of revulsion? He stops her, takes her arm and hand. What has come across his mind? Is it a vision of the scaffold, or has he only a little pity on his victim? She understands him: she tells him all that she has in her heart; but this pathetic scene ends in an unexpected manner—she consents to be divorced from him. He is free; he can marry another woman. Of course the day of retribution will come. At the very moment when Paul Astier, now free, is going round the gardens of Mousseaux with his Jewish bride, old Vaillant arrives, with many other people, as the auction is going to take place. He has his daughter to avenge; in a few moments the happy Astier will be again the possessor of Mousseaux, as his young bride will bid for it; Vaillant meets him, and says to him quietly: "The strongest must kill the weakest," and he kills him with a revolver's shot.

Such is this new drama, which does not differ from any melodrama except by its pretension to deal with the philosophical questions of the day, and by the unfortunate introduction in the literature of the boulevards of scientific terms and theories which are not made for the public of our theatres, and which this public is entirely incapable of understanding.

Correspondence.

CLEVELAND'S REFORM LEADERSHIP.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: So far as one may correctly judge from a slight acquaintance, ex-President Cleveland sincerely wishes, I think, to go his own way, and be no more a "public character" than events compel. He cannot, however, avoid a certain amount of public consideration; and it is certainly with no purpose towards him of personal laudation that attention is called to the rather exceptional representative position he has come to occupy with reference to the two most important questions of the hour, namely, civil-service reform and tariff reform.

There are strong indications that the cause of tariff reform will almost take care of itself. The logic of politics has solidified the Democrats upon it, until the prominent, influential Democratic leaders who do not openly favor a material reduction and thorough reform of the tariff, in the direction of a tariff for revenue only, could be loaded into an omnibus. Events have made Mr. Cleveland the leader and exponent of his party upon that question. Equally significant seem the indications that if the Republicans do not, in this Congress, substantially follow the same lead, and at least make a start in the work of reforming the tariff to a revenue basis, the next general elections will go overwhelmingly against them. In either event Mr. Cleveland conspicuously leads the way.

But civil-service reform does not fare so well. Its enemies have evidently "got their second wind"; and the Farwell-Gorman element in both parties is coming to the front with propositions for repeal or emasculation of the law, by withholding appropriations, etc. What is wanted is a courageous leader who can hold the *Democrats* to the principle of that reform. Mr. Cleveland's speech at the Mercantile Club banquet in Boston shows that he can be relied upon. In other words, if the Democrats, sincerely determined to reform and lower the tariff as they undoubtedly are, follow where Cleveland leads on that question, they must follow him also on the other; and it is the other which most needs leadership within the party organizations.

Upon the single question of civil-service reform, it is almost certain he could not carry his party with him; but, uniting the two, as he seems determined shall be done, if his voice is to be potent, the strength of his party organization upon both these great questions may be substantially cast in the line of the truest public interest. As a matter of practical politics, this would mean not only that the reform law will stay, but that the only material changes in it which time will bring will be in the direction of its greater efficiency. If the Democrats can be held only half-way right, that reform is not in serious danger. B.

Burlington, Iowa, December 21, 1889.

OBJECTIONS TO THE AUSTRALIAN BALLOT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Here in Massachusetts, where the Australian balloting system has been tried with marked success in the State and municipal elections of the year, there are still some grumblers among the honest portion of the people. The principal causes of dissatisfaction are two: one present, the other future. The first cause is the fact that, under the present system, many do not vote for minor officers. The second cause is the probable number of mistakes that will be made in 1892, when fourteen electors will have to be selected from an alphabetical list of at least forty-two.

To these objections we, who are believers in the law, answer, that the first is an argument for rather than against the system, and that the remedy for the second can be easily found.

The first objection means that the Australian system has introduced a standard higher than the mere ability to read and write—the standard of intelligent interest. The voter of former years took a printed ticket that was handed him, made sure that it was headed Republican or Democratic, and voted it. In nine cases out of ten the voter in a municipal election cared little about the nominees for School Committee. Under the present system the voter takes, as a rule, some interest in the officers for whom he votes. To-day the School Boards in our cities are more likely to be chosen by those taking an intelligent interest than ever before. No better illustration can be given than the city of Newton. There a nominee for the School Board on the Republican ticket was defeated by a majority of over 600, notwithstanding the election of the Republican nominee for Mayor by over 200. Under the old system such a change in results would have been well nigh impossible. Under the present one the parents, alumni, and scholars by arousing an interest were able to elect an able man in the place of a poor one. Any one would declare absurd a proposition to allow the people of Massachusetts to help the citizens of New York elect a Governor. A little thought will show that it is just as absurd to regret that residents who care and know nothing about minor offices neglect to vote for men to fill them.

The objection based on a probable confusion in the choice of Presidential electors is more formidable in fancy than in fact. The remedy is easily found and as easily applied. Each State has the right to fix the manner in which its electors shall be chosen. At present each voter votes for the entire number. It would be much simpler to have each voter vote for three—two at large and one from the voter's Congressional district. This would give a much fairer and better index of the popular wish than we have at present. It would naturally be opposed by selfish politicians, but to be adopted it needs only the support of the people who believe in fair elections whose results shall voice the popular wish untainted by corruption. Samuel Alden Granson.

Boston, Mass., December 23, 1889.

PARTIES AND YOUNG VOTERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: That the trend of young voters is to the Democratic party may be true; but will you permit one "constant reader" to express what must be the thought of many others—that any increase in power of the Democratic party is something earnestly to be deprecated rather than welcomed, as your article implies? This is not to say that your strictures on the Republican leaders and their policy are not all well founded, but the pot is not made whiter by calling the kettle black. Nor should I deny that it is sometimes advisable to vote for the Democratic candidate, whether for President or for selectman; indeed, without an occasional victory of the opposition, the most virtuous party leaders become corrupt. What can fairly be claimed is, that the patriotic and well-informed part of the community have no use for the Democratic party except as a check upon the anti-Democratic party, under whatever name this may figure; from which it is evident that any permanent increase in Democratic strength will be a misfortune.

I am aware that the claim of the Republicans to superior virtue is often laughed at; yet, leaving the South out of the question, it seems to me that the truth of the claim is obvious. The Republican party will very likely perish through the selfishness or folly of its leaders, as the Federalists and Whigs did before it; but whatever is good in the political future must come from the kind of men who have formed the body of these parties. What is the strength of the Democrats is precisely what should cause it to be regarded with unceasing distrust, suspicion, and fear. It is the

party of the "Residuum." It is that to which the ignorant, the unscrupulous, the criminal inevitably gravitate. Its strongholds are the abodes of the illiterate or vicious, and its usual weapons are appeals to ignorance and prejudice. That occasionally its leaders are men of high character and sound sense does not prove the contrary any more than the performances of the Republican office-holders under Grant and Harrison show the corruption of the rank and file.

What is needed is that the trend of young voters be towards independence, and it is in the sons of Republican fathers that will be found those qualities which make independence valuable; not among those who have grown up in a Democratic atmosphere. W: M. G.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., December 27, 1889.

[Our correspondent will not suppose that we have welcomed the accession of fresh and youthful blood to the Democratic party any further than this has been brought about by the natural gravitation of life to that which is living. That the party of the "Residuum" is now, rather than its rival, a vital organization, controlled (in the main) by patriotic and reformatory elements, we firmly believe. That it is so in every State or lesser locality, or that it will always remain so, we do not believe, nor do we conceive that the genuine Independent ever votes with it for the party's sake, or wears its name as a badge of party fealty. And why should we "leave the South out of the question," with its sad and vast "Residuum" of ignorance, venality, and barbarism which slavery has bequeathed to the Republican party? The voter who would choose aright can safely confine himself to the question, Which party is, at this epoch, dominated by leaders who point away from the Residuum, however much they must depend upon it for majorities?—ED. NATION.]

BACHE, NOT DUANE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Had Mr. Duane waited one more week he would have received satisfaction without laying himself so open to criticism on the score of the very charge of "careless literary or publication work" that he brings against me. For he would not then have been compelled to condemn half of my account of the Washington letters (forged), because of a single misstatement, or to have committed such a glaring and incomprehensible error as to affirm the impossibility of the publication of an article, which a mere reference to a file of the *Aurora*, March 6, 1797, would have shown was printed in type as cold as the malignant spirit of the writer. My error was in attributing that article to the pen of Duane, a statement made first, I believe, by John Park, who published the *New England Repertory*, issued at Newburyport, Mass., and repeated again and again without any public contradiction or denial of authorship. I had collected some half-dozen references in which Duane was denounced as the writer, and it was not until two weeks ago that, by mere chance, I found a letter from Duane to Rev. Mr. Bentley of Salem, Mass., in which he denies the authorship, and gives an interesting account of his connection with the *Aurora*. As I still appear to know somewhat more of the subject than his namesake, my critic, I send you two paragraphs that bear upon this particular libel, really the only point worthy of notice raised by Mr. Duane:

"Allusion is made in a late *Repertory* to a publication in the *Aurora* of 6 March, 1797, relating to the resignation of Genl. Washington. On the subject of that article my opinion now is of no importance, but as the use of it shows that the cunning and falsehood of Dr. Park are alike adverse to the end which he proposes to obtain, I think it proper to inform you that I was not concerned with the *Aurora* at the time of that publication. Mr. Bache (Dr. Franklin's grandson) was then the editor of the *Aurora*, and I was at that time the editor of the paper now published by Bradford. Mr. Bache died of the yellow fever in September, 1798, and I became editor on the first of November following. So that Dr. Park has either wilfully passed the bounds of veracity or servilely adopted the imposture offence of his coadjutor. I noticed this imposture before in a Connecticut paper, published by a clergyman who formerly edited the *Balance*. I forget his name, but he introduced a letter of Genl. Washington's to Mr. Humphreys, in which allusion is made to Bache's paper; yet this Mr.—aye Mr. Lampper has thought it fit to transfer all the acts of Mr. Bache upon Duane's head. By-the-bye, I have no objection to accepting all the censure that my predecessor was liable; but it is fit that it should not be done in this disingenuous way.

"Let me have the merit of what I do; and when the question is put to me as to the acts of my predecessor, let me have the manly privilege of showing why and how I undertake to become responsible for them.

"You may not, perhaps, know that the family of Dr. Franklin, and the Doctor himself during his latter years, had not been treated by Genl. Washington as he and they appear to have merited. Indeed after the Doctor's death his family was in a virtual state of proscription even in the midst of this city, and this state of things too palpably countenanced by the General himself; from what cause it may be in vain to premise, but such was the unpleasant fact, and Mr. Bache who was in a manner the favorite of Dr. Franklin was one of those who felt proscription in his family—his industry, and his fortune, it was marked and pointed against him to a degree that you could not conceive without some intimacy with the affairs of the day, and on the spot. Mr. Bache, who next to idolized his grandfather, felt all the culpability that belongs to virtuous minds, and all the indignation of a generous spirit; and he had a right to exult when Genl. Washington felt in his turn the 'slings and arrows of fortune.' He certainly did exult, and with good cause."

So, on Duane's own statement, I transfer the credit (?) of having penned this "classic of unseemly libel" from his shoulders to those of Bache, leaving a warm sympathy in the sentiments expressed in that libel to Duane. I do this gladly in justice to the memory of Duane, and trust his namesake, who conceives the publication of the libel an impossibility, will be satisfied with this correction. As he protests against careless historical writing, I protest against the carelessness of critics who, seizing upon a single error, use it to damn an entire work. If Mr. Duane will read Carpenter's history of the Jefferson Administration, he will be better able to judge of the character of one who was by no means the least of a clique of scurrilous journalists—William Duane. WORTHINGTON C. FORD.

WASHINGTON, December 26, 1889.

POOR FARMING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In southeastern Ohio, along the Ohio River, is a tract of hilly land in which the soil was originally a loose black loam, of varying depth, with a substratum of clay. When first cleared, it would produce abundant crops of almost any farm product suited to that climate. The one great drawback is the steepness of the hillsides, which renders cultivation laborious and causes the loose soil to wash badly.

The most of this land has been farmed for two or three generations, and a passage through it during the summer will readily indicate to the close observer some of the leading reasons for the present depression in agriculture. If you were to stand with me on one of these hills, about the first feature to attract your attention would be hillsides on every hand seamed with deep ravines, so numerous as to be almost indistinguishable, showing the underlying red clay even for a distance of several miles. In some places whole acres will be so badly washed that scarcely a green thing can find sufficient nourishment for existence. Here and there the ruins of an old tobacco-house loom up in the midst of these waste places, telling of productiveness in days gone by, and telling, too, to the well-informed, the reason why, in many cases, that productiveness has passed away.

But your eye will not long dwell upon the scene until, here and there, an oasis in this dreary desert will appear. On some level hilltop or "flat," lower down, stands a modest but comfortable farm-house, a barn, less modest sometimes, and scarcely less comfortable, than the house and other outbuildings, in proportion. The fields around are green, the fences are in good order, and the signs of comfort, if not of actual prosperity, are unmistakable. Now, what makes the difference? Simply the manner in which the natural advantages have been used. This man's land was no more fertile when first brought under cultivation than the lands surrounding, and the rain torrents have passed over his steep hillsides just as often and as copiously as over those of his neighbors. He has calculated his disadvantages in advance, and has guarded against them; they have not. They were tempted, years ago, by the high price of tobacco to clear off their woodland and put it to tobacco again and again until tobacco and washing rains together have left none of the virgin fertility behind to tell the tale. He, on the other hand, has kept his steep hillsides almost constantly in grass, so that exhaustion by washing has been reduced to the minimum. And so we might continue enumerating points which have come to our notice again and again, showing the widest divergence in agricultural results where the natural conditions are substantially identical.

No reasonable man can doubt, after investigation, that taxation, and much else which passes by the name of taxation, has placed agriculture at a decided disadvantage in comparison with many other pursuits; but the person who desires to do anything towards the general elevation of farming industries must not for a moment lose sight of the wretchedly inadequate methods almost universally employed by the farmers themselves. We have often asked men of personal experience in such matters how many farms they could name which yield an amount of produce reasonably approximating their full capacity, and have never met a man who could name one such instance. Wheat and corn are two of Ohio's staple products; and yet it is true that the average yield of neither, in a good year, is one-half what reasonably good soil with fair cultivation has often been known to produce.

With such facts as these everywhere in view, it is plain that there is a sufficient basis of hope for a revival of agricultural prosperity. It will come whenever farmers as a class become sufficiently imbued with the scientific spirit of the age to conduct their operations upon scientific principles. The old notion that a farmer needs no other training than to have been born under the roof of a farm-house must be thoroughly eradicated, and a science of farming must be developed and placed where it be-

longs, far above many of the most honored sciences of the day. How much longer shall it be said, to the reproach of one of the oldest and most honorable occupations, that the intelligent young men of the land all turn away from it because it gives no exercise to the higher faculties of their nature? There is scarcely a more promising field for scientific investigation in existence than is offered by agriculture, if those who are directly interested in its development can only be induced to employ the proper scientific methods. If a fair proportion of the earnest and industrious college-bred men who are yearly going out into the world will only turn their attention in this direction, they will occupy a higher position in the opinion of posterity two or three generations hence than there is any prospect of gaining in the crowded ranks of politics, law, or mercantile pursuits. Ceres has no lack of good things to bestow if American farmers will only lay the required sacrifices upon her altar, but she will not brook neglect. W. H. Johnson.

THE EASTERN FARMER ONCE MORE

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A few words more about the decay of the farming interest and the proposed remedies. I cannot quite agree with Mr. Clarence Gordon in his assignment of causes. His first cause is the lack of quick capital. He says: "Farming, contrary to the practice in other businesses, is, in the majority of cases, taken up or inherited without any other capital than that dead in a plant rigorously taxed. . . . Other businesses providently lay by some art or grace, but this boasts no surplus save nature's alms." This is the first time I ever knew the New England farmer to be accused of spendthrift and improvident habits. The reverse seems to me the truth. Twenty years ago a very large proportion of New England farmers had money in the savings banks, invested in United States bonds, or loaned out at interest. From these stores were drawn the moderate sums necessary to educate the boys for future college presidents and legislators; on the income of such accumulations many an old age of comfort has been spent; and on the capital advanced by the "old folks at home" have been built the fortunes of many of the boys who went to the city. Even to-day I know a few—a *very few*—farmers who hold Western mortgages. The lack of capital cannot have been the cause of failure in farming.

Moreover, capital is *never wanting* where good returns are promised. Loans on farm mortgages have always been a favorite investment. If farming were profitable in New England, a hundred millions would be at command here more readily than in Minneapolis or Kansas City. The great majority of business enterprises are carried on largely by means of borrowed capital. The farmer who has a farm two-thirds paid for is relatively as well capitalized as four-fifths of the merchants and manufacturers. The trouble has not been lack of capital to invest, but rather that the capital invested has been sunk. If Judge Nott's Mr. Foster had invested what he has spent on buildings and in improving his farm, at 4 per cent. interest, and had worked as a common laborer, he would probably be a richer man than he now is.

I am frank to admit that it might be difficult to borrow capital for farming *now*, and for very good reasons—the chances are that it would be lost. Two years ago, when trying to dispose of an excellent New Hampshire farm, I was somewhat disconcerted when my desired customer showed me a letter from the treasurer of a savings bank, to which he had applied for a loan, reading: "We decline to loan one dollar on any farm in the town of ——." Furthermore, farmers have not been backward in investing their own capital or in borrowing of others when they saw a fair chance to obtain good returns. The men who now are managing the great business interests of the country would, many of them, have been New England farmers had not circumstances driven them from the farms; such men are not from a class that fails to see the opportunities for gain if such there be. The farmer who has *saved* his "quick capital" instead of investing it in his farm, is the only comfortable one to-day.

Again, Mr. Gordon says the farmer has no well-defined system of finance, by which he seems to mean that the farmer has not been an elaborate bookkeeper. Perhaps the farmer would have stopped farming sooner had he had the black-and-white results of his labors before him; but good business methods on a farm do not need anything like the system necessary to the merchant. The New England farmer has generally—to his praise be it said—done business on a *cash basis*; the credit system is the cause of bookkeeping. Who ever knew a farmer that could not tell what he paid for that cow, and whether she proved well or not? I remember one farmer who was an elaborate bookkeeper: he could tell by reference the pedigree and age of every hen and pig; he knew how much they ate, how much income he got from them; he could prognosticate their future as well as Venner can Boston weather. He spent his father's fortune, his wife's fortune, failed twice, and finally went West, leaving his unscientific neighbors to mourn for the money he owed them. Red tape will never save farming.

Probably the farmer does not "study the *world* of trade," nor, for that matter, does the groceryman nor the manufacturer. Our foreign trade does not show that any one in America is much given to such study. The farmer may not be quite so well posted as the business man of the city; he tries to raise something that will sell, and, if he doesn't succeed one year, tries something else the next. Certainly he has not learned to "work" the Secretary of the Treasury so as to have the national Government guarantee him a good market for all he may produce.

I find nothing in Mr. Gordon's reasons that satisfactorily explains why farming should decay while other industries flourish. I am driven back to my three causes—of Western competition, direct taxation, and indirect taxation. I had thought of the first as mainly natural and unavoidable until Judge Nott pointed out that that, too, results from Governmental interference; the farmer has more reason to curse his legislators than I thought.

As to Mr. Gordon's remedy, I find one fatal objection, besides the apparent impracticability of the scheme: it is not a remedy at all. The alarming feature of the situation under discussion is *not* an impending lack of farm products, or even the entire desertion of New England, though that would be a calamity. We shall have food enough, and the world will not suffer because it is not produced in New England. The real cause for anxiety is, that the economic conditions are now such as to make the *farm home* impossible. It has not been merely the occupation of tilling the soil that has made the country population of New England so robust and so active in mind and spirit; it has been the combination of that occupation with the *peculiar environment and influences of the farm home.* The deplorable aspect of the situation is not the industrial, it is the social and moral. What great people have not been continually reinforced and revivified from the mass of small farmers? *Latifundia Italiam perdiderunt.* Joint-stock farming has no greater virtue than joint-stock lumbering. Invoke "associated capital" and centralized administration into agriculture, and our interest in it becomes purely an economic one. Such a scheme misses the whole point of the discussion. Who cares whether a *company* for wheat-raising or cattle-raising succeeds or not? The very isolation of the farm home has been one of its advantages. On the farm, the *family* have gone into business together; from this, it seems to me, have come most of those results which all recognize as so valuable. To substitute a huge industrial machine, with president, directors, superintendents, and laborers, for the old farm home is revolution, not remedy.

Moreover, it would accelerate the present decay. Suppose such a plan to succeed: it would necessarily put forth a large product; competition would be increased, the small farmer would feel another turn of the screw. One of the most intelligent men I know, who is putting more brains and energy into his farm than go into most manufactories, said to me the other day that he thought Commissioner Bachelder's scheme of colonizing New Hampshire with Swedes, if it succeeded, would injure the Yankee farmer greatly: it would mean simply more competition, and competition from a class whose tastes and habits allow them to live on very little outlay. The analogy of the Chinese in California is in point.

It must be admitted that farming "by wholesale" is probably inevitable; my point is that such a change is no equivalent for the old method. I see no reason to doubt that the small farmer is sentenced as surely as the small manufacturer is executed. Possibly we shall do very well without any small industries in which a large number are trained to self-reliance, independence, and individual responsibility. History gives little ground for such a belief.

One point more: Both "G. B." and Mr. Gordon propose the old method of Government favoritism to promote their remedies. "G. B." would relieve the overtaxed farmer by putting *all* taxes on land, and exempting personal property entirely. By some unexplained process, as mysterious to my untutored mind as that of transubstantiation, the acute farmer is to find himself greatly benefited, while the stupidly pleased owner of personal property will unconsciously bear the burden he supposes on the land-owner's shoulders. Mr. Gordon thinks his farming corporation would so benefit the neighborhood that it could "well afford to exempt the company's personal property from taxation." Somebody must pay taxes; if one kind of property is exempt, other kinds have the greater burden. If it is not good policy for the farmers that manufacturing corporations be exempt, much less that farming corporations should go free. Our railroad companies think themselves much abused that the Canadian Pacific is not subjected to the same burdens, and yet is allowed to compete with them.

Had the farmer been fairly dealt with, his decline would have been gradual, and slight compared with his actual experience. Would it not be well to try Nature's laws awhile, to give *laissez-faire* a chance? One need not be excessively devout, nor possess faith sufficient to remove mountains, in order to believe that Providence would have directed the industries of America as well as have our legislatures,

national and State, for the past generation. Thirty years ago we had a flourishing foreign trade, with a large merchant marine; we had a large and prosperous class of small farmers; we had a fairly homogeneous and thoroughly American population throughout our Northern States. We entered on an era of governmental interference; we adopted protection; gave away land and built railroads to it; fostered emigration in all artificial ways. We have now very little foreign trade, almost no merchant marine, a ruined yeomanry, and a heterogeneous population composed largely of the dregs of Europe, many of them without an American instinct or idea. This is not purely a case of *post hoc, propter hoc.* As well take quinine for a ringing in the head as apply the same method to remedy existing evils.

Take off the oppressive tariff, equalize direct taxation; then, if "farming don't pay," let it go. G. W. A.

Boston, December 24, 1889.

SHORTENING COLLEGE COURSES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a recent issue you published several letters on rigidity as to time of university and college courses. I write to call the attention of your readers to the fact that, under the able administration of Dr. S. S. Laws, this "premium upon the qualities which should characterize a real student" was offered by the Missouri State University. Also, the disadvantage suggested in the letter from "Teacher" is counteracted precisely as he would have it done. It was a saying familiar to my college days that special examinations were much harder than regular ones; that if a student "made up" a subject, more work would be required of him than of the class. I remember one instance: A classmate asked me how much Greek we had read the previous year, saying he had been out of school for a year, and must do the work out of class-room; when we compared what I had read in class with what he was required to read, we found his task double mine, perhaps three times as great. As I write, the names of many bright or faithful students present themselves to mind who have taken the four years' course in less time, or who have done extra work.

An Alumna of the Missouri State University.

AARON'S ROD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your last issue (No. 1277, p. 505) the reviewer of Adams's 'Administration of Jefferson,' in describing a Boston banquet of Federalist chieftains, says the following toast was volunteered in honor of Aaron Burr: "Aaron's rod: May it blossom in New York, and may Federalists be still and applaud while the great serpent swallows the less!" Regarding this effusion the reviewer says: "The volunteer symposiarch had strangely forgot that the rod which blossomed in the Biblical story was not the *same* with the rod that swallowed serpents." In truth, however, the strange forgetting was all on the side of the reviewer. It is written in Exodus (vii., 11), that "the magicians cast down every man his rod, and they became serpents, but Aaron's rod swallowed up their rods." Again, it is written in Numbers (xvii., 6) that "the rod of Aaron was among the twelve rods laid up before the Lord," and that on the morrow it was found that "the rod of Aaron was budded, and brought forth buds, and bloomed blossoms, and yielded almonds." No Biblical text, revised version, or various reading countenances the notion that Aaron did not in both cases use the same, the self-same rod, or that he ever used more than one rod.

It is recorded in both Old and New Testaments (Hebrews ix., 4) that after the second miracle that rod was most carefully preserved. We have hence a right to infer that such care for it had been inspired by the first miracle.

This latest escapade confirms a conviction to which many others have pointed—that when nurslings of our Sabbath-schools with all modern improvements essay to show Scriptural ignorance on the part of Puritans trained a century ago, they attack their adversaries in their strongest point, and their failure is foreordained. They repeat the experience of Æsop's viper who bit the file. The blood they draw will be all their own.

A Western Minister.

[It appears from the Biblical narrative that the rod which swallowed serpents was really the rod of Moses (Exodus iv. 2-4), and that it was wielded by Aaron for miraculous purposes as the vicegerent or "prophet" of his brother (Exodus iv. 17; vii. 1-12). The rod which "budded" was one of twelve rods, selected to be representative of the twelve tribes of Israel, with the understanding that the high-priesthood should belong to him whose rod was found to have "blossomed" over night, after they had all been placed "in the Tabernacle of the Congregation" (Numbers xvii. 1-9; Hebrews ix. 4). In order to make the test perfectly fair in the eyes of the people, Moses was commanded to write Aaron's name "on the rod of Levi," but our reverend censor thinks that Moses took his own rod (which he knew to be of miraculous power) and substituted it for the "rod of Levi," after having written the name of Aaron on it! Such supposed trickery on the part of the great Hebrew lawgiver is supported by nothing in the Bible, and the suspicion of it is a pure "escapade" of the Western commentator, who seems to be more familiar with the Fables of Æsop than with the miracles of the Old Testament. Certainly, if he had ever read the seventh, eighth, ninth, tenth, fourteenth, and seventeenth chapters in the Book of Exodus he could not have fallen into the mistake of supposing that the miracle of the "blossoms" was the "second miracle" recorded in connection with "Aaron's rod."—Ed. Nation.]

BE DONE AND *HAVE DONE.*

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While complimenting me on my acquaintance with English usage in the matter of language, Mr. J. R. Lowell applies the epithet "pedagogic" to the expression "be obliged and *have done* with it," which still seems to me, as it seemed when I recommended it, unexceptionable. That one has credit for knowing even the dialect of schoolmasters ought, however, to be encouraging, I suppose.

Of his unprepense "be obliged and *be done* with it" Mr. Lowell holds that the fault lies in "the awkward repetition of the 'be.'" But, if it is only the resumption of the "be" that blemishes the phrase, the "done," no imperative, is short for "be done," which, in the interest of syntax, had certainly better be allowed to stand.

With the like of "be obliged and *done* with it," which Mr. Lowell calls "the conversational form," I am perfectly familiar, as a property of the uneducated. Used by any one else, otherwise than humorously, such a vulgarism would surprise me not a little.

Nearly everybody, when speaking rapidly, says, for instance, "I shouldn't *'a* believed it," "I wouldn't *'a done* so." Yet, so far as England is concerned, none but the illiterate, to my knowledge, say "do it and *'a done* with it," often broken down, by them, to "do it and *done* with it." Of the reputableness of "be obliged and *done* with it" my estimate, as compared with Mr. Lowell's, is, therefore, peculiar.

Your obedient servant, F. H.

Marlesford, England, December 9, 1889.

Notes.

Longmans, Green & Co. will publish immediately the papers of Sir George Bowen, edited by Stanley Lane-Poole. Glimpses of Washington society during Grant's Administration appear in them.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have nearly ready translations of Anatole France's 'Le Crime de Sylvestre Bonnard' and Valdés's latest novel, 'La Hermana San Sulpicio'—the latter by Mr. N. H. Dole.

The circular of the admirable Librairie des Bibliophiles announces that the works of Villon and Pascal will be included in the excellent "Nouvelle Bibliothèque Classique," and also, in due season, those of Stendhal, Chateaubriand, and Gérard de Nerval. To the series of "Curiosités Historiques et Littéraries," M. Monval, the librarian of the Comédie-Française, will contribute a collection of the letters of Adrienne Lecouvreur.

The author of "Le Monde où l'on s'ennuie" has just published a brief eulogy of the author of "L'Aventurière" and "Le Gendre de M. Poirier," but we do not think that 'Émile Augier, par Édouard Pailleron' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern), is quite worthy either of its writer or of its subject. M. Pailleron is warm in his admiration and hearty in his eulogy, as becomes a man who praises the friend scarcely cold in his grave, but the tribute is a little disappointing in that it does not contain a vigorous portrayal of Augier. Of course M. Pailleron's little pamphlet is pleasantly written, with all the charm of style we look for in the prose of a French dramatist, and it contains an anecdote or two which give us a further insight into Augier's character.

Mr. Austin Dobson has followed up his editions of 'Gay's Fables,' 'Eighteenth Century Essays,' and the 'Vicar of Wakefield,' in the Parchment Library, with a volume of selections from the poems of Matthew Prior.

Anything that tends to spread abroad the technical knowledge which is the foundation of any art, is always to be welcomed, and we therefore recommend 'Bookbinding for Amateurs,' by Mr. W. J. E. Crane (London: L. Upcott Gill), a manual which will explain to the novice every step of the process of "forwarding" and "finishing," with the aid of more than a hundred and fifty illustrations. It may be doubted whether the amateur is as likely to be as successful as a bookbinder as he has been in some of the other arts—photography, for example; but there can be no doubt that an understanding of the principles of bibliopegy would be useful to all book-lovers. As far as the "forwarding" is concerned, Mr. Crane's manual seems excellent—clear in its explanations and sensible in its advice. When it comes to the "finishing," that is to say, to

the ornamentation of the bound book, Mr. Crane does not rise above the rather low average of contemporary British taste in bookbinding. His designs (pp. 152–176) are none of them beautiful—indeed, most of them are positively ugly. Unless the binder has really studied the principles of decoration, he had best confine himself to the modest task of reproducing the designs of the best binders of the past.

The preface to the *Almanach de Gotha* for 1890 (New York: B. Westermann & Co.) begins with noting not changes of dynasty, but two substitutions in its own editorial staff, which it pronounces eminently satisfactory, and a guarantee of continued excellence in both departments of this veteran work. The genealogical portion has been rearranged, revised, and extended. The house of Braganza remains untouched, but the revolution in Brazil is recorded among the addenda, where the most important other items are censuses of Chili (estimated pop. 3,115,000) and Greece (official, 2,187,208). The Crown Prince of Greece and his Prussian bride are two of the *Almanach's* four portraits, and President Harrison makes a third, although his appearance in the White House caused the editors the greatest trouble in respect of alterations in the administrative personnel. The rubric Central America has been abandoned pending the renewal of the federation. In many other ways which we cannot specify, the *Almanach* has undergone a vigorous and intelligent overhauling.

Macmillan & Co. have issued a 'Supplement to Annals of Our Time,' edited by Joseph Irving for the period from July 22, 1878, to the Jubilee, June 20, 1887. It is a diary of events throughout the world, with special attention to the British. The paging is continuous with that of the 'Annals of Our Time.' The index is fairly comprehensive, but for names of persons it is complete only under Obituary, which is a very convenient list, although the accuracy of the several notices must by no means be taken for granted. In one of these (American), consisting of six lines, there are at least six errors, beginning with the date assigned to the death.

The *American Annual of Photography* for 1890 (New York: Scovill & Adams Co.) will be valued for the customary amount and variety of contributed articles, as well as for its lists of photographic societies in all parts of the world, of photographic periodicals and current publications, and for its examples of "process" engraving, beginning with a portrait of Mr. Edison, which forms the frontispiece. The oddest of all the subjects selected is undoubtedly the strolling negro-minstrel performance in front of "John Brown's Fort" (the old engine-house of the Armory), at Harper's Ferry. The lower part of this historic building has had to be boarded up in order to prevent chipping of the bricks by relic-hunters!

A very handsome affair is 'The Book of Wedding Days' (Longmans), devised to commemorate the silver-wedding anniversary of the Prince and Princess of Wales (March 10, 1888). It is a quarto volume, consisting of poetical selections for every day in the year, set beside a blank space for the recording of marriages. These quotations have been supplied by three ladies, and Mr. Walter Crane has furnished decorative borders for every page without repeating the design. The whole is printed in red. Mr. Crane's cupids, which form an integral part of every conceit, get a little cloying at last, it must be confessed. As a rule, there are four blank spaces to each page, but sometimes fewer, and a whole page is given up to the royal date of March 10. It must be said for the quotations that they are not wholly honeyed, but take account of the discordances of married life. In such a record, however, the malapropos is as amusing as the nice fit is gratifying.

Miss Kate Sanborn's 'Rainbow Calendar' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is a duodecimo volume of 366 pages, without pagination, each day and page being furnished with poetical and prose extracts having occasional reference to the season, but without other unity except the idea of a cheerful spirit. The pages are left unfilled in the lower portion, that the purchaser may insert what pleases him from his own reading.

'Schiller Immortellen' (Philadelphia: I. Kohler) is a little birthday and remembrance book for young and old—a page of selections facing a blank page bearing two dates. A few engravings serve the purpose of adornment. Schiller's prose is quite as freely drawn upon as his verse.

The second volume of Prof. Masson's edition of De Quincey's Collected Writings (Macmillan) continues the autobiography from 1803 to 1808, and follows this with "Literary and Lake Reminiscences" in eleven chapters—a perfect mine for the tourist of the lake district, as for the student of literature. The illustrations consist of a steel engraving of De Quincey, and wood-cut youthful portraits of Coleridge and Wordsworth from originals in the National Portrait Gallery.

It is in keeping with the foregoing to mention the latest edition of the 'Essays of Elia' (London: David Stott; New York: Macmillan), in two of the companionable pocket volumes of the "Stott Library." They are reprinted without introduction or notes, but are embellished with photogravure illustrations of Lamb's tableted cottage at Edmonton and of his tomb.

That the world grows younger is evidenced by the curious facsimile reprint of the sole copy known to exist of the first edition of John Bunyan's 'A Book for Boys and Girls; or, Country Rhymes for Children' (A. C. Armstrong & Son). It is true that "J. B." intimates, in his epistle to the courteous reader, that he writes for old as well as young; but on the other hand, he starts off with a sort of horn-book "to learn children" to read English, spell Christian names, and to know figures and numeral letters, and passes on to a rhymed version of the Ten Commandments. After this, it must be a very mature youngster indeed that could comfort himself by the perusal of Bunyan's rhymes, or that could pick from the rough mass of them the nuggets of genuine poesy. The reproduction has been very well carried out. The preface is by Bunyan's capable biographer, the Rev. John Brown, and he tells us that the original volume, now finally at rest in the British Museum, was once owned by a collector in this city.

The announcement of *Scribner's Magazine* for 1890 includes a number and variety of attractive features altogether too great to be summarized; but we may select as of especial interest two articles upon Ericsson by his biographer; the sketches of "Life on a Modern War-Ship," by Mr. Zogbaum, who accompanies the Squadron of Evolution on its cruise; the series upon City, Suburban, and Country Homes, with collateral papers on the results of Building Associations; that on "The Citizen's Rights," which will deal with those rights and privileges which he is entitled to as a householder, traveller, user of streets, etc., but which he suffers himself to be deprived of; and that upon the Continent of Africa, which is to be presented in many interesting phases. A new serial by an anonymous author is promised, and large claims are made for it by the editors; while literature is to be represented by articles on Lamb, Mme. de Staël, and others. The papers which we do not name include the subjects of our own ethnography as affected by physical environment; mining, electric roads, caricature, landscape decoration, psychology, picture sales, opera, hunting; and many others.

The *New England Magazine* for December has a paper, which seems authoritative and final, on the "Origin of the John Brown Song," by George Kimball, who was in at the birth. This, as is well known, took place at Fort Warren in Boston Harbor, and it is also notorious that Fletcher Webster's regiment (Twelfth Massachusetts) was the first to sing it in the streets of Boston. Mr. Kimball shows how the words were improvised to fit the tune of a Methodist revivalist hymn, "Say, brothers, will you meet us?" He prints two facsimiles of the earliest broadsides of the song, the second (1861) giving the music, and bearing the inscription, "Origin, Fort Warren."

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for December opens with a paper, read before the British Association by H. B. Guppy, descriptive of a foot-journey along the south coast of West Java. In it he shows the strong probability "that Java and Sumatra have never been united in the past, but that they probably will be joined in the future," since they lie in the same area of upheaval. This is in opposition to the tradition that the two islands were disrupted during some ancient eruption of Krakatoa. Mr. J. P. Thomson gives an account of Kadavu, one of the Fijis, the most noteworthy statement in which is that the natives had from the earliest times such a knowledge of astronomy as to regulate their agricultural operations by the stars. "Even now," he says, "the times for sowing and for reaping are generally indicated by the apparent positions of the constellations, that of the Pleiades, *Vrusa;* Crucio, *Na Iri;* and Orion, *Na Ga*, being prominent." A word of special commendation should be given to the excellent index to the volume which is completed by this number. It is remarkably full and well-arranged for the purposes of reference.

We have received from the auctioneer, Thomas E. Kirby, the catalogue of the library of Americana of the late S. L. M. Barlow, which is to be sold at the American Art Galleries on February 3, 1890. As Mr. Henry Harrisse says, the collection contains "the invaluable first printed letters of Columbus, Vespuccius, and Cortez; the rich series of colonial pamphlets, English, French, and Dutch, and the largest set of Jesuit Relations ever offered for sale." Add to these a precious body of MSS., including Arnold's Journal of the Quebec Expedition, the Dinwiddie papers, Paul Jones's log-book, and the correspondence with Gov. William Livingston of New Jersey, etc., etc.

—*Scribner's* for January opens with a valuable paper upon the problem of water-storage in the arid districts of the extreme West. The geographical and climatic conditions are described with sufficient clearness, the necessary combination of local peculiarities to make large reservoirs possible and useful is explained, and an account is given of the four leading examples of successful works of the sort. The writer shows in some detail the difficulties and the dangers to the public which attend private enterprises in reclaiming these lands, and intimates an opinion that Government must finally step in and supplement the present hydrographic survey by vast public works undertaken in accordance with the results of this ex-

amination. The article covers a very important and interesting subject, with just enough of fulness and detail. Mr. Brownell contributes some notes upon the Paris Exposition, marked by intelligent criticism and a liberal spirit, and not without practical suggestions for our own forthcoming work of 1892. His remarks upon the Eiffel Tower in particular, upon American painting, and upon the achievements of the French artists during the century, and his strictures upon the Oriental element in the Exposition, are of an interesting character. Tripoli and Spain are treated of in a sympathetic way by Mr. Jacassy and Mr. Finck, the latter of whom confines his attention to the beauty of Spanish women, whom he analyzes and classifies in a minute manner. The electrical article is upon the application of the power in the household, and exhibits an optimistic spirit with regard to the changes to be worked in daily comfort by the extension of the inventions already made. Fiction is well represented; and the number concludes with the new department—"The Point of View"—in the place of the old "end-paper," which we are sorry to part with. The discussions in the "Point of View" are not materially different in spirit from the similar editorial departments in other magazines, and in the present number leave something to be desired.

— The December Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society contains a valuable account of Cyprus by Gen. Sir R. Biddulph, late High Commissioner of the island. In it he dwells especially upon the rapid destruction of the forests, partly by reckless wood-cutting, partly by the goats, which are to be found there in greater numbers than in any other country in the world. The denudation of the hills causes disastrous floods, and the soil washed away from the hillsides chokes the river beds and forms malarious swamps in the great central plain. Then "the locust at once took possession of the barren ground," but against this scourge the English Government has recently waged a successful war of extermination by means of pits lined with zinc. Cyprus "is emphatically a land of peasant proprietors, with the result that there are no wealthy persons and no beggars. Property is universally divided among the children, and again subdivided, so that one hears of a man owning the sixteenth part of a hovel that is not worth as many shillings. To such an extent is the subdivision carried that there are no less than 600,000 registered holdings of real property—*i. e.*, more than three for each inhabitant." This paper is followed by Mr. Stanley's letter to the Society, dated August 17, 1889, and written from Uzinja, a district on the southwestern shores of the Victoria Nyanza. It briefly describes his discovery of the Lake Albert Edward (it is a pity the native name could not have been retained), apparently about 50 miles long and 900 feet above the Albert Nyanza, with which it is connected by the river Semliki. To the east of the river and the lake lay "a lofty range of mountains, the central portion of which is covered with perpetual snow," without doubt Ptolemy's Mountains of the Moon. Accompanying this letter is Lieut. Stairs's account of his unsuccessful attempt to climb one of the snow-capped peaks of this range, which the natives call Ruwenzori. Mr. W. W. Rockhill, formerly Secretary of the American Legation in Peking, gives a short account of his adventurous journey last winter in eastern Tibet. He wore the Tibetan dress, and, as he spoke both Chinese and Tibetan, he had strong hopes of reaching Lhassa; but he was unable to escape the vigilance of the lamas, who compelled him to return to China.

—Under the word *Bourbon*, the New English Dictionary gives the meaning, "a Democrat behind the age and unteachable," with a suggestion that this sense originated not more than five years ago. Another meaning assigned is, "the name of an island in the Indian Ocean, so named in 1642 in honour of the French royal family; whence *Bourbon Palm*, a common name of the genus *Latania*." We naturally expect to see as the next definition, "a county in the State of Kentucky, so named, August 8, 1788, in honour of the French royal family; whence *Bourbon whiskey*, a common name of the genus *intoxicants*." This signification, however, we do not find, nor any approach to it, and it was evidently unknown to Dr. Murray and his contributors. This ignorance speaks well for their temperance, but it ought to be enlightened. It has occasioned an omission which, at least in Kentucky, will be considered a *hiatus maxime deflendus*, and may there stop the sale of the book altogether. The Dictionary, if better informed, would have backed up its amended definition with citations like the following: 1860. Frankfort *Commonwealth*, December 18. Advertisement, "Bourbon whiskey, a large stock of all ages." The name Bourbon was early used without adding "whiskey," as commonly as piano without adding forte. In the self-same issue of the newspaper there is a story of early times in the State where we read, "The Dr., setting down a half-gallon bottle of *old Bourbon*, said," etc. 1873. *Collins's Annals*, January 15. "A barrel of Bourbon whiskey, fifteen years old, was sold at Lexington for $11.55 a gallon for transportation to Hartford, Conn." 1882. *Perrin*, Hist. of Bourbon Co., p. 65. "The manufacture of whiskey is one of the most extensive and valuable interests. It is the universal opinion abroad that all the Bourbon whiskey shipped to every point is the product of Bourbon Co. alone, whence it receives its name. Of all early industries that of whiskey alone has kept pace with the times."

THE MORTE DARTHUR.

Le Morte Darthur. By Syr Thomas Malory. Faithfully reprinted from the original edition (1485) of William Caxton. Edited by H. Oskar Sommer, Ph.D. Vol. I. Text. London: David Nutt.

THE 'Morte Darthur' is the most familiar by name of all early English books; perhaps the most familiar to the general reader of our time of all prose romances before those of Walter Scott. But it has been one of the rarest of well-known books. It is but a few years since it was not known at the New York libraries that there was a copy in America. Now, however, the one perfect copy of the original edition in the world is owned by Mrs. Abby E. Pope of Brooklyn, N. Y. Only one other copy, imperfect, is known. It is in the library of Earl Spencer, bought long ago for £320. This edition was printed by Caxton, who finished the printing, as he tells us, in the Abbey of Westminster on the last day of July, 1485. A new edition was printed by Wynkyn de Worde in 1498, and another in 1529. Only one copy of each is known to be in existence. There are other black-letter editions, four at least; the last, Stansby's, printed in 1634. All are rare. It was not printed again till 1816. In 1817 an edition appeared under Southey's name. A good edition in its way, by Thomas Wright (1856), and a later Globe edition made the old romance accessible to general readers who read for the story and the style. But for students who wish to be sure of the exact words, the spelling and punctuation, and all that, it has remained inaccessible. Here at last is the very thing that was wanting—a faithful reprint of the original of Caxton, page for page, line for line, word for word. It is printed with clear large types—Roman types, however, in place of the black letter. There are 861 pages on heavy white paper, with ample margins, and it makes a royal volume. The editing and printing give good promise of accuracy. It is from the Ballantyne Press, and edited by H. Oskar Sommer, Ph.D.

Dr. Sommer's special attention was drawn to this book in his Spenser studies. It is used very freely in the 'Faerie Queene.' He found that a new and scholarly edition was needed, and made up his mind to undertake it. Now see how they do such things in Germany. He communicated his intention to his Excellency the Royal Prussian Minister of Public Instruction, Herr Dr. von Gossler, and requested leave of absence for six months. This request was readily complied with, and a grant besides was made him from the public funds to enable him to prosecute his labors. Thus armed and equipped from the Prussian treasury, Dr. Sommer proceeded to the British Museum and set to work upon Earl Spencer's volume. He copied it with his own hands, and read the proofs and revises with the original. Twenty-one pages also had to be collated with Mrs. Pope's volume in Brooklyn. This work occupied the full time of his leave of absence, and we have the result of it in the noble volume now published by Mr. Nutt. A second volume is to contain the apparatus which German scholarship deems necessary for a critical edition of such a masterpiece—an Introduction, dealing with the language and the like, a Treatise on the Sources, Various Readings, an Index, etc. As a compliment and guerdon, perhaps, to English buyers, an essay on Malory's prose style by Andrew Lang is to be added.

This book is a sort of Iliad of Chivalry. The adventures in it had been separately told in ballads and metrical romances, and chanted in baronial halls, for two or three centuries. Coleridge said that he would engage to compile twelve books with characters as distinct and consistent as those in the 'Iliad' from these metrical ballads and other chronicles about King Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table. It was safe to say. It had been done already by Sir Thomas Malory in the 'Morte Darthur.' There is very much such a plot and unity in it as in the 'Iliad.' Arthur grows up, the Round Table is fitted with knights who have glorious adventures of fighting and of love, then the sin of Launcelot and Guenever sets the knights against each other, and they perish in two bloody battles. The "passing of Arthur" after the battle is familiar to every one in Tennyson's versification of it. Every one who likes it there should read it in Malory. The Queen and Launcelot retire to houses of "religion" and die in the odor of sanctity. "So whan syr Bors & his felowes came to his bedde they founde hym starke dede & he laye as he had smyled & the swettest sauour aboute hym that euer they felte." Like the 'Iliad,' the 'Arabian Nights,' and all great folk stories, the 'Morte Darthur' has its interest for persons at any age. A boy is ready for it when he is in the early foot-ball stage, reading the 'Lay of the Last Minstrel,' and 'Ivanhoe,' and 'Tom Brown.' There is rushing and tackling of the most vigorous kind at almost every turn. This is the way Sir Gareth and Sir Ironside go on:

"And thus they foughte tyl it was past none and neuer wold stynte tyl att the laste they both lackt wynde, and thenne they stode wagging, staggering, panting, blowing, and bleeding, so that all that beheld them for the most part wepte for pytie. So whan they had restyd them a whyle, they yede to battle againe, tracing, racing, and foyning as two bores. And at sometime they toke their renne as hit had ben two wild rammys, and hurtled to gyders that somtyme they felle to the erthe groveling; and their armour was so sore hewen that men might see their naked sydes."

Most of the jousts and encounters of adventure do no more damage than a university foot-ball game. Sir Launcelot in one of his adventures "had the better hand of five hundred knights, and yet," exults the chronicler, "there was none slain of them"; to be a murderer, to kill men in jousting, is the greatest shame that a knight may have. The knights can bear any amount of "smiting, racing, tracing, foyning," and the like. Sir Launcelot, for example, fights all day with a spear-head in his side, smites and pulls down more than thirty knights, and then rides off and gets well in a few days. The leeches are often women, and do wonderful cures. The attention of the young reader is held by a rapid succession of adventures, told in the briefest, simplest, and most realistic fashion. If there is any way in which a knight, or a knight and his horse, can be turned "up-so-down," or otherwise put *hors de combat*, which is not here described, it must be some later evolution. The variety of wounds can hardly be matched from Homer. There are some combats with monsters and giants, mostly in foreign countries. When Arthur was subduing the Romans, he met the giant Galapas: "He shorted hym and smote of bothe his legges by the knees, sayenge, Now arte thow better of a sise to dele with than thow were." And he does not leave him to fight upon his stumps like Witherington, in similar doleful dumps, in "Chevy Chase," but smites off his head forthwith; "and the body slew six Saracens in the falling downe," says Wright's edition, but that was not known to Caxton. Sir Servanse is contemptuously described as one "that had neuer courage nor lust to doo batail ageynst no man, but yf it were ageynst gyants & ageynst dragons and wylde beestes." There are also a thousand and one love stories, and as many tricks of magic, and much mystic lore of religion, especially in the quest of the holy grail.

It must be confessed that to an unsympathetic reader there may be something monotonous in the succession of adventures, and the knights and their combats seem all alike, as babies do to bachelors. The shifting figures have something of the Punch and Judy aspect. All the world is a stage—no seasons, no weather, no nature; everybody is always in character, serious—no humor, no laughter, except now and then, when a knight is tumbled up-so-down in jousting, the "queene" or the "haute prince," perhaps, will laugh so sore that they may not stand. But if the old critic, or the philosophic student, is not fascinated by the stories, the book has other charms. It is a vivid picture of the ideals, the characters, the manners, the life of the age of chivalry. Courage, strength, size, activity are primary heroic qualities. "Sir Tristram was called the strongest and biggest knight of the world, for he was bigger than Sir Launcelot, but Sir Launcelot was better breathed." Meekness and gentleness are eminent moral qualities; Sir Launcelot was "the meekest man and the gentlest that ever eate in hall among ladies." Sir Galahad is "demure as a dove." Truthfulness and hatred of treason are among the vows of knighthood and continually shown in remarkable ways. Every knight should be a lover. "Why," said La beale Isoud, "are yee a knight and bee yee no lover? It is a shame unto you." The knights are all fair riders. "What is a knight," says Sir Launcelot, "but when he is on horseback?" Sir Tristram is a "curious harper." They learn hawking, hunting, chess playing, carving. Surgery, medicine, magic, and music are common accomplishments of the ladies; they sometimes compound love potions, but they are wholly unversed in coquetry; they speak their love right out for the heroes who please them. Chastity is the crowning virtue of a knight. Sir Galahad needs be a "pure maide" to win the holy grail. A gentle piety pervades the book, a contrast with 'Piers Ploughman' or Chaucer. The men of "religion," often hermits or "white munks," are pious, good leeches, good confessors. The language of piety is simple and tender: "Faire, sweete Father, Jesu Christ," "Mild mother Mary," "Faire father God." Nice touches abound. Sir Gareth "knightly ate his meat and egerly"; he had "the fairest and the largest hands that ever man saw." "The King wept and dried his eyes with a handkercher." "These Britons brag as though they bare up all the world," says the Roman Emperor's cousin.

For the student of language no English book is more fascinating. It is packed with the most expressive words and idioms just strange enough to stimulate interest, piquant, picturesque, gentle, as well as queer combinations of words which offer grammatical problems as inviting as the particles of Homer. But to the discussion of such matters we shall be introduced by the apparatus of the second volume.

RECENT NOVELS.

Sant' Ilario. By F. Marion Crawford. Macmillan & Co.

Near to Happiness (*À côté du Bonheur*). Translated from the French by Frank H. Potter. D. Appleton & Co.

Baldy's Point. By Mrs. J. H. Walworth. Cassell & Co.

In the Wire Grass. By Louis Pendleton. D. Appleton & Co.

The Berkeleys and Their Neighbours. By Mrs. M. Elliot Seawell. American News Co.

Dernier Amour. Par Georges Ohnet. Paris: Paul Ollendorff. New York: F. W. Christern.

The Time of the Cherry Viewing. By Margaret Peale. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Mito Yashita: A Tale of Old Japan. By Arthur Collins Maclay. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

In 'Sant' Ilario' Mr. Crawford continues the story of those noble Romans who, at the end of 'Saracinesca,' triumphant over enemies, were revelling in peace, wealth, and love. Such bliss never lasts. Though, from an eminence of slain dragons, we look down upon a clear and fragrant path, who may know that there is not a monster behind the rose bushes, biding his time to squirm out and spit sarcastic defiance in streams of fire? Even while Giovanni Saracinesca (Sant' Ilario) and his wife, Corona, were enjoying their honeymoon in the hills, down in the valleys dragons, venomous and resolute, held conclave, and devised a concerted attack, holding themselves ready to strike whenever the too happy pair should reassume the ways and burdens of common mortals.

The dragons' plan of campaign does not entirely conform with that forecast in 'Saracinesca'; it shatters an expectation, founded on inference, that the principal characters are to be involved in those stirring events which brought about the disintegration of Roman society and the unification of Italy. Anastase Gouache, alone of the old set, has anything to do with the insurrection of 1867 and the rout of the Garibaldians at Mentana. The Saracinesca family stands safely aloof from political confusion and historical tragedy, but is plunged in a sea of domestic trouble so stormy that the difficulty in paddling its own canoe excuses indifference to dangers menacing the ship of state. Two calamities, different in kind, yet equally terrible, threaten its prosperity and felicity. The first (and for this the train is laid in 'Saracinesca') is the claim made upon its titles and estates by Giovanni Saracinesca, innkeeper of Aquilla, that stalwart Giovanni whom Donna Tullia Mayer and Ugo del Ferice tried, and tried in vain, to use for evil purposes. The claim is worked up by Prince Montevarchi and his tool, Meschini, with a skill that does credit to unimpeachable ability for roguery of the subtler sort. Here is no discrepancy between imputed character and conduct, but in the management of the secondary intrigue the author takes pains to destroy a character which he had previously constructed with careful elaboration. It is possible that Sant' Ilario might have become insanely jealous of his wife, but a solider foundation and more formidable rival than Anastase Gouache should have been provided to give his jealousy more dignity than appears in the raging of a hot-headed boy, or of an uninstructed savage. Not all the author's explanations and accumulation of circumstantial evidence can make the situation seem to be anything except what it is—spice for half-a-dozen numbers of a magazine—spice apparently so grateful to the public palate that familiarity never breeds disgust. Yet the ingenuity with which the case against Corona and the little French painter is developed is incontestable, and offers cumulative evidence of what has long since been proved, that Mr. Crawford's greatest strength lies in the construction of plot untrammelled by probability.

In this novel, as in its numerous predecessors, there are pages packed full of information concerning phases of life which it is not everybody's luck to see; there are also the usual paragraphs of abstract reflection which it is everybody's misfortune to make for himself, should he not die young. Both instructive and speculative passages have the merit of being almost completely detached from the story, and are frequently irrelevant to the action of the moment. Mr. Crawford promises a third appearance of the Saracinescas. Unless he is prepared to place them in situations that the Smiths could not fill equally well, he should never again disturb that luxurious tranquillity in which for the second time he leaves them.

The name of the French novelists who can be pure without being infantile is not legion. That sentiment which, in literary expression, elevates the passion of love above grossness, while preserving its strength, is an almost exclusive possession of Teutonic races. The lack of this sentiment, at once delicate and rapturous, partly explains why France has produced even less poetry than fiction that for higher spiritual quality is worthy of consideration. Only on the ground of racial defect can one excuse the contempt and insult poured in never-ending torrent by the literary Frenchman upon his countrywomen. The realist who prides himself on reproducing nature and fact is far worse than his frankly conventional predecessor. In the whole world of women he sees nothing but soulless wantons and mindless saints. Some few of the moderns who have imbibed the spirit of other nations have, indeed,

partially succeeded in delineating a woman who, subjected to the temptation of passion, keeps her self-respect and reputation without appearing as an image of superhuman virtue or a terrible example of maudlin sentimentality. The author of 'Near to Happiness'—whoever he may be—is not in the thin ranks of the redeeming minority. Mme. Sténie d'Ericey, his heroine, was born immaculate, her secure virtue being properly supplemented by a dollish intelligence. The devil is as attentive to her as he is supposed to have been to St. Anthony, and by this assiduity greatly damages his reputation as a judge of human character. The dullest reader can predict that Madame d'Ericey will never fall, and can feel nothing but wonder that the tempter should waste so much time. The people who surround Madame d'Ericey share her mental flabbiness, though not always her moral worth. The movement of the story is slow and broken, and the author seems to be quite devoid of that sense for form and literary proportion which often begets charity for his monotonously indecent compatriots.

The three Southern stories, 'Baldy's Point,' 'In the Wire Grass,' and 'The Berkeleys and their Neighbours,' have no rank as literature, and are inferior specimens of sectional fiction. Yet in all there is attraction for intelligent attention, if intelligent attention should happen to fall upon them. In three widely distant localities people are shown taking up life after everything that made life worth living had been swept away, facing an absolutely new array of facts, and, harder still, submitting to new ideals of right and wrong thrust upon them at the bayonet's point. One impression, conveyed forcibly and dispassionately, is that the Northern ideal of the negro's equality with his white brother has never been accepted by the South. As the years go by, calm judgment seems to confirm bitter prejudice, and the realization of that ideal assumes pathetic hopelessness. In the sanest Southern fiction the negro is individually a brute, or a buffoon, or a slave still in his behavior and feeling; *en masse*, negroes are no more like rational mature whites than a child decked in her mother's bonnet and gown is like a woman.

Mrs. Walworth, whose book is, in style, construction, and grasp of character, much the best of the three under consideration, presents the negro individually as a revengeful brute, an impertinent wench, and a superstitious heathen. In groups they appear as hordes of children or lunatics, intrusted with dangerous weapons, and possessing the physical power of men to use them with deadly effect.

Mr. Pendleton dwells upon the faithful though free-tongued servitor who has clung to the "Ole Mars," or to the "Ole Miss," through so many volumes of fiction, and who here displays no original characteristics. The family life of his Uncle Tony, Maum Chloe, and their wiry-haired daughter Silvey has none of the dulness of assured respectability, and Uncle Tony's answer to an inquiry about Silvey fairly ilustrates the negro's practice of social morality:

"Who Silvey? She 'way down een Flur'dy now. She done mai'ed, an' gone away long ago. She been mai'ed six er seben times; *she* call it marryin'. She mai'ed Cæsar Brown fust, but she wa'n't deh een dat town tree munse fo' she got tired uv him, an' quit 'im. Dat de way wid niggers. Yer can't larn um nut'n. Many's de day I beat dat gal tell she couldn' see straight, an' yit she went right 'long an' done dat-a-way."

Mrs. Seawell's leading negro, the Colonel's body-servant, Petrarch, is a pure buffoon, characterized by genuine fun. Petrarch regards himself as the Lord's elect, his preferred spokesman. He overflows with caricature of Biblical parable and phrase, from which he cannot refrain even when his choleric master is raging about the defeat of a favorite horse.

"Ole Marse," he cries, "I done tole you Dashaway warn't fitten to run at de very startment. He been a mighty good hoss, but he c'yarn snuffle de battle fum befo' an' say hay! hay! like de hoss in de Bible, no mo'."

Hitherto the possession of so dramatic a subject as the war and its consequences has saved Southern writers from romanticism and cheap sensation. It is not encouraging to find them deliberately adopting these showy expedients for creating interest. Mrs. Walworth is the most culpable because she knows and has done so much better. The main plot of her 'Baldy's Point' is well conceived, and its culmination verges closely on logical tragedy. There is no excuse for the injection of such sentimental nonsense as Van Dorn's self-sacrifice for the sake of a crazy child.

The plot of 'In the Wire Grass' is a succession of extravagances carried on by people devoid of common sense. The poor whites have indeed a little of that desirable property, not entirely hidden by their outlandish dialect. Mrs. Mathis is a person of marked originality, and with a fine perception of the punishment that would fit the crime. Her daughter having run away with a peddler of lightning-rods, and died in consequence, maternal wrath, and grief, and shame cried aloud: "I wish I had a hold o' him—*I'd* show 'im—I'd do 'im worse'n ef one of his own lightnin'-rods was jammed down his throat—so I would!"

The absurdity of the later development of plot in 'The Berkeleys' destroys the hope inspired by the first chapters, and fills one with distrust of the author's capability for better things. The faults of erratic grammar and amateurish composition which are conspicuous throughout the story might easily be corrected, but the wild excursion into the arena of politics betokens an absence of that critical faculty without which no solid literary reputation was ever made.

'Dernier Amour' is the title of M. Georges Ohnet's latest novel, which ran as a feuilleton in *Figaro* during the past summer and fall, and now appears as a volume. It is not quite clear how M. Ohnet means his title to be taken. The only time he uses the phrase in his book he applies it to that afterglow of tenderness which sometimes succeeds a passion. But there is none of this feeling in the book. Everybody in it is rent and torn by emotions of quite another sort, although they express them with much decency of speech, and with a great effusion of generous and noble sentiments. 'Dernier Amour' cannot be said to be markedly above or markedly below M. Ohnet's usual level. It fatally lacks distinction. It does not really touch life at all, or anywhere. Its action passes not on earth, but in novel-land, on the continent of Nowhere. Its characters are heroes and heroines, not men and women. Its drama runs not as life does, or true love, but with the smoothness of a machine, and, of course, it "ends well."

Such books as this may, perhaps, find excuse for being—they help an idle hour to pass when one is in a mood to be not over-exacting; they are crowned by the Academy; they sell in two hundred and fifty editions; but, after all, they are "books that are no books." To look for art in them is as vain as to look for life. They show no perfection of style, no research of phrase, no careful observation, no originality, nothing that is alive or has been lived. Even in point of morality not all that is asserted in their behalf can be readily granted. There are people, not wholly depraved, who feel that the atmosphere of the stables and dung-heaps of the latest realism, of which the world seems now to be growing weary, is in truth healthier than the stuffiness of M. Georges Ohnet's furnished lodgings.

In Japan a picnic is called *hana-mi*, or flower-viewing, though the idea of the flowers and the outing is as much associated with trees as with garden plants. The procession of the flowers continues from January to December, and the popular divisions of the year are usually named after the particular bloom of the month or season—plum, cherry, azalea, chrysanthemum, camellia, etc. Upon this background of fact, added to that of the national wealth of bric-à-brac, art products and instincts, harmonies of costume and color, an æsthetically inclined Boston lady has projected a bright little story which culminates in a proposal of marriage ('The Time of the Cherry Viewing'). Nagasaki, Kobé, Yokahama, and Tokio are the places visited; and this feminine admirer of tiny tea-pots, her sister, a missionary made usefully "tactless" to fit well into the story, and a supposed mercantile tourist and cold-blooded debaser of Japanese art, are the characters. Fortunately for the purpose of the novelist, the "drummer" turns out to be one who at heart lives up to his old Satsuma, and is withal wealthy. After much bright conversational fencing, many charming bits of chat about keramics, and not a few feminine episodes, it issues that the two souls with but a single thought as to Japanese porcelain become potentially one for marriage. The proposal comes just as the breeze shakes down upon the heads of the lovers in Uyéno "pale petals of tender bloom," "like faint rosy drops for the christening of love," and her "ungloved right hand" is yielded "with a sigh of supremest content." The story is told with striking truth to the far-Oriental background and environment.

Mr. Maclay, the author of 'A Bundle of Letters from Japan,' has attempted the writing of "a feudal romance descriptive of the decline of the Shogunate, and of the downfall of the Tokugawa family, in a neat duodecimo of four hundred and twenty-six pages. Mr. Maclay's method of writing books will, if persisted in, always expose him to just fault-finding by critic and reader, for his book is really a "three-volume novel," though not of the English sort. He begins his "romance" with an encyclopædia, and ends it with a volume of metaphysics. His really good story occupies, strictly speaking, the middle third of the book. The central incident, around which all others are grouped, is the assassination of the regent Ii Kamon no Kami, the daimio of Hikoné, by a party of Mito *ronins* on the 23d of March, 1860. He pictures the conditions of life in Japan at the coming of Perry, and, with remarkable knowledge of the feudal era and system, lifts the veil to show the plots and counter-plots which the dual system produced. His characters, indeed, are all drawn in external outline, and differ only in superficies. His English, abounding in colloquialisms, slang, violent changes of tenses, and slovenly use of adverbs, detracts from the dignity and pathos of his theme. Wonderfully accurate in many nice or obscure points of Japanese history, he yet makes some curious slips. The word *bakufu*, used in modern days usually by critics or opponents of the old Yedo Government, he puts in the mouth of its servants and admirers. In his eyes, Ben-ten, the goddess of mercy, a female, is always a he, the author probably meaning Ebisu. He writes *hattomotos* for *hatamoto*.

He follows Sir Rutherford Alcock, a rather uncertain authority, for his history. He makes the common route to Echizen by way of Shinano, instead of the Tokaido. Yet, notwithstanding these slight and unimportant slips, he has told a story of singular and fascinating interest. The duel between Junzo and the spy, the tortures once so common and now abolished in Japan, the sojourn of the family in Kii, the marriage of the lovers, and many other incidents, are related with skill and power. Very few pictures of feudal Japan have as yet been made available to the Western world, and this sketch by Mr. Maclay is the best yet drawn by a foreigner.

Christopher Columbus and the Discovery of the New World. From the French of M. le Marquis de Belloy. With eight illustrations on steel and fifty-one drawings on wood, by Léopold Flameng and others. New edition. Philadelphia: Gebbie & Barrie. 1889. 8vo.

THE original work, published about twelve years ago, of which this is a translation, was written for the instruction of the author's nephew; and the publishers of this English edition inform us "that it has been universally pronounced the best history of the voyages of Columbus that the world has seen." Those, however, who have read Irving's 'Life and Voyages of Columbus' and the compendious life of Columbus by Helps, being chapters from that author's 'Spanish Conquest of America,' with additions, will find nothing new of importance in this compilation by the Marquis of Belloy. His narrative is diffuse and often fanciful, many of its incidents being as mythical as some of those related of Washington by Weems, or of Napoleon by John S. C. Abbott.

Humboldt has said that "the majesty of grand recollections seems concentrated on the illustrious name of Columbus." His originality, his genius, his misfortunes, his patient endurance under long-continued injustice, have placed him among the consecrated few whose lives and actions should be considered seriously and respectfully. The Marquis has written his book in the modern French hysterical style, and, while the facts given are in the main authentic, much that is imaginative is mingled with them, so that an unreal effect is produced, and the whole work seems like a romance. The arrival of Columbus in Spain and his object in going there is referred to as follows: "Why did Columbus go to Spain? Because he thought he should find there what he had not found elsewhere; he scented the woman from afar." The "woman" thus inelegantly referred to was Queen Isabella. His first meeting with the Queen is described as follows:

"At last his eyes beheld the wondrous being who was the glory, the honor, the salvation of Christendom. And she was all that his fancy had pictured, as fair as she was great, etc., etc.; her hair auburn inclining to red, her eyes of a clear blue, like Columbus's own, with a benign and earnest expression. Once their gaze had met, once those two souls had exchanged mutual recognition, the miracle was accomplished, the unity of the world was achieved."

Later he found a second Isabella, the beautiful and confiding Anacoana—the name signifying "Golden Flower"; and the author, assuming that the lost portions of the journals of Columbus must have contained a good deal that related to her, goes on to weave much romance about the part this fascinating savage *may have played* in the discoveries of the great navigator.

There are many portraits of Columbus, none of them authentic or bearing close correspondence to the description of his person given by his son. The Marquis has prefixed to his volume an entirely new portrait, invented by his artist, following the indications furnished by Fernando Columbus and others. This picture presents a fine-looking cavalier, whose appearance might account for his success with susceptible queens, but who is quite unlike the typical Christ-bearing Saint Christopher whose face is believed by many to have been a portrait of Columbus.

Notwithstanding systematic and extended researches, few additions of importance have been made to what was discovered about Columbus by Navarrete, upon whose collections Irving's work was mainly based. The admirable life by Helps contains some matter not in Irving, but the charming work by our own countryman is not likely to be superseded for English readers. Had the publisher of this translation placed it in competent hands to be shorn of extraneous matter, revised, with additions readily accessible, it might have filled a place which in its present form it is not likely to occupy. The illustrations in the original work formed its chief attraction; the reproductions in this edition are not successful.

A Handbook of Descriptive and Practical Astronomy. By George F. Chambers, F.R.A.S. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1889.

AMATEUR astronomers and a circle of general readers will naturally welcome the fourth edition of what might be called 'Chambers's Encyclopædia of Popular Astronomy,' which will expand to more than double the size of the preceding edition if the present volume, treating of the Sun, Planets, and Comets, which is the first of three, to be followed shortly by the second and in a twelvemonth by the last, can be taken as a criterion.

Mr. Chambers is a barrister-at-law of the Inner Temple, whose literary productions, as cited on the title-page of his astronomy, range from an English, French, and German dictionary to a digest of laws relating to the public health. We might fear that the treatment of so great a subject as astronomy by an author so prolific in other fields would be quite superficial. But if we measure depth by extent of reading and quantity of information, no such charge can be brought against him. No other English work on the subject approaches his in the number of its citations or the encyclopedic character of its contents. Moreover, the beauty of the typography is such as to produce, at first sight, a most favorable impression. The author writes so like an enthusiastic devotee of his subject that one wonders how he could ever have worked upon anything else. The reader finds, in sumptuous typography and clear, vigorous language, what astronomers of many generations have observed and thought upon celestial phenomena of every kind, and what conclusions investigators have reached in every part of the field. And yet he may find himself disappointed at the end of nearly every chapter. This will be the case if he wishes to know, authoritatively, which of the numerous conclusions passed in review are established, what are doubtful, and what disproved by more recent researches. In fact, the book is as uncritical as it is exhaustive. The blunders of the inexperienced observer, the fancies of the enthusiastic one, and the speculations of the undisciplined one all go in with the established results of the profound and careful investigator.

Although astronomy is, in certain of its branches, the most exact of the sciences, its literature teems with unscientific or inexact conclusions. An uncritical observer, with a small and imperfect telescope, may see, or think he sees, an endless variety of things which are really due to the badness of his instrument, his failure to adjust it for good seeing, the undulations of the atmosphere, or his own misinterpretations, and, above all, his own fancy. The more improbable the result of his observation, the more attention and discussion it may excite among amateurs, and the better chance it runs of being quoted by uncritical writers. It is a part of the business of a popular writer to separate the wheat from the chaff in such cases, and this is what Mr. Chambers fails to do. Thus he devotes eleven pages to the supposed planet or planets "Vulcan," between Mercury and the Sun, although the negative evidence that no such planet was ever seen is conclusive to every astronomer who gives it due weight. Saturn, its rings and satellites, take up forty-two pages, illustrated by numerous views by observers of all classes using telescopes of all sizes up to the great Lick instrument. But the observations with the latter are the only ones in fine print, and no statement or criticism of general conclusions is found. In cases like these, which are characteristic of the whole book, the experienced astronomer can take everything at its true value, but how shall the general reader be able to reach a conclusion?

The Sun receives hardly his share of attention; some new cuts and material have been added, but one looks almost in vain for reference to much of the recent work in this line. There is a promise to treat of spectroscopy in a subsequent volume. In connection with the Planets we have a good résumé of interesting data arranged with care, while the full descriptions of recent eclipses are of value as presenting verbatim reports from many observers, fully illustrated with new cuts. The subject of Comets has been considerably amplified, and is perhaps the best feature of the book. It is supplemented by convenient and full tables, which are the most complete of any accessible to the majority of readers.

The Reconstruction of Europe: A Sketch of the Diplomatic and Military History of Continental Europe from the Rise to the Fall of the Second French Empire. By Harold Murdock. With an Introduction by John Fiske. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889. 12mo, pp. 421.

THERE is a scarcity of English books on the eventful period extending from 1850 to 1870, a period well worthy of study and commemoration. Hardly ever before in the world's history have two decades witnessed such widespread and far-reaching upheavals—political, social, intellectual, and moral. The caldron is still seething, and no man can foresee the last outcome; but it is safe to prophesy that the latter half of the nineteenth century will stand out in future histories as an era of momentous events in both hemispheres, a time of great progress and emancipation, not unmixed with humiliating episodes. The theme is well fitted to inspire some great writer to produce an immortal work; but for such a work the time is, perhaps, not yet ripe. For the present we must content ourselves with fragmentary and partial recitals, compiled with more or less literary skill from contemporary records.

Mr. Murdock's book will be welcome to readers who are not familiar with any language but the English, although it treats of only a section of history. By his title he confines him-

self to the continent of Europe, and in his treatment he confines himself still further to an almost exclusively military point of view. What he has really written is a history of the European wars from 1850 to 1870, with brief remarks on intervening events. His descriptions of battles and campaigns are accurate and lucid; but their length and minuteness are out of proportion to the scale on which his book is laid out. As a natural consequence, he is compelled to relegate the political development to a secondary place, and to despatch it with a meagreness that can hardly satisfy a reader who has no access to other sources of information. Mr. Murdock's style is not easy or elegant, nor even always correct. What he is especially to be commended for is the closeness with which he has studied and followed his authorities. In a "bibliographical note" he gives a list of these authorities, in which there are many omissions, and some important ones. Thus, while he mentions the Prussian staff reports on the wars of 1866 and 1870, he seems to know nothing of the staff report on the Danish war of 1864, which was published in 1886 and 1887. Again, Moritz Busch's 'Our Chancellor' is mentioned, but not his more notable book on 'Bismarck and his People during the War with France.' A number of other works are conspicuous by their absence, such as Lowe's 'Bismarck,' Édouard Simon's 'Emperor William,' Taxile Delord's 'History of the Second Empire,' to say nothing of recently published memoirs and journals which throw light on the period, or of reprints from newspapers, like the two volumes entitled 'International Relations,' in which the Berlin correspondent of the London *Times* collected his letters from 1866 to 1870.

Portraits of Friends. By John Campbell Shairp. With a sketch of Principal Shairp, by William Young Sellars, and an etched portrait. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889.

THIS little volume gathers up the reminiscences of a half-dozen eminent friends which Principal Shairp contributed to the material used by their biographers, and is introduced by recollections of Shairp himself (from the pen of Mr. Sellars) incorporated in Prof. Knight's memoir of the essayist. The material is therefore not new, but the collection of it in a volume by itself makes a charming record of friendship to which the personal feeling and taste of Principal Shairp give not only unity but a touch of intimacy, of modest and half-concealed autobiography, delightful in both style and matter. Mr. Sellars's sketch describes Shairp's life and character, places him in the same class as Christopher North among his countrymen, illustrates his temper and pursuits, and brings out prominently his local attachment—so great that he counted a summer wasted that was not spent in Scotland. The following papers by Shairp himself, however, are the heart of the volume. They are upon Thomas Erskine of Linlathen; Cotton, Bishop of Calcutta; Dr. John Brown; Norman Macleod; Campbell, the leader of the sect cut off from the Scotch Church; John Mackintosh of Geddes, and Clough. The closeness of most of these men to Scotland, and the fact that the background of these friendships was the Scotch landscape, give a prevailing local tone. The Scotch genius—its severity and seriousness on the one hand, its spirituality and speculative bent on the other, in religious matters—the glow of feeling which in some of these men reached almost a poetical pitch, and particularly their serviceableness to their times, are the moral traits that make their characters of interest; and, winding in and out with all this is the cord of kind and affectionate feeling which united them one with another. Thomas Erskine especially is a man of whom those who feel the charm of a pure and gentle nature cannot learn enough, and the quality of his manhood is rendered by Principal Shairp with great felicity. He and Norman Macleod are most fully drawn, but in the former the age and in the latter the youth of their days are dwelt upon. Cotton, too, who was Shairp's associate at Rugby, is sympathetically described. Little incidents of common life, walks and visits in the Scotch hills and along the rivers, scenes of college days at Glasgow and Oxford, are the humble background on which the private character of these "laborers in the vineyard" is relieved; and the combined effect of all this piety, sincerity, high aim, and performance answering to it, friendly helpfulness in youth and sober friendship in manhood, gives a peculiar and fine pleasure. It is a chapter of Scottish life in the middle of this century which, it seems to us, could hardly be better told than in this brief and unpretending way.

Foggerty's Fairy, and Other Tales. By W. S. Gilbert. London: George Routledge & Sons.

TWENTY years ago half-a-dozen clever young men gathered about the late Tom Hood, who was then editing *Fun* and issuing the early numbers of *Hood's Comic Annual.* Among them were Mr. Clement Scott, now an adapter of French plays and the theatrical critic of the London *Telegraph;* the late T. W. Robertson, author of "Caste"; the late Jeff Prowse, whose "Nicholas's Notes" is yet a delight to the few who recall its pleasant humor; and Mr. W. S. Gilbert, who was then contributing the "Bab Ballads" to *Fun*, and writing fairy tales for *Hood's Comic Annual.* From the "Bab Ballads" and from these fairy tales Mr. Gilbert has derived the characters and the plots of most of his later plays. In the present volume may be found the narrative originals of "Foggerty's Fairy," the "Sorcerer," the "Wicked World," "Creatures of Impulse," and "Comedy and Tragedy." Although often humorous in conception, and full of whim and fantasy, these tales are obviously artificial, and they are wholly lacking in the delicate art by which Mr. Stockton, for example, makes his impossibilities seem possible. They were apparently written hurriedly to meet an unexpected demand; and in manner most of them are injured by the tone of factitious and confidential jocularity which is the bane of most contemporary British humor, and which is not far removed from artistic vulgarity.

Of the score of pieces in this book, there are here and there four articles not to be classed as "Tales" by any possible stretch of the word, and these are perhaps the best things in the book. Two are Shaksperian in subject—one an inquiry into our real acquaintance with the unacted plays of Shakspere, and the other a lively skit, "Rosencrantz and Guildenstern," on certain of the peculiarities of my lord *Hamlet* as he is acted. The other two papers—"A Stage Play" and "Actors, Authors, and Audiences"—have to do with the writing and production of a play. The account of the making of "A Stage Play" is slightly exaggerated with humorous intent, but essentially it is exact, and it may, therefore, be recommended to all who desire to see how a professional dramatist works. The paper on "Actors, Authors, and Audiences" is a dramatized discussion, in which the author sets forth the difficulties of the writer of an original play. Incidentally it is recorded that the author of the "Wedding March" made £2,000 by his two days' labor in adapting "Le Chapeau de paille d'Italie" of the late M. Labiche. This statement may be relied on, as the adapter was Mr. Gilbert himself.

And this suggests a curious inquiry. A few years ago a New York publisher chose to reprint in a cheap pamphlet the librettos of certain of Mr. Gilbert's amusing comic operas. This act is permissible under American law, although morally indefensible. In recognition of the English author's moral right, the American publisher sent him a check for a small sum of money. This Mr. Gilbert indignantly gave to a hospital, issuing a most sarcastic letter. But Mr. Gilbert's adapting of M. Labiche's play was also an act permissible under the British law (as it then stood), although morally indefensible. So far as we know, Mr. Gilbert has never expressed any contrition for this violation of the ethics of literary property. So far as we know, the English author never offered to pay the French author even the smallest sum for the use of the play, although, by his own showing in the book before us, the adapter made a profit of $10,000 from two days' labor on M. Labiche's comedy.

London: A Pilgrimage. By Gustave Doré and Blanchard Jerrold. Harper & Brothers.

THIS reissue of Doré's strange rendering of what he saw in London affords an inexpensive and sufficiently complete specimen of this artist's later style, which indeed was not so very different from his original style as the change in the character of the subjects would have made appropriate and desirable. The singular exaggeration, not exactly in the line of caricature, but partaking of the same nature; the theatrical force obtained by deliberately ignoring many of the most important characteristics of the object represented, and insisting upon one only; and a certain pessimistic tone, which makes the hideous, the foul, the brutal unduly prominent, even in subjects where it is naturally strong—all these, which were in place in the books which gave Doré his reputation, such as the 'Contes Drolatiques' and the 'Wandering Jew,' seem singularly ill-adapted to the representations of life in a modern city. In the way of portraiture, whether of the buildings of a city or the vehicles, steamboats, and the like in which its traffic is carried on, or the crowds which fill up its streets, or the individuals composing those crowds, Doré is weak. Nothing can be more absurdly unlike the objects represented than his drawings. Moreover, he is monotonous beyond belief—twenty strong men at work with shovels are but twenty sketches of the same strong man; and his fashionable ladies are all cut out from the same pattern, which pattern has served, also, in its time, for his flaunting dames of the Renaissance. He is perfectly indifferent, too, to the comparative nature of the objects that he represents. In the large plate, "Inside the Docks," opposite page 26, the shrouds of the near ships are as massive as the distant warehouses, and the sailors standing among them seem as if they were grouped on the peaks of an iceberg, while the yards of the shipping are made to resemble heavy cannon. In short, there are few of those qualities which one would say *à priori* were needed for a book-illustrator that Doré does not visibly and most strikingly lack. That, in spite of these many faults, his work still has force, and is capable of exciting interest, is proof of its having some transcendent qualities of its own which it is

as hard to describe as to admit, when one feels the full force of its falsity and ugliness.

The text, by Mr. Blanchard Jerrold, though evidently written to the illustrat ons, and on that account without much system, and not very consecutive, has still a certain value as giving a Londoner's idea of London, high and low, in the fourth quarter of the nineteenth century.

The Poetry of Tennyson. By Henry Van Dyke. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1889.

SOME chapters of this study of Tennyson have appeared in magazine form, but the greater part is new, and the whole is a rationally arranged survey of the poet's entire work, relieved by a few episodical chapters upon special questions, such as his resemblances to Milton and his use of the Bible. The author's reverence for Tennyson is very great, but it does not prevent his recognizing the pungent justice of Lockhart's criticism on the poet's early faults of taste, or his denominating "Maud" and "The Princess" "two splendid failures," or his occasionally indulging himself in phrases more noticeable for cleverness than for respect. The most interesting portion of his criticism is in the examples he gives of the alterations in the poems which illustrate Tennyson's refinement of taste increasing with years and practice; these are well selected and afford in some instances amusement. In the more original portions, however, as in the attempt to liken Tennyson to Milton, the critic is less successful. The argument from the use of double words by the two poets is exceedingly weak; the comparison of Tennyson's experience in losing his friend Arthur Hallam to Milton's experience in going into the service of England, is altogether superfine and in the air; and even in the love of natural and ideal beauty which they shared, the differences far exceed the similarities in their genius. Certainly, too, the attitude of the two towards woman is a point which only a critic with a case would have attempted to reconcile. It is true that, in the case of "The Princess," its "length is greater than its excellence," but we hesitate on that ground alone to call the poem a "failure"; it is a "failure" only in the sense that it falls short of Tennyson's most noble work, though it will be readily admitted that it suffers from faults inherent in its conception and structure. On the other hand, we cannot follow the critic in the high estimate he puts upon the three dramas which he names an historical trilogy. In all this there seems something of the eccentricity of individual preference.

In fact, the more we examine the volume, the more we find in it to question in points of detail; but the spirit is excellent, the treatment displays intelligence and attention in a part of literature where these qualities are not common, and we welcome any volume which directs the mind of the public to Tennyson's great poetical achievement, so inadequately realized now, which is in itself so true in feeling, so fine in art, so various and high-spirited, and, in our judgment, with a wisdom not inferior to its commanding beauty. The work of Tennyson is the single literary glory of his age in the region where art and thought are blended into one; and study of it, even if occasionally marred by superficiality and eccentricity, can only result in good.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aldrich, H. L. Arctic Alaska and Siberia. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. $1.50.
Allen, T. W. Notes on Abbreviations in Greek Manuscripts. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Almanach de Gotha. Gotha: J. Perthes; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Anecdotes Nouvelles: Lectures faciles et amusantes. New York: Charles E. Merrill & Co. 40 cents.
Armstrong, W. Cleopatra's Daughter: Romance of a Branch of Roses. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co.
Babyland. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 75 cents.
Bal', V. Travels in India by Jean Baptiste Tavernier, Baron of Aubonne. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $12.
Banning and Blessing. Thomas Whittaker. $1.05.
Björnström, Dr. F. Hypnotism: its History and Present Development. New York: Humboldt Publishing Co. 75 cents.
Brandt, Prof. H. C. G. German Reader for Beginners. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
Bryant, W. C. Ulysses among the Phœnicians. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
Buchheim, Emma S. German Poetry for Beginners. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
Bunyan, John. A Book for Boys and Girls; or, Country Rhymes for Children. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
Burnett, Frances H. A Quiet Life. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 25 cents.
Church, A. J. The Story of Early Britain. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Cicero on Friendship and Old Age, literally translated by C. R. Edmonds. Scribner & Welford.
Common-Sense Arithmetic for Common Schools. Part I. A. Lovell & Co.
Cook, J. An Eastern Tour at Home. Philadelphia: David McKay.
Coppée, F. Henriette: or, A Corsican Mother. Worthington & Co.
Craven, Mrs. D. Guide to District Nurses. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Crusader Programs. For the Loyal Temperance Union, &c. Chicago: Woman's Temperance Publication Association. 25 cents.
Culver, Amelia J. Every-Day Biography. Fowler & Wells Co. $1.50.
Curtis, Emma G. The Administratrix. John B. Alden.
Dabney, W. D. The Public Regulation of Railways. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Davies, N. E. Foods for the Fat. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 75 cents.
Day, Hester. A Snow Flower. James Pott & Co. 35 cents.
Döring, A. Philosophische Güterlehre. Berlin: R. Gaertner.
Dunton, L. The World and its People. 2 vols. Boston: Silver, Burdette & Co. 36 cents each.
Ely, Prof. R. T. Social Aspects of Christianity, and Other Essays. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 90 cents.
Fontaine, C. Les Poètes Français du XIXe Siècle. Wm. R. Jenkins. $1.50.
Fresneau, Mme. A. Theresa at San Domingo: A Tale of the Negro Insurrection of 1791. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Ganong, W. F. The Economic Mollusca of Acadia. St. John, N. B.: Barnes & Co. 50 cents.
Gilman, Mrs. B. Saint Theresa of Avila. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Gordon, Anna A. Songs of the Young Woman's Christian Temperance Union. Chicago: Woman's Temperance Publication Association. 25 cents.
Graham, Dr. D. Massage: Kort Framställning. Lund: C. W. K. Gleerup; Boston: Carl Schoenh f.
Green, S. M. Crime: Its Nature, Causes, Treatment and Prevention. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
Griffis, Rev. W. E. The Lily among Thorns: A Study of the Biblical Drama entitled the Song of Songs. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Heatley, Kingdon, Scudder. Gradatim: An Easy Latin Translation Book for Beginners. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
Henry, Mrs. S. M. I. The Unanswered Prayer; or, Why Do So Many Children of the Church go to Ruin? Chicago: Woman's Temperance Publication Association. 50 cents.
Henry, Mrs. S. M. I. Frances Raymond's Investment; or, The Cost of a Boy. Chicago: Woman's Temperance Publication Association. 50 cents.
Herrick, Christine T. Cradle and Nursery. Harper & Bros.
Holberg, L. Niels Klim's Wallfahrt in die Unterwelt. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Hugo, V. Bug Jargal. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Irving, J. Supplement to the Annals of Our Time, 1878–1887. Macmillan & Co. $2.75.
Kempis, T. Musica Ecclesiastica: The Imitation of Christ, in Rhythmic Sentences. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.
Lamb, C. Essays of Elia. 2 vols. London: David Stott; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Lanza, Marquise C. Basil Morton's Transgression. Minerva Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Latch, E. B. Indications of the Book of Job. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Lowell, Rev. R. The New Priest of Conception Bay. New ed. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Macfarlane, Prof. A. Elementary Mathematical Tables. Boston: Ginn & Co. 85 cents.
Macgibbon, D., and Ross, T. The Castellated and Domestic Architecture of Scotland from the Twelfth to the Eighteenth Century. Vol. III. Edinburgh: David Douglas.
May, Dr. C. H. Anatomy, Physiology and Hygiene. Wm. Wood & Co.
Mead, Prof. C. M. Supernatural Revelation: An Essay concerning the Basis of the Christian Faith. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $2.50.
Menger, R. Countess Loreley: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
Mitchell, Dr. Kate. The Drink Question. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.
Morgan, T. J. Studies in Pedagogy. Boston: Silver, Burdette & Co. $1.75.
Moulton, Louise C. In the Garden of Dreams: Lyrics and Sonnets. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Murray, G. G. A. Gobi or Shamo: A Story of Three Songs. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Myers, P. V. N. The Eastern Nations and Greece. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Palgrave, Mary E. In Charge: A Story of Rough Times. Thomas Whittaker. $1.05.
Pinkerton, T. The Spanish Poniard: A Tale. Swan Sonnenschein & Co.
Rawlinson, Prof. G. History of Phœnicia. Longmans, Green & Co. $6.
Reid, Ross and Bamfield. The Book of Wedding Days. Longmans, Green & Co. $6.
Rémusat, P. de. Thiers. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Russell, C. H. Euripides: Hecuba. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Schubin, O. Erlach Court. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Seward, Olive Risley. Around the World Stories. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.
Smith, B. G. From Over the Border; or, Light on the Normal Life of Man. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co.; New York: F. E. Grant. $1.
Taylor, J. Notes of Lessons for Young Teachers. Boston: School Supply Co. 50 cents.

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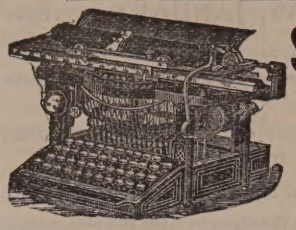

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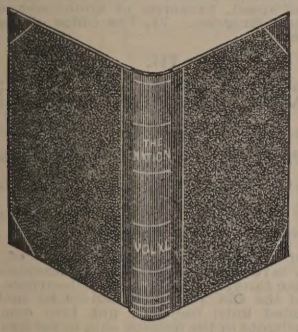

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 9, 1890.

The Week.

THE question of the proper duty on hat-trimmings was before the Supreme Court in the Langfeld case, and the Treasury officials should have heeded what was then said. It was again presented, in 1888, to the Federal Circuit Court in Philadelphia (in the Wanamaker case), and again the judgment was in favor of the importer, but the Treasury refused acquiescence. On October 5, 1888, Assistant Secretary Maynard asked Mr. Cheney of the Silk Association of America for his advice in regard to further resistance of the judicial power. Of course, he advised the continued levy of 50 instead of 20 per cent., the rate judicially ascertained, and the levy was made. And now comes a second decision by the Supreme Court, which, the telegraph says, will take six millions from the Treasury, which is doubtless an overestimate. But the sum will certainly be large, and by it Postmaster-General Wanamaker will greatly benefit. The 50 per cent. rate should never have been exacted. If the law was ambiguous, the lowest rate (20 per cent.) should have been assessed. The women of the country have paid the excess of 30 per cent., which will never be refunded to them, but all will go to the importers, who will have got the 30 per cent. twice, once on sale of the goods and again by the refund.

We shall see a similar result when the worsted case is reached in the Supreme Court. In fact, there are a lot of judgments piling up against the Treasury in this sinister fashion. A decision has been rendered lately by an appraiser in Chicago that the article called "degras," imported for tanning purposes, is dutiable as an expressed oil at 25 per cent., instead of a grease dutiable at 10 per cent. Degras is the grease obtained from wool in the process of removing its impurities and preparing it for spinning. It is used for the purpose of softening the upper leather of boots and shoes. The Boston *Commercial Bulletin* protests strongly against this decision, and intimates that it has been made in the interest of the producers of menhaden oil, who think that the demand for their stuff would be increased if they could get the duty on degras increased. In fact, they did get it increased in the Senate bill last year to one cent per pound. This was done on the motion of Senator Allison, without a word of explanation. It was not even stated what degras consisted of. The presiding officer of the Senate asked the Senator from Iowa how the word should be spelled, and the latter replied that it should be "de gras," as though it were two French words. No other notice was taken of the amendment. The *Commercial Bulletin* tells us there is an annual importation of ten million pounds of degras. The duty of one cent per pound, therefore, means a tax of $100,000 on the leather-manufacturers of the country. As the Senate bill did not pass, the Chicago Appraiser has lent his aid to the protection of American industry by raising the duty to 25 per cent. ad valorem. If his decision is sustained by the Treasury Department, we may look for another reversal and a fresh restitution.

Mr. Saxton has made some minor changes in his ballot bill, and has drawn a corrupt-practices bill to follow it as a companion piece of legislation. The principal change in the ballot bill is the adoption of a blanket ballot, or rather two blanket ballots, one general and the other municipal, in place of the several ballots provided for in last year's bill. He now proposes to group all the names of all candidates for national, State, and county offices upon the general ballot, and all those for municipal offices upon the other. In Presidential years the names of Presidential Electors will be put upon the general ballot. The names of the candidates are to be placed in the same party order in all the groups, with the politics of each placed after the name. He also thinks of favoring the proposal to have the voter indicate his choice by crossing off or erasing the names of all the candidates save those for whom he wishes to vote, instead of by placing a cross opposite those of his choice. Erasure is the method required under the new Missouri law, and it is favored by the Albany *Argus* and other Democratic authorities as being preferable to that of marking. As a matter of fact, the change amounts to nothing one way or another in principle, though it may facilitate both the preparation of the ballots and the counting of the vote. Mr. Saxton is wise to make it if by so doing he can get votes for the bill. His substitution of blanket ballots is also a wise one, for the practical test in Massachusetts has demonstrated their usefulness.

It is obviously the determination of all the advocates of genuine ballot reform to adhere to the requirement of exclusive official ballots as the fundamental principle of the system. Mr. Saxton declares that he will never abandon that, as "it is the vital issue of the bill," and in that position he is impregnable. His present bill, so far as we can judge of it from the brief synopsis published, is an adequate one. Under it bribers and those who accept bribes are to be punished, those who make bets or resort to violence to restrain voters from the polls, and all employers of labor who, within ninety days prior to the election, threaten to reduce wages or to discharge from employment those who may not vote as the employer directs, are subject to punishment of not less than three months' nor more than one year's imprisonment, and the forfeiture of any office to which the offending person may have been elected, with the loss of suffrage for five years. Within ten days after election every candidate must file an itemized account of his expenses, accompanied by an affidavit that it is correct. Every candidate is ineligible to office until he does this, and in the event of his failure to comply is guilty of misdemeanor. The person who accepts a bribe is made a competent witness against the person who offers a bribe. He shall testify the same as any other person at a hearing, trial, or investigation, and such testimony shall not be used against him in a criminal prosecution. If he turns State's evidence, he shall not be subjected to prosecution for such offences.

Gov. Hill pays a striking tribute to the importance of the ballot-reform question by giving more than one-half of his annual message to the discussion of it. As sent to the press, his message fills thirty-six printed pamphlet pages, and no less than twenty of them are devoted to electoral reform—five-ninths of the whole. The tone is explanatory and apologetic, and in decided contrast with that of the Governor's former official utterances upon the subject. He had the difficult task to perform of inventing an almost entirely new set of objections to the Australian system, for the complete success of the Massachusetts law destroyed all his old ones. The only one of them which he retains in its entirety is the claim that an exclusively official ballot is "unconstitutional," and he is obviously conscious that this does not carry much weight, for he puts it forward at the close in rather a half-hearted manner. Nearly all of what he says has no application to the present situation. He dwells, for example, at much length upon the point that the Australian system cannot be applied to American institutions without material modifications—a complete waste of mental energy, since nobody has said that it could, and since the necessary modifications have been made, and the modified system has been tried with entire success, and is now the law in nine American States. He recommends the secret-compartment method of voting, as effectively reaching the "two great evils of bribery and intimidation," but insists upon the use of both official and unofficial ballots, though experience has shown that the use of the latter makes the perpetration of bribery and intimidation not only easy but more systematic than ever. He repeats in a modified form some of his old objections to the official ballot as putting too much power in the hands of the county clerks and other officials, about delays in distribution, and about the disfranchisement of the illiterate voters, but fails to mention that the experiment in Massachusetts has shown them to be wholly imaginary.

Next to ballot reform, the Governor devotes more space to the subject of a new census and reapportionment of the State than to any other single topic. He begins his message, in fact, with this subject, and

very naturally, as it is one which has caused him more trouble than any other save ballot reform. Nothing that he has done as Governor has injured his party more than his veto, in 1885, of the bill providing for a new census. He thus prevented a reapportionment of the State, and, as the Democrats believe, made it impossible for them to get control of the Legislature. His pretence, which he repeats now, that he was in favor of an enumeration and not of a census, on the ground of economy, has never struck his party as adequate, and never will. But his veto, and that of the Constitutional Convention Bill of 1887, were assailable on higher grounds than those of party expediency. In both cases he usurped power which it was never intended that any Governor should exercise. Both measures were intended to set in motion governmental machinery that had as much right to move at the proper time as the Legislature has to meet annually, for both were authorized by the Constitution of the State. Continuous action of the kind on the part of a Governor would destroy free government in the State. Gov. Hill labors now, as he has done in the past, to put all the blame on the Legislature; but he cannot explain away the fact that it was his veto which prevented the constitutional requirement in each case from being carried out. The "outrageous abuse of power" which he denounces was committed by himself. It has always seemed to us that his course in regard to a constitutional convention was impeachable.

The most interesting feature of Gov. Brackett's message to the Massachusetts Legislature, so far as outsiders are concerned, is the passage devoted to the subject of liquor legislation. For many years the State has had a local-option law, which allows each city or town to decide for itself each year whether or not the sale of liquor shall be permitted. Under this law during the past year no less than 288 of the 351 towns and cities voted against licenses, so that, if the towns vote this year the same as last, after the 1st of May there will be absolute prohibition in more than four-fifths of the towns and cities of the commonwealth. When a municipality decides to license the sale of liquor, it can be carried on only under very restrictive conditions. The last Legislature passed an act by which the license fee is fixed at $500, while only one license can be granted in Boston for every 500 inhabitants, and in other cities and towns only one for every 1,000 inhabitants. Sales in these towns and cities are prohibited between the hours of eleven at night and six in the morning on every week day, at all times on Sunday, on all election days, and on legal holidays, except, in certain cases, by druggists and by licensed innholders to their guests. They are prohibited in any building within 400 feet of a public school, and in any building within 25 feet of any real estate the owner of which duly objects to the granting of a license therefor. Every license to sell liquor to be drunk on the premises is subject to the condition that the licensee shall not keep a public bar, and shall hold a license as an innholder or common victualler; and this latter he is not entitled to hold unless actually carrying on the business specified. "The meaning of the law," says the Governor, "clearly is that, while liquor may be sold by a licensed dealer, like other merchandise, to be carried away, it shall not be sold to be drunk on the premises except in hotels and restaurants. The obvious intent is to do away with the dram-shop and the public bar, and only to allow the licensed proprietors of hotels and restaurants, as incidental to their business as such, to furnish liquor to their bona-fide guests."

The result of all this is that, under the local-option system, prohibition prevails in those towns and cities where public sentiment demands it, being 82 per cent. of the whole number, while severe restrictions are placed upon the sale of liquor in those places where the voters decide to license its sale. Each community, if it chooses, can absolutely forbid the sale, while license by no means signifies liberty to start a liquor-saloon anywhere. The Governor heartily endorses this system, and in so doing simply represents the public sentiment of his State.

The wool-growers last year went to Washington and pushed and pulled for higher duties on wool, and got what they asked for because there was no effective resistance to them. Their bill did not pass, because one branch of Congress, being Democratic, was committed to free wool. The Senate yielded to the outlandish demand, but the House did not. This year both branches of Congress are Republican, and it has been assumed that the Senate bill of last year would be taken up and passed without much modification, and without any so far as the wool schedules are concerned. So confident were the wool-growers of this result that they demanded a special session of Congress last October expressly to act upon their measure, and it was thought at one time that they would get it. But another class began to take an interest in the subject of wool duties. The manufacturers prevented the special session, and now they have appeared at the tariff hearings of the Committee on Ways and Means in sufficient force probably to defeat the Senate wool schedule altogether. The petitions presented or to be presented by Mr. Frank P. Bennett of nearly one thousand manufacturers, most of them in favor of free wool, and the others in favor of lower duties, are the most weighty demonstration against robbery by tariff that the present generation of Americans has seen. To us it seems to mark the turning of the tide, since it betokens the rising of an interest strong enough to make itself heard and felt at the seat of Government in opposition to the practice of letting everybody rifle his neighbor's pockets as much as he likes. When the practice is once checked —it makes no difference at what point on the road—the opposite policy will begin to make headway.

The *Manufacturer* of Philadelphia publishes without comment a letter from Mr. F. B. Crawford *against* bounties and subsidies for shipping, in which the *reductio ad absurdum* is pretty effectively employed. It would be desirable, Mr. Crawford thinks, that the bounty system, if adopted, should result in giving us at least one-half as much steam shipping as Great Britain now enjoys. If it should have that effect, then "if each steamer traversed 30,000 miles per annum, a low estimate, and received thirty cents per gross ton (as proposed by the bounty bill) per 1,000 miles, the annual cost would be about $44,000,000. If this were to come from the national surplus," he continues, "owners would doubtless conclude, after the third dividend, that they had been induced to build their vessels under false pretences, for by that time a reaction in the public mind might be expected." As a method of getting rid of the surplus, this would surpass any new pension law now contemplated.

A correspondent inquires why we cannot have a permanent tariff commission to take the tariff question out of politics, in the same way that the Inter-State Commerce Commission has taken the railroad question. The answer is, that there is no objection to such a commission except its uselessness. The existence of such a commission presupposes that Congress, after creating it, will let the tariff alone, or only meddle with it when and as the commission shall advise. But we all know that Congress will do nothing of the kind. The reason why Congress will not let the tariff alone, either before or after creating a commission, is that the people, who elect Congressmen, will not let it alone. In other words, the desideratum of a tariff that nobody will attack is not to be found short of the kind of tariff that Great Britain has—*i. e.*, one from which the protective element has been wholly eliminated. Even that kind of a tariff would be exposed to the attacks of the Henry George men, who want to have all taxes imposed upon land values. In short, the proposition in question is to have a free people abdicate for the time being the exercise of self-government touching the particular branch of government which most nearly concerns their welfare. The analogy of the Inter-State Commerce Commission fails in this, that the latter body simply interprets and enforces an existing law subject to appeal to the regular judicial tribunals. It stands towards the Inter-State Commerce Law exactly where the collectors of customs and the Secretary of the Treasury stand towards the Tariff Law.

To any who think that a permanent tariff commission would be a useful adjunct to our Government, the example of the last Tariff Commission should serve as a warning. No body of men ever worked more diligently, few ever worked more conscientiously. It was composed of protectionists of a pronounced type. It possessed the confidence of the Republican Administration then in power and of the Republican party generally. Yet its work was treated with no more civility or consideration by Congress than that of any college debating society.

If it had been a permanent instead of a temporary commission, the members must have tendered their resignations in a body if they had preserved any notions of self-respect.

Very slight attention has been paid to the recent investigation by a Senate committee of our relations with Canada. There is no election pending now, and consequently no occasion for lashing ourselves into fury respecting the fishery question or the encroachments of Canadian railways. The testimony of ex-Collector Babson of Gloucester, Mass., however, seems to call for some notice. According to the newspaper reports, Capt. Babson contended that American fishermen had a grievance in "the denial to them of the right to buy anything that is lawful and proper in every Canadian port, or the denial to them of rights that are accorded other commercial vessels. The witness advised as a remedy that proper legislation in Congress should be taken, and advocated retaliation as the very best way to obtain the end sought for." The "anything" which is denied to American fishermen in Canadian ports (which means Newfoundland) is bait, which is caught only in the bays and inlets of Newfoundland, and which gives to that island all the territorial value which it has in respect to its fisheries. To surrender this privilege is equivalent to surrendering its shore rights and its territory, and this Collector Babson knows full well; but he talks in a way to give a popular impression that the Dominion of Canada is denying to the United States something contrary to international comity. The Dominion of Canada might as well allege as a grievance against the United States that its fishermen are not allowed to collect oysters in Chesapeake Bay or in the inland waters of Virginia. The authorities of Newfoundland have as indisputable a right to say how this bait, caught only in her inland waters, shall be collected, and how it shall be used, as the United States have to deny to Newfoundland fishermen the privilege of selling their fish in our markets. And yet Collector Babson would try and persuade our people that we have a cause of grievance against Canada worthy of such retaliatory proceedings as might occasion war; and in so doing his conduct is open to the most serious animadversion.

Whatever opposition is made to the confirmation of Gen. T. J. Morgan as Commissioner of Indian Affairs when his name comes before the Senate will rest on two grounds, viz., the result of his trial by a court-martial during the war, and his alleged unfriendliness to the Roman Catholics in his government of the Indian schools. The weight of evidence as regards his court-martial, presented since his nomination by the President, favors the assumption that he was the victim of one of those unjust verdicts which are recorded during every war either by military tribunals or by individual commanders. Of the first of these the case of Gen. Fitz-John Porter is an example; of the second, the case of Gen. G. K. Warren. As regards the complaints of the Catholics, recently published statements by Bishop Ireland and Mr. Herbert Welsh, giving both sides of the matter, lead only to the conclusion that the Indian Commissioner views the Indian schools in the light of public schools, holding that Government money should not go to those that are strictly sectarian; while the Catholics would demand a share of the Government funds for their Indian schools, just as they are constantly contending for a share of the school money in the States for their parochial schools. We think that public opinion will sustain Commissioner Morgan in his treatment of this question. It is a strong argument in favor of his confirmation to find him zealously supported by the organizations which make the welfare of the Indians their special study, and have fought so long to divorce Indian government from party spoils.

The account of the shabby treatment which our Government has accorded to the foreign delegates to the International Marine Conference is very unpleasant reading for Americans. As a people we are generous in our hospitality, and it is humiliating to learn that we are not so as a nation. The Conference was called by our Government; the delegates came to it at our solicitation and as our guests. Foreign governments, as is their custom in such cases, sent to us their most eminent representatives of the profession whose rules and general practice were to constitute the subjects under discussion. If the same men had come to our houses as private guests, they would have received the most cordial and lavish hospitality which it had been in our power to give. Yet, chiefly through the niggardliness of Congress, as a nation we showed ourselves to them both stingy and ill-mannered, not even furnishing suitable quarters for their deliberations, though our chief problem in government is to know how to dispose of our enormous surplus.

Immediately upon the passage of the French military law of the 15th of July, 1889, M. de Freycinet appointed a commission to consider and report upon the question of dispensations from service, and to draw up a body of rules under which the article 23 of the law, which concerns exemptions, should be put in force. This commission performed its delicate and difficult task with as much despatch as was possible, and its report was sent to the Conseil d'État, where it was debated, and the *règlement d'administration* which was its result was signed by the President and published on the 23d of last November. There seems to be no doubt that it has created a good deal of discontent among the French middle classes. One regulation especially gives them trouble, namely, that which permits certain classes of students at the École Normale Supérieure to get off with one year's service with the colors, in case they anticipate conscription and voluntarily enlist at the age of eighteen.

One result of the law, which very likely was not expected, will be to crowd the favored schools with aspirants for degrees and exemption from service. As the *Journal des Débats* says:

> "It is impossible to conceal the fact that the French *bourgeoisie* regards with the gravest concern the prospect of its sons being doomed to spend three years of their life in barracks. It will do all it can to avoid that misfortune. To obtain a reduction in the time of his military servitude, the young French *bourgeois* will use every effort to gain a diploma, even if it be that of an apothecary or a veterinarian. Those who despair of obtaining one will go in for the study of music, and if fugue and counterpoint are beyond their reach, they will attempt to excel on the trombone or the cornet."

"Culture," it appears, will become general. The land of *la gloire* will be filled with Sanskrit scholars and trombonists who have become such in order to avoid the path to glory. But the *Débats* really seems to think the case serious, and urges the Conseil d'État to revise the law, and at least to give to the commercial schools the benefit of the reduction of time of active service which is now enjoyed only by the École Normale.

Early in the sessions of the Austrian Reichsrath, the question of the national aspirations of Bohemia, and the proposal of the Young Czechs that Francis Joseph should be crowned King of Bohemia at Prague, had an airing. A German Liberal deputy, Herr Plener, interpellated the Government about the whole matter, asking Count Taafe what he meant to do in the premises, and fiercely denouncing the national movement and the new Governor of Bohemia. A Czech orator replied, asserting that the Bohemian Diet was the place for such discussions. As the German members of that Diet have abandoned their seats, as a last and desperate protest against the Young Czech party, this thrust was a deserved one. The representative of the Czechs went on to say that his party had come to power in Bohemia in the face of a constitution and electoral law expressly designed to keep them in the minority, and that now the Germans were demanding that the majority should surrender to them. The President of the Council, who is supposed to be not averse to such displays of national animosities, since he is playing one party off against another, declared that he should continue in his course of conciliation and regard for the interests of all parties, and promised to give a full answer to the interpellation in January. But he concluded to do it sooner, and, a few days after, stated that the Government had no idea of consenting to the crowning at Prague, or of taking any other imprudent step which might stimulate race prejudice and seem to impair the unity of the empire. Still it was not hostile to the proper national spirit of Bohemia, which it would consult and favor in all legitimate ways. He advised the Germans to go back to their seats in the Diet. Those seats, by the way, have been declared vacant, and new elections ordered to fill them. The Germans will stoutly contest the elections, but will not occupy the seats, so it is said, even if they win them again.

THE OPPORTUNITY OF THE DEMOCRATS.

At the present juncture the Democratic party occupies an exceptionally favorable position. Its accession to power was generally dreaded, but, whatever it failed to accomplish, it at least proved that its policy involved no marked injury to the country, and most of the arguments *in terrorem* that were used against it have lost their force. The immolation, so to speak, of Mr. Cleveland kindled a fire that burns much fiercer now than it did a year ago, and is causing obvious consternation in the Republican forces. Their majority is very small, and they can scarcely adopt a measure that will not make it smaller. The country is aroused about the tariff; it demands a reduction, but the Republican party cannot offer one. The talk of a tariff bill is idle. The interests that suffer under the present high duties will not tolerate an increase, and the interests that have profited by them have grown too arrogant to permit a reduction. With a large majority it would be possible to offend some of the members of the party for the sake of placating the country; but with a small majority this policy is impossible, for the majority would disappear in the process.

The trouble is, that the party is no longer held together by any proper tie of loyalty, or by devotion to any lofty ideal. It is controlled by a ring of wealthy and corrupt men, whose bond of union is greed, and who regard government in modern times as an instrument of plunder much superior to the mediæval contrivances. It would be adding insult to injury for these men to ask one of their number to relinquish his share of the booty in order that the rest of them might continue their operations with greater safety. What are the interests of the party to him if he is to make no money by its success? There is a certain precarious honor among thieves, but it has never been carried to the quixotic extreme of expecting loyalty from a brother who was omitted in the division of the spoils. In short, the Republican ring is not strong enough to dispense with the support of any of its members, and it cannot touch the tariff without alienating some of them. The party is fairly caught between the devil of protectionism and the deep sea of popular odium. Apparently it is bound to work out its own destruction without assistance.

It is, however, in the power of the Democrats to accelerate the catastrophe materially. While they were in power they were hampered by responsibility. They had the whole matter of the tariff to deal with, which was very nearly the same as having to undertake the regulation of all the business of the country. Their policy, although creditable to their courage, inevitably united the opposition. It brought out the whole of the forces of the protected interests and illustrated the maxim, *Beati possidentes*. But now that the Democrats are in opposition they can fight with a freer hand. It would be folly for them to attempt to bring forward the Mills bill again. The country would understand that there was no hope of passing it, and would regard it as an idle manœuvre. What they should do is to unite, as they easily can, upon some simple measure which will divide their opponents. It is a question for careful consideration, but probably a bill for the abolition of the duties upon wool would be most difficult for the Republicans to face. A number of their Representatives would see at once that opposition to such a measure would mean for them a quick return to the obscurity of private life, and would be tempted to manifest an independence that would be personally advantageous. Some even of their Senators might feel that, in the course of human events, a record of opposition to such a measure would stand in the way of a re-election.

While it is perhaps hardly probable that the Democrats could force such a measure through Congress (although a great many Republicans would be secretly delighted to see their despised and detested leader compelled to assume the odium of vetoing it), yet the mere attempt, if boldly and skilfully managed, would be extremely demoralizing to their adversaries. The example of the overthrow of the quinine tax should not be forgotten. But the principal advantage to the Democrats would be derived from the popular interest which would be aroused in the struggle. The general subject of protective duties is altogether beyond the comprehension of most people. It does not interest them, and it is too vast and intricate a matter for them to grapple with. The number of persons who have sufficient mastery of political economy to discuss it intelligently is extremely small, and without this mastery of principles it is impossible to accomplish anything by an appeal to facts. A system of customs duties is intrinsically dry, difficult, and complicated; common people cannot understand it and do not want to be bored with it.

A tax upon a single article of universal use is a very different matter. It seems to be a very concrete thing, although it is in reality abstract enough. It is to be remembered that the reform of the tariff in Great Britain began with the overthrow of the corn laws. There was a tax upon food, and there were people starving; from these simple premises every one felt competent to draw a conclusion. It is true that a tax upon clothes does not arouse the same degree of indignation as a tax upon bread, but, after all, there is, perhaps, no greater blessing to the poor in such a climate as ours than woollen clothing. Many a sturdy fellow has fallen a victim to consumption or been crippled by rheumatism who would now be in vigor if the laws of his country had allowed him to use one of the most beneficent gifts of nature. This wonderful fibre is an indispensable protection to all whose toil is attended with exposure to cold or wet or heat. It makes the warmest clothing in winter and the coolest in summer. It is the only safe covering for the human body by day and the only suitable covering by night. There is something hideously mean and contemptible in the avarice of our woollen-manufacturers, who have succeeded in depriving the toiling millions of this country of wholesome clothing and compelling them to swelter and shiver under wretched mixtures of cotton and shoddy, all for the sake of maintaining a tax that has been as often ruinous as beneficial to those who imposed it. They took advantage of the generous outburst of patriotism at the beginning of the war to pocket enormous bounties, and manifested their gratitude by furnishing our gallant volunteers with clothing that left them a prey to diseases more fatal than the bullets of the enemy. The lofty words of Mr. Cleveland's speech at Boston should shame them into abandoning their sordid policy.

But whether they are likely to be affected by such considerations or not, they would be extremely likely to discern that free wool would be to their immediate advantage. They would be aware that the bounty upon their own products would be next done away with, but they are sufficiently astute to see that it is already doomed, and to reason that if they can have two or three years of large profits before retribution overtakes them, they would be very foolish to refuse them for the sake of suffering as much as their companions. Some of them, also, are wise enough to see that if they could have free wool, they would need no more protection than they would be quite sure to get. Altogether it is highly probable that the opposition of the woollen-manufacturers to a bill for the immediate abolition of the duties upon wool would be of a feeble character, and it is certain that they would be justly or unjustly suspected of lukewarmness. As it is only with the greatest difficulty that discipline is at present enforced in the Republican ranks, such an occasion would probably lead to open mutiny.

As to the employees in the woollen mills, there can be no doubt that they would heartily support such a measure if it were once proposed. In addition to the gain in better clothing, they would see that free wool would set thousands of idle spindles turning, and that increased production would bring increased wages. The remote consequences to the sacred principles of protectionism would weigh little with them against such immediate advantages as these. There is good reason to suppose that the common people of the country would take the same common-sense view of the matter. If the issue were made plain to them—and such an issue could be made plain—that they were to choose between the solid and tangible advantages of good shirts and coats and blankets and carpets at prices now paid for wretched substitutes, and the remote and abstract blessings of a protective tariff, they would not long hesitate. Let the Democrats identify themselves with a measure of this kind, and their success is assured. Every advantage of discussion would be with them, and their opponents would be restricted to labored and sophistical generalities. Whether the bill were carried or not, the gain to the Democrats would be the same. Such a measure is by no means the ideal of tariff reform, but it is a safe prophecy that it would be followed by such a bound of prosperity as to make systematic revision easy. Once let us have a concrete in-

stance of the advantages of free trade, and the terrors that surround the name will lose their power to affright our people.

PROMOTING MENDICANCY.

THE renewed attempt by Senator Blair to secure the passage of a bill for Federal aid to education in the South requires a renewal of efforts against this pernicious scheme by all friends of the public-school system. Happily the opponents of the project have now abundant assurance that public sentiment throughout the country is with them, and that Congress will be heartily supported by the people of the South as well as of the North in defeating the bill.

It is now eight years since the Blair bill was introduced in the Senate. It was brought forward upon the plea that the South was "impoverished by the war," that she was then raising all the money for the support of schools which it was possible for her to raise, and that no improvement could be expected for years to come unless aid were given from Washington. It was therefore proposed to pass a bill "to aid in the establishment and temporary support of common schools," such aid to cover a period of eight years.

The eight years have now passed, and it has been conclusively shown that there was no necessity for the passage of such a bill Not one cent of money has been voted from Washington, and yet the amount of money expended for the support of schools in the South is now many millions more than eight years ago, when the advocates of the Blair bill claimed that the limit had been reached. The New Orleans *Times-Democrat*, which has for years made a specialty of collecting the statistics of Southern progress, published a statement last September which showed that the school revenues in the Southern States (excluding Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia, and Missouri) were only $6,145,706 in 1880, and had much more than doubled in 1889, amounting last year to $13,905,304.

A recent letter from the Superintendent of Public Instruction in Florida gives the school statistics for the year preceding the passage of the Blair bill and for the eighth succeeding year. During this period the number of schools increased from 1,131 to 2,249, the number of scholars from 39,315 to 82,323, and the expenditures for schools from $114,805 to $484,110. Superintendent Russell shows how this increase has been the outgrowth of public interest in the school system, and points out how normal and healthful this development has been.

Florida has perhaps made the most rapid progress in this matter of all the Southern States, although she is hard pressed by Arkansas, where within a period of three years there was an increase in the number of teachers from 2,462 to 3,691, in the number of pupils from 112,233 to 175,935, and in the expenditure for school purposes from $479,471 to $866,892. The Superintendent of Public Instruction in the latter State reports that "there is no State in the Union which pays more for education in proportion to her taxable property than is paid by Arkansas," and he calls attention to the significant fact that "this constant increase in our revenue is due to the district tax voted by the people. This constant increase is conclusive evidence of the increased interest in public schools, and of the fact that all prejudice is fast giving way, and public sentiment is outspoken in favor of public education."

The educational progress of Florida and Arkansas is not due to their exceptional wealth or prosperity, but simply to the fact that the dominant sentiment in those States became early impressed with the necessity of securing good schools, and that the people went to work to get them, without waiting to see if they might not get the necessary money from Washington. The example of Florida and Arkansas has done much to stimulate progress of late years in other Southern States which have been more backward, and they are constantly held up as models before the people of such States by their Superintendents of Education. Thus, Superintendent Palmer of Alabama says: "Florida, with taxable values amounting to only $86,000,000—much less than one-half of ours—pays for public schools $447,000," being more than Alabama has raised up to last year. Superintendent Finger of North Carolina shows that, if all the school expenditures were raised from tax on property, the rate would be only thirty-one cents in North Carolina, against fifty-nine cents in Florida and sixty cents in Arkansas.

The plea that the South is too poor to provide good schools can no longer be urged. The whole Southern press is constantly celebrating the rapidly growing prosperity of all that section. The New Orleans *Times-Democrat* showed last September that the assessed wealth of the South, which was only $2,164,792,795 in 1880, amounted to $3,759,053,367 in 1889—an increase of almost 75 per cent.; while the value of agricultural products had risen from $611,679,048 to $868,979,523, and of manufactures from $315,924,000 to $651,202,000, with a growth of railroad mileage from 17,808 to 36,686. No wonder that, after such an exposition of the progress of the South in material prosperity, Southern people are growing disgusted with the talk about their being still "impoverished by the war" and too poor to support their schools. The Louisville *Courier-Journal* vigorously expressed the prevalent feeling when it said not long ago: "The Southern people are becoming weary of the assertion that they are too poor to educate their children. It is not true, and it is not creditable."

The evidence that the South is able to support her schools, and that the readiness to support them grows with the ability, has caused nearly all of those who once favored Federal aid to oppose any attempt to carry out this project now. The New Orleans *Times-Democrat* well expressed the feelings of many such people in the South when it said it had been "shown that if the Southern people will really exert themselves, they can solve this problem. After calling, like the carter, for Hercules for years, we have discovered that, if we put our shoulders to the wheels, we can get our cart out of the ruts." This change of attitude has been most striking in the case of those educators who are especially devoted to the elevation of the negro, among whom Gen. S. C. Armstrong of the Hampton (Va.) Institute is most conspicuous. He was formerly a supporter of the Blair bill, but has come to oppose it strongly, on the ground that the South does not now need such aid, and that under such circumstances the aid would do more harm than good.

The passage of the Blair bill now would simply promote mendicancy. Left to themselves, the Southern people are building up school systems of which they are proud. As the Savannah *News* has put it, "the more the schools cost, the more they will be appreciated." But if the Federal Government were now to interfere, as the *News* says, "the people would feel less like taking money out of their pockets to support them." Moreover, the inevitable effect of receiving assistance from Washington temporarily would be to make the Southern people feel that they must have such aid permanently. As the Charleston *News and Courier* says, the proposed plan is only a makeshift, and "would leave the States and the schools in a worse condition than they are at present or ever have been since the system of public schools was established." At the end of the eight years "the States would find it to be impossible to get along without Government crutches, and we should have the mendicant policy of education fastened upon the country for eighty years or for ever."

The sober second thought of the nation condemns this scheme. The leading educators and newspapers of the South earnestly protest against it. Nor has the project any more strength at the North than at the South. The representative journals of both parties condemn the bill, and it has hardly an advocate of any sort left in the press. This rejection of the bill by public sentiment should be reflected in its rejection by the Senate. At first it passed that body by a vote of three to one. In the last Congress it secured only ten majority, so that a change of five votes would have prevented its passage. This year there ought to be a good majority against it. Its further agitation only harms the cause of education in the South. Much greater progress would have been made if it had never been heard of. The Macon *Telegraph* declares that "there is no doubt that the movement to improve our schools, now so well under way, would have become effective sooner but for the prospect that the school funds of the States would be increased by Federal appropriations." Let not the Congress of the United States any longer put such obstacles in the way of Southern schools.

MR. LOWELL ON BEHALF OF THE MODERNS.

IN another column will be found a short account of the recent convention of the Modern Language Association at Cambridge. The chief attraction of the meeting was the ad-

dress of James Russell Lowell, who has been for some time and continues to be the President of the Association. The general spirit of the occasion was purely scientific, but a formal public address by Mr. Lowell is a literary event which may properly claim our attention by itself.

The speaker began by recalling the fact that when he last stood before a university audience, it was at a festival of a college founded to perpetuate sound learning chiefly through the instrumentality of the Latin, Greek, and Hebrew languages. Among the founders of Harvard were doubtless many who thought that nothing written in any living language could itself live. Latin was for them the only "infallible pickle." Thence came the predominance of the classics in the older education, and the contempt in which the modern languages (if they were ever heard of at all inside college halls) were held by both students and teachers. "I confess," said Mr. Lowell, "that I was a great while in emancipating myself from the formula that prescribed the Greek and Latin classics as the one true church of culture outside of which there can be no salvation. I am not sure that I have wholly emancipated myself even yet." The speaker then dwelt for a while upon the value of the old formula, its historical import to mankind, and the tenacity with which it clung to life after its exclusive claim had been discredited by the upspringing of a new modern literature of no less power and vitality than the old. He disclaimed any intention of renewing the "Battle of the Books," and did not wish to be understood as in any sense undervaluing the old classical culture; but on this occasion "he held a brief for the modern languages, and was bound to put their case in as fair a light as possible."

Mr. Lowell next proceeded to consider the benefits of literary study in any foreign language, whether ancient or modern. To know another literature than that of one's own tongue, he urged, broadens the mind, enlarges its range of comparison and strengthens its judicial faculty. The usefulness of translation was touched upon. Through the effort to translate we first really learn the secret of the word we have been using all our lives, and are gradually made aware that to set forth even the plainest thought as it ought to be set forth is a very difficult thing, and, moreover, an affair of conscience. In fine, translation helps us to a right feeling for style in the deeper sense—the style which is not merely the form, but the very life, of literature. It is to style in this sense that we give the name of genius, that "insoluble ingredient which kindles, lights, inspires, and transmits impulses to other minds; which awakens in them energies hitherto latent, and makes them startlingly aware that they too may be parts of the controlling purpose of the world." "The day will come," Mr. Lowell continued, "when it will be understood that the masterpieces of all languages are not to be classed by any arbitrary standard, but stand on the same level by virtue of being masterpieces; that the poets of all climes and ages sing to one clear lute in many keys, and that the masters of prose in whatever tongue teach the same lesson and exact the same fee."

In concluding, the speaker said that he rejoiced in the progress of modern philology, but held that philology, good as it is in itself, should lead to something better, namely, literature. The blossoms of language should not be neglected for their roots. He deprecated, too, the setting of ancient and modern literature over against each other as adversaries; rather should the feeling prevail that each can be fully understood only in the light of the other.

"What I urge," said he, "is that no invidious distinction be made, as sometimes used to be and sometimes is, between the ancient and the modern to the disadvantage of the latter, but that students should be encouraged to take the course in modern languages as being quite as good in point of discipline as any other, if pursued with the same thoroughness and to the same end; and that end, as I have said, should be literature, in which alone language attains to a full consciousness of its power, and the joyous exercise of it. It is only through literature that we become complete men; for there, and there only, can we learn what man is and what man may be. For it is nothing else than the autobiography of mankind."

This epitome reflects as well as an epitome can the general drift of the address. To its style our report does but meagre justice. We have quoted from the best of the reports in the Boston papers, but this only gives here and there an adumbration of the captivating literary workmanship which delighted those who heard the address. It was a classic of its kind, and some of its phrases, we dare predict, will prove to be lastingly "pickled" for future use. It is not hard to imagine our epigoni in some remote generation as exercising themselves over the authorship of the "quotation," "Dante was a genius, and language courtesies to its natural king."

If we were to animadvert upon any point in the address as one that might bear putting in another light, it would be Mr. Lowell's antithesis of philological and literary study. We do not mean by this merely an objection to the use of "philological" as a synonym of "linguistic," though there are certainly reasons for liking Prof. Whitney's broad definition of philology as "that branch of knowledge which deals with human speech and all that speech discloses as to the nature and history of man." But whether we understand philology to include all that pertains to literature or not, is it not better to refrain from pressing the antithesis of literary and linguistic study? Is it not better to insist that the study of literature and the study of language are not two studies whereof the one is nobler than the other, but one and the same study, the worthiness of which depends upon the spirit in which it is carried on? Mr. Lowell's intention was, doubtless, to raise his voice against that which he long ago characterized as the *teredo* method—that is, against the scholarship which becomes absorbed in the letter that killeth, to the neglect of the spirit which giveth life. There is always a certain timeliness in this admonition. Beyond doubt the highest benefit that can come from the study of literary records is the getting of information such as can be related to life for the making of better and fuller men. Still, the truth is, that whether any particular line of study is capable of being so related or not, depends not so much upon any peculiar dignity inherent in the nature of the facts dealt with, as upon the character of the man who deals with them. Darwin breeding pigeons, Grimm puzzling at old German manuscripts, and Carlyle fuming over the rubbish-heaps of Dryasdust, were *teredos* to many who saw them at it, but they are imposing enough in the retrospect. Do we gain anything by conceiving literature as the soul, the essence, of which language is the body, the form? Is it not nearer the mark to say that literature *is* language, and that the student of it in any of its aspects has a right to feel that the pursuit of accurate philosophic knowledge, whatever be the field of his special interest, is one of the noblest of vocations, and that it is simply his own fault if he allows his better self to be submerged and smothered by his material?

NORMAL SCHOOLS IN SPAIN.

It was in 1839 that the normal-school system of Spain was founded. Beginning with the Central of Madrid, in that year, the establishment of such schools went on steadily throughout the provinces till 1849. Since that date things have remained nearly stationary. From two recent articles on the subject by Don Nícolas Díaz Pérez in the *Revista Contemporánea*, it appears that at the present day the number of normal schools for the training of male teachers is forty-seven, leaving but two provinces unprovided for, and for women teachers thirty-three. They are supported by the central Government at a cost—we quote from the estimates for 1889–'90—of $187,965. Up to 1886 the provinces themselves had paid the expenses of their own normal schools; but a decree of April 30, of that year, brought them all under the care and direction of the Government at Madrid. Something like one-quarter of the sum named above is expended on school appliances; the rest goes for the salaries of teachers.

As may easily be inferred, the remuneration thus provided is far from being luxurious. Great inequality and much apparent unfairness are displayed in the assignment of stipends to teachers who are supposed to be in the same grade and doing the same work. This is particularly true of the normal schools for girls. Thus, the head of one such institution receives the munificent salary of $150 per annum, and her assistants correspondingly less. From that amount the income of a directress of a normal school for females varies up to $1,000, the highest. There is more uniformity in the cases of the male professors. The law of public instruction fixes the salary of a director of a normal school of the first class at $600, and of the second and third classes at $500. Their assistant teachers receive from $350 to $400. So far the law, which is certainly in itself not calculated to throw a glamour about the life of a teacher; the salaries, in fact, remain precisely as they were in 1857, although the general scale of living and of earning has meanwhile advanced considerably. But the

law in Spain is subject to as much twisting and manipulation, and for the same reasons, as with us, and the professors with a "pull" are the ones to find their salaries strangely increased, and their exorbitant demands for "general expenses" promptly granted. Those not so happily circumstanced have, of course, to take the resulting pinch of economy, while all, owing to the frightful condition of the Spanish Treasury, often have to wait months for even their meagre stipends.

Spain's entire budget for education is painfully small, only $1,500,000 for everything — primary schools, normal schools, State Universities, and all. Yet it is estimated that two-thirds of the population are illiterate. It ought to be remembered, however, that a vast number of ecclesiastical schools, of all classes, exists without direct pecuniary aid from the Government. Nevertheless, in all together, public and private, no more than 1,769,602 scholars were registered in 1880. Even that number represents a gain of 300 per cent. since the establishment of the normal schools, and their advocates point with proper pride to such a result.

The course of study in the normal schools is, according to Señor Pérez, in a very chaotic condition. Strictly, they are still under rules devised in 1849, slightly modified by a law of 1857, and this fact alone is enough to prove that they are behind the times. But things are not everywhere so bad as they might be supposed from this, since independent initiative has done a good deal, in some places, to remedy a defective law. The two great normal schools in the capital, for example, display much teaching abreast of the best in any country. But there is crying need of a thorough revision of the whole system, with unification of the instruction given, and the introduction of modern methods.

Unfortunately, the reform proposed by the Government is in the direction of the suppression of a large number of the schools outright. The Count de Xiquena, Minister of Public Instruction, has recommended that sixty-one of the normal schools be abolished. He would leave but twenty in existence outside of Madrid. His argument is that the latter number, advantageously grouped and brought into relations with the universities, would be ample for the educational needs of Spain. It is not a motive of economy that actuates him, he maintains, but a desire to give a better equipment and efficiency to a few schools in the place of supporting four times as many to so little purpose. Probably neither the Count nor the straitened Administration would be averse to the saving of expense, which their political opponents allege to be their only aim; but they will find it almost impossible to get the provincial Deputies to consent to the abolition of local institutions in which the people take as much pride as they do in the normal schools.

RECOLLECTIONS OF ROBERT BROWNING.

ROME, December 17, 1889.

BY the death of Browning a circle of his old friends in Rome is sadly and unexpectedly bereft. He had, indeed, enthusiastic admirers in Italian circles. The Queen of Italy studies his poetry, and knows much of it by heart. The King feels that Browning belongs, in a sense, to this country, and has expressed his sympathies to the family. But Browning's English and American friends feel as if some near relative were lost. Lord Dufferin, the English ambassador here, and Lady Dufferin—who has made her début as an authoress—and the Stillmans, and the Storys, who were just rejoicing that Browning had returned to Italy, can hardly feel these skies so bright and kind as they shine on the grave of Browning. It was but a few weeks ago that Mr. Story, the sculptor, was rambling with him at Asolo, through the by-ways where dear "Pippa" passed. Mr. Story tells me that Browning seemed to preserve an immortal youth. "Fifty years ago," he said, "I rambled here, and wrote the poem, and now I have returned to see it again." "It is all beautiful," said his friend, "but will you please show me Pippa?" "I wish I could," said Browning; "Asolo is here, the Bishop's palace remains, but the girls —are gone!" As Mr. Story was about to drive away, Browning bent his face into the carriage window and said, "More than forty years of friendship, and never a break."

Although Browning was seventy-seven, he sat in the sunshine of life, like the old king in his poem, so happy, so beloved, that there seemed no reason he should ever die. But two weeks ago a friend of mine saw him in his box at the opera in Venice, listening to "Mignon," and a picture of serenity between his American daughter-in-law and a pretty young lady visiting her. One of his friends, however, Dr. George Bird of London, discovered at the close of November that all was not right. He was in a small company invited by Mr. and Mrs. Curtis, American residents in Venice, to hear Browning read some of his new poems, and on the following evening dined with him. After dinner Browning, in his merry way, boasted of his health and held out his pulse. Dr. Bird tells me that he discovered at once that degeneration of the heart had set in, though he did not so inform his friend. There is reason now to suspect that the two flights of stairs by which he had to mount to his rooms in his son's superb Palazzo Rezzonico were not helpful in his case. "Give me the happy man!" He who so wrote was happy to the last. Death did not touch him painfully. Shortly before his death a telegram from London came, telling him of the large subscription sales of his new volume, and the fine reviews. He smiled and said, "We have much to be grateful for." Notwithstanding his humorous remark to Dr. Bird, this new volume, and especially its epilogue—brave as pathetic—indicates a feeling that it would be his last word to the public. He wrote his own epitaph in the last line of the book: "Speed—fight on, fare ever, There as here."

Italy may well mourn. She has lost a constant lover, and one in whose development she may claim a large share. The blue sky bending over us to-day, while more northern regions are snowy and foggy, shines on his finest pages. He once told me, in England, that he missed some of his lyrical fire. Perhaps the sombre sky and sterner aspects of human life to which he had returned had something to do with it. His optimistic muse could not be so confident in London, and had to preach a good deal about the problems of Evil. It was comparatively easy to take the rosy view of Italian affairs, in which he was always deeply interested. He regarded the triumph of Italy as assured, and offended the Mazzinists—who are still irreconcilable—by exclaiming, in a circle of them at my house in London, "Poor Mazzini!" It must have been with a sense of relief that he left the embittered political atmosphere in England for his peaceful retreat in Venice, selected (a Roman paper states to-day) because of the great sorrow associated with Florence. But Florence mourns him, and, although a decree prohibits further burials where his wife lies, it is possible that an exception might be made in his case were it not understood that England will claim his dust for Westminster Abbey.

I enjoyed Robert Browning's friendship during many years, and have many letters from him; but I am far away from my papers at this moment, when I cannot forbear writing about him. When I first knew him, twenty-six years ago, he was living in Delamere Crescent with his father, sister, and son. The father was a notable man. Dante Rossetti always contended that there was something Semitic in Robert Browning's handsome countenance, and the fact that his father had been a clerk of the Rothschilds added plausibility to the supposition. The family were, of old, Congregationalists in creed, but the elder Browning, as I remember, did have a slightly Jewish complexion. It was an old family; the original name, Browning told me, being De Bruni. The old gentleman's brain was a storehouse of literary and philosophical antiquities. He was completely versed in mediæval legend, and seemed to have known Paracelsus, Faustus, and even Talmudic personages personally. He was modest with his learning, a perfect gentleman. Browning in those days petted a white owl, which his son had found somewhere. His memory lingered fondly in Florence. One day he went over with me carefully his wife's Bible, in Hebrew and Greek, containing her marginal notes and retranslations from both languages. "Think of such learning!" he said. He gave me some manuscripts to be sold in America for the benefit of the freedmen. One was the wrapper of some old MSS. on which was written, in his own hand, in Greek, Ἐνικῶμεν ὡς ἐβουλόμεθα. "Yes," he said, "we conquered as we wished." This was long before the honors heaped on him at Oxford (which fairly adopted this son of University College, London) and elsewhere, and, indeed, he was then but little read or admired. He used to talk much of the Hawthornes, who had lived near him in Florence, of Motley, of Margaret Fuller. From her plague-stricken ship poor Margaret had written his wife a letter. "It was so foul and blurred when it reached us that we could make out very little, and burnt it." By Emerson he was charmed. Carlyle was his constant friend, and when the Queen desired Dean Stanley to introduce Carlyle to her, Browning also was invited.

Carlyle loved to talk of Browning. He told me of their first meeting. He was riding on Wimbledon Common, I think, when this "beautiful youth," walking there alone, stopped him and asked for his acquaintance. The marriage of the Brownings was a well-remembered romance in the house at Chelsea. Miss Barrett had sent Carlyle her early poems, in manuscript, and the rhyme-hater at first discouraged her, *suo more;* but when he found that she was hopelessly couch-ridden, and furthermore fairly imprisoned by a tyrannous father, "whose lightest word stood out as a law of the Medes and Persians," he thought it fortunate that she could so beguile her days. Robert Browning received, as it were, his summons to her side in two lines of "Lady Geraldine's Courtship." The lady and her lover culled

"—from Browning some pomegranate which, when
cut deep down the middle,
Showed a heart within blood-tinctured with a veined
humanity."

I have not the poem beside me, and if I misquote, it is not half so badly as Carlyle did, who, I remember, raised Mrs. Carlyle's wrath by saying, "She compared him to a nectarine"! Browning, he said, had as much difficulty in making his way into the house as the knight who found Sleeping Beauty amid her thorns. And the effect was much the same. Elizabeth Barrett had not left her sofa for years, but now rose up, and followed him to Marylebone Church, and then to Florence, and through many years of happiness. He was "beautiful," Carlyle said, and had flowing black hair, although for so many years he has been so blonde.

When William Johnston Fox, M. P., died, it became my duty, as his successor in the ministry of South Place Chapel, to give an address concerning him. I consulted Browning, to whom Mr. Fox had been an early and useful friend. Mr. Fox was editing the *Monthly Repository* when Browning's first poem, 'Pauline,' appeared (1835), and was the first to recognize that a new poet had risen on the horizon. Subsequently, several of the earlier poems appeared in that magazine. Mr. Fox selected some lines from 'Paracelsus' as a South Place anthem:

"I stoop into a dark, tremendous sea of cloud:
it is but for a time: I press God's lamp
Close to my breast: its splendors soon or late
Will pierce the gloom: I shall emerge some day."

The lines were set to music by Eliza Flower, organist at South Place, "who had real genius," said Browning. He had been impressed by the eloquence of Mr. Fox (famed as the Corn-Law orator), and preserved affectionate memories of the memorable sisters of South Place Chapel, Sarah and Eliza Flower—the first of whom wrote, and the latter set to music, the hymn "Nearer, my God, to Thee" (whose heretical origin is so little known). But Browning, friendly as he was to thinkers of all views, had no scepticism in his nature. His picture in 'Christmas Eve' of the philosopher in the wretched conventicle with the vulgar worshippers—the woman with the horrible men next him—choosing, nevertheless, to fix his place there, has much truth in it. He was a pretty faithful attendant at a small and poor chapel, though the congregation were more respectable than that of the poem. He was a close listener and rather critical. On one occasion the minister preached a rather rhetorical sermon on "Nature," and, happening to meet him, Browning said, very pleasantly: "Your sermon might have satisfied me better had you, instead of describing Nature, told us the impression Nature has made upon *you*." The story was told by the minister himself, not by Browning.

Browning's "orthodoxy" brought him into many a combat with his rationalistic friends, some of whom could hardly believe that he took his doctrine seriously. Such was the fact, however; indeed, I have heard that he once stopped near an open-air assembly, which an atheist was haranguing, and, in the freedom of his *incognito*, gave strenuous battle to the opinions uttered. To one who had spoken of an expected "Judgment Day" as a superstition, I heard him say: "I don't see that. Why should there not be a settling day in the universe, as when a master settles with his workmen at end of the week?" There was something in his tone and manner which suggested his dramatic conception of religious ideas and ideals. At times his conversation had to my ear a tinge of the Swedenborgian idea of "Correspondences." In his excellent introduction to the spurious Shelley letters, he speaks of that best-beloved of his poets as representing the "Correspondency" between nature and the divine. But Browning's religion is too large and intricate a theme to be here discussed.

No American who knew Browning can write of him without remembering his cordiality for Americans. He met those who brought him letters of introduction with open arms. He enjoyed many of our writers, admired our ladies, and liked our sparkling Catawba—to which I had the pleasure of introducing him in the old days when Longworth made wine fit for any poet's palate. Not even memories of book-piracy could induce him to abuse America. During our Civil War he expressed to me surprise that the North had not identified its cause more fully with emancipation. It was at a time when abolitionists in America were complaining in the same way. He was much disgusted at Carlyle's diatribe, "Ilias in Nuce," and described it to me as "grinning through a horse-collar." I remember, by the way, asking him at that time whether he had in mind any particular person when he wrote 'The Lost Leader.' He said, "It was an idealized portrait of Wordsworth."

Most of my conversations with him were on walks. It was his custom to take a long walk at about five o'clock every afternoon, and, like Carlyle, he preferred the crowded street to the parks. When I called on him for one walk, he had just been visited by the poet whom he had celebrated as "Waring." After so many years of absence, Waring had returned with a fortune made by sheep-grazing in New Zealand, and bringing an enormous poem. Browning then told me the exact circumstances of the youth's disappearance, and I was astonished to find how little they were embellished in the poem which strikes so many as especially romantic.

I regret that I have not at hand some of the letters which I received from him. One is engraved on my heart. When I came from the fresh grave of a son, I found a letter from Browning, in which he said: "If I, who cannot, would restore your child, He who can, *will*."

MONCURE D. CONWAY.

FLORENCE, December 18, 1889.

MR. BROWNING arrived in Venice with his sister, from Asolo, a day or two after our arrival. The chief object of his visit (which, as I learned from him would be a short one, as he said he had much work to do in London) was that his son might finish a portrait of his aunt begun some time before—a companion portrait to one he had painted of his father.

I was privileged to see much of him during my stay in Venice (the latter part of October and the early part of November), visiting him at the Palazzo Rezzonico, and being visited by him a number of times. He was then engaged in reading the proofs of 'Asolando,' and in other literary work, devoting thereto a number of hours daily. In addition to this, he walked much—generally, he told me, two hours every day—and went frequently in his gondola, with his sister, to the Lido, a favorite resort with him. Though in his seventy-eighth year since last May, he stepped more briskly than most men do in the prime of life, and his look, like that of the poet described in his "How it Strikes a Contemporary," went everywhere. I walked with him one day "where St. Mark's is," and had to accelerate my usual pace, which is not slow, to keep along with him. He called my attention rapidly to this and to that interesting feature of this world-renowned place, and told me much of its strange history.

In the centre of the lofty ceiling of the room occupied by him, in the Palazzo Rezzonico, in which he slept and wrote, and in which he died, is the painting by his son of an eagle struggling with a serpent, illustrative of a passage in Shelley's 'Revolt of Islam.' It is on a canvas about six feet square, but it has the appearance, when looked at from the floor, of a fresco. It was originally designed, as I have understood, to be placed on the ceiling of a room in another palace in Venice which Mr. Browning once thought of buying—did buy, in fact, and pay for; but a difficulty afterwards arose, in regard to the title to the property, and the money was, after some legal action, returned. No more appropriate painting could have been over the poet, in his last days, than this. It is a fitting symbol of his voluminous poetry, in which, from the earliest to the latest, his soaring spirit holds and maintains the mastery over what strives ever to overthrow man in his weakness, as the eagle, in the picture, with beak and talons, holds and maintains the mastery over the struggling serpent.

The Palazzo Rezzonico is one of the most imposing on the Grand Canal, and it is also one of the most beautifully located, being a short distance above where the Canal abruptly turns to the east, at which turn the beautiful Palazzo Foscari is situated (once occupied by the Doge Francesco Foscari). It was built partly in the seventeenth and partly in the eighteenth century, and belongs, therefore, to the more modern of the Venetian palaces. It was once occupied by Cardinal Rezzonico, who succeeded Pope Benedict XIV. as Clement XIII. in 1758. Mr. Barrett Browning has had the frescoes on the walls and ceilings and other decorations restored to their original beauty. The stairways are among the finest in Venice, and the rooms and halls are of grand proportions. The statuary in the halls and elsewhere, and the large and elaborate chandeliers in the ball-room, date back to the earliest occupancy of the palace.

Mr. Browning made his last visit to us at our hotel on the day we left Venice, the 7th, I think, of November. He came between ten and eleven o'clock, and remained until near the time of our leaving for the one o'clock train for Bologna. I never knew him to be more communicative and cheery. He told us much about himself—about Asolo, where he wrote, or prepared for publication, the poems contained in his last volume, 'Asolando,' in the dedication of which, to Mrs. Arthur Bronson, he says: "I unite, you will see, the disconnected poems by a title-name popularly ascribed to the inventiveness of the ancient Secretary of Queen Cornaro, whose palace-tower still overlooks us—Asolare: 'To disport in the open air, amuse one's self at random.' . . . I use it for love of the place, and in requital of your pleasant assurance that an early poem of mine first attracted you thither, where and elsewhere—at La Mura as Cà Alvisi—may all happiness attend you!"

This last little volume was not the last in his mind then, for he talked as if he looked forward to many more years of productive work. My wife remarking that he could not be accused of letting his talents lie idle, he replied:

"It would have been quite unpardonable in my case not to have done my best. My dear father put me in a condition most favorable for the best work I was capable of. When I think of the many authors who have had to fight their way through all sorts of difficulties, I have no reason to be proud of my achievements. My good father sacrificed a fortune to his convictions. He could not bear with slavery, and left India and accepted a humble bank office in London. He secured for me all the ease and comfort that a literary man needs

to do good work. It would have been shameful if I had not done my best to realize his expectations of me."

I give his own words as nearly as I now remember them.

We referred to the historical palace which his son had bought for his home and was beautifying. "Yes," he replied, "it is a grand edifice, the palazzo, but it is not a place *I* should have bought. It is too vast." He expressed the hope that his son would not allow himself to be swallowed up in it. He showed a pride in what his son had done in art—spoke of his daughter-in-law as a happy choice his son had made in marriage—of his long courtship before he secured her affections. My wife remarked that Mrs. Barrett Browning had shown herself to her as quite content with making Venice her permanent home. "Yes," he replied, "when Barrett proposed it to her, she said she would go with him anywhere—to the Fejee Islands, if he liked, and," he added, with a merry twinkle in his eye, "Venice is certainly preferable to the Fejee Islands, isn't it?" He told us much of interesting out-of-the-way places in his beloved Italy, which tourists know nothing about; of what discoveries he used to make in his wanderings; of neglected and unknown pictures, and other works of art, etc.; spoke particularly of his visit to Pisa, with Mrs. Browning, in the early period of their married life; described the house and its situation where they had rooms. "When you pass along there," he added, "you must look up at the house, and think of us."

The talk turned upon Shelley. He showed himself the careful literary man (which many people have not thought him to be) in what he said of the text of Shelley's poetry; mentioned a number of errors (quoting readily, at the time, the passages in which they occurred) which he had pointed out in it when a certain edition was going through the press (I don't remember the edition he alluded to); spoke of Mrs. Shelley as having but very little understanding of her husband's poetry, as was shown in some of her readings and notes; spoke particularly of mispunctuations and other defects in the text of the "Ode to a Skylark." I asked him about the verse in the ode which is sometimes printed, "Like an embodied joy whose race is just begun," and sometimes, "Like an *un*bodied joy." He replied, "Oh, 'an *em*bodied joy,' certainly; 'an *un*bodied joy' is nonsense, in its connection." In his allusions to other poems he showed, by his ready quotations, how intimately he knew his favorite poet.

The talk turned upon Shakspere. He spoke of the strangely limited range of reading which even habitual readers of the dramatist give to the plays. They read, perhaps, "Macbeth" and "Hamlet," "The Merchant of Venice" and "Lear," and "Othello," and "Julius Cæsar," but know nothing about "Timon of Athens," "Troilus and Cressida," "Cymbeline," and other plays. Of "Titus Andronicus," he said he could find nothing of Shakspere in it—the whole play was in utter violation of his spirit and his art. He spoke of talks he had had with his friend James Spedding, the editor and biographer of Lord Bacon — the opinion which Spedding had expressed that the composition of the plays of Shakspere was entirely outside of Bacon's powers, great as those powers were of their kind. If, Spedding said, any doubt could be maintained of the authorship of the Shakspere plays, that Bacon could not have written them was an absolute certainty. He alluded to the complete demolition of Ignatius Donnelly's 'Cryptogram' by the Rev. Dr. Nicholson of Leamington, England—"if, indeed," he added, "it needed demolition."

A servant announcing that the gondola was waiting to take us to the railway station, he arose suddenly from his chair, bade us a cordial good-bye, with a "God bless you both," saying as he hastened off, "Now be sure to come and see me, next May, in London. You'll remember where my little house is, near the Kensington Gardens"—and was gone! We little thought then we should see him no more in this world. HIRAM CORSON.

TENDENCIES IN ENGLISH ART.

LONDON, December 18, 1889.

THOUGH in London the number of picture exhibitions with something worth looking at in each is large at almost all seasons, it is not often that three as interesting as those now to be seen at the Royal Academy, the Fine Art Society's, and the Goupil Gallery, are held at the same time.

As representative of the best side of the English art of to-day, first notice should be given to the exhibition, in one of the rooms of the Fine Art Society, of sketches and studies by Sir Frederick Leighton, Mr. Alma-Tadema, Sir James Linton, and several other prominent English painters. It would be useless here to describe this collection in detail; it includes chalk and crayon studies of the figure and of drapery on white or tinted paper, many of which are quite equal in execution to the work of the same kind of the old men. For one of the strangest facts about English art is, that artists who are not great as painters excel as draughtsmen. Many of these studies are simply masterpieces, and yet every year the large exhibitions testify to the weakness of the men who produced them. Twenty-five or thirty years ago Sir Frederick Leighton, chiefly in his illustrations for Dalziel's Bible, and Sir James Linton, in his work for *Once a Week* and the *Graphic*, showed themselves to be leaders of that school of English draughtsmen whose published drawings have not been approached in more recent times by any Englishman. One can but wonder why they gave up so entirely work in which they were and still are, as these studies prove, masters. Even the black-and-white reproductions of their paintings, the success of which depends almost altogether upon the drawing, are often far more satisfactory than the same pictures when seen in color.

Take, for example, the photogravure by the Berlin Photographic Company of Sir Frederick Leighton's "Captive Andromache"; in it the beauty of the composition, the masterly drawing, the knowledge revealed, strike you at once; yet the painting was one of the most unsuccessful Sir Frederick has ever exhibited. It is almost impossible to explain why this should be so, yet the fact is not to be disputed. Even Mr. Alma-Tadema, in his exquisite little studies for the "Roses of Heliogabalus," which must be counted one of his failures, shows that the shortcomings of this picture were certainly not due to his drawing. The only artist here represented whose work is really weak is Mr. E. Burne-Jones, and the weakness of his draughtsmanship is unfortunately all the more emphasized by contrast with the vigor of the surrounding drawings, while it is unredeemed by evidence of that sincerity of motive and search for beauty which Mr. Coffin (in the *Nation* of October 10, 1889) thinks is expressed in his painting, despite his curious methods. But Burne-Jones is an exception, and the collection of studies is of the utmost interest because it shows wherein lies the real strength of the English art of to-day, weak in only too many other respects.

For the outlook in the future of this art one naturally turns to the two days' exhibition at the Royal Academy, made up of studies, pictures, and statues of students competing for prizes. As this is the year when the gold medal and the travelling studentship are awarded, it is only natural to conclude that the work contributed is the very best of which the students are capable. Perhaps I might as well state at the outset that this latest exhibition is in no way exceptional, but fairly represents the average for the last six or eight years. A collection of work more wholly commonplace one would have to journey far to find. In the paintings of the historical subject—an "Episode of the Deluge"—for which the travelling studentship is the reward, the drawing is bad, the color worse, the perspective weak; but more hopeless than these positive bad qualities is the dreary commonplaceness of conception and execution. Of course, you do not want to find in the work of a pupil the completeness or cleverness of a master, but you do look for some signs that he has thought for himself, that he has some little artistic sense, that he has something to say for which he feels paint is the best medium, and not that he has taken up painting simply because it is a fashionable profession which holds out promise of a golden harvest for the successful.

And no less hopeless is the awarding of the prize: the only picture which shows a faint suggestion of something better has been passed over for one in which there is but a weak reflection of the work of the weakest English imitators of Favretto and De Blaas. And it is the same in the landscape rooms. Among the pictures of "Morning" competing for the Turner prize, two or three, though without decided originality, at least suggest that the painters have endeavored to look and see things for themselves; but the medal has been bestowed upon quite the most trivial composition in the room—a badly drawn barnyard filled with impossible light, and painted in the glaring chromo style so popular with the British public. The studies of figures and heads intended to win a prize would not, with few exceptions, have admitted students to the school of the Beaux-Arts. The cartoons are, if anything, worse, and this is all the more to be wondered at since the Royal Academicians whose marvellous drawings are now at the Fine Art Society's, are supposed to be masters in the Royal Academy schools.

Much has been said at times as to the inefficiency of these schools. That they cannot be compared with those on the Continent, or even in America, is frequently pointed out; and certainly students rarely, if ever, come to them from other countries, while all the leading English artists, in fact the leading Academicians—Sir Frederick Leighton, Alma-Tadema, Herkomer—owe nothing to Royal Academy training. The radical fault may be in the methods of teaching; and, indeed, when it is considered that students in the painting classes are one month under the instruction of Mr. Tadema, the next perhaps under that of Mr. Frith, or Mr. Marcus Stone, or Mr. Horsley, or other men whose style and methods are equally opposed, it is not surprising that the results of their academical studies are so wanting in style and quality. This seems the more likely since, at the exhibition, the only work of students which evinces the least life or character is the sculpture; and the sculptors among Academicians and Associates are few in number, and include such artists as Mr. Onslow Ford, Mr. Alfred Gilbert, and Mr. Hamo

Thornycroft, who have really the opportunity to bring their influence to bear upon students and to make their own strong individuality in their art felt, and the results here are remarkably good.

Of the theories of art that prevail at Burlington House, Sir Frederick Leighton's speech on the evening of the distribution of prizes was an interesting expression. It was one of the long series of which Sir Joshua Reynolds's discourses are still the most notable, and its subject was Spanish art. It was learned and scholarly, as is all the work of Sir Frederick; so much so that, according to the London papers, his audience could not follow him. But if this were so, perhaps it was as well, for as he himself has always sought in his art to carry out what he would call the idealistic traditions of the past, his one objection to the great work of the Spaniards—of the moderns he had not a word to say—was its realistic tendency, though that tendency led to the wonderful portraits of Velasquez and the scarcely less wonderful beggar boys of Murillo. To dwell on idealism to students when in art the terms idealism and realism are after all synonymous, to extol the poetic side of classic myth far above the beauty of intimate daily things, is apt to make them think what they see of too little importance—what they imagine, of too much. If the subject of the cartoon competition had been a female figure draped instead of *Lady Macbeth* in the sleep-walking scene, I doubt if one room at the Academy would have been hung with such abortions.

That which gives the third exhibition in the Goupil Gallery just now special significance is the fact that it shows the work of a set of young Englishmen who care for and paint only what they do see, who rely solely upon their eyes and mistrust the powers of their imagination. Only ten in number, and as yet almost unknown even in England, they call themselves the London Impressionists. Impressionism, in its modern sense, is generally understood to mean the rendering, after long and continuous study, of a transient event or occurrence, which, though it may be repeated frequently, only lasts for a few moments at a time. This is the impressionism of Degas's "Ballet-Girls" and Whistler's "Fireworks," of Cazin and Bosnard, of Jean Béraud, and De Nittis. But as the London Impressionists give their own definition of the term [illegible] it is only right to explain that by it they mean the acceptance of beauty as the sole legitimate aim of a picture, and the going to nature in search of it. For the return to nature has been, as it probably ever will be, the gospel of all artists who have endeavored to infuse new vitality into art, from the days when Cimabue and Giotto broke away from Byzantine tradition, to these latter times when Pre-Raphaelites made a virtue of journeying into the country to get backgrounds for their pictures. But what puzzles the sentimental story-loving British public is, that the London Impressionists believe they find this beauty, not in religion or mediævalism, but, with Mr. Sidney Starr, in a tired shop-girl or on the top of a London omnibus; with Mr. Walter Sickert, in the music-halls; or with Mr. Theodore Roussel and Mr. Paul Maitland, in the public-houses and plumbago works of Chelsea. But, though they prefer what Sir Frederick Leighton calls intimate daily things, these men refuse to be considered realists, since they disclaim any wish to record anything merely because it exists; and, in the academical interpretation of the word, they cannot be called idealists, since they would never be willing to paint that which does not exist.

Fortunately their work has been seen before, chiefly at the New English Art Club Exhibitions, and its honesty and freshness have made it known to all lovers of good work. I say fortunately, because in this show the influence of Claude Monet over all but two or three, most notably over Mr. Wilson P. Steer, is so apparent that though the first article of their creed is, each to paint in his own fashion, they here seem but so many imitators producing work which contains the quality they, in the introduction to the catalogue, call false, arising "from an effort to achieve without sufficient knowledge an execution like that of some one else." Mr. Steer, who, when he chooses to rely upon himself, has a strong individual style of his own, has carried this imitation so far that he has even appropriated Monet's subjects, and one or two of his pictures might be mistaken for landscapes by the Frenchman which hung in this very same gallery last spring. But it is because they are artists keenly alive to all that is strangest and freshest and most expressive, not only in nature but in art, that they have fallen so completely under the spell of Monet, whose influence is spreading over the entire Continent. None of them wholly original in aims or methods, they have at least the no small merit of having freed themselves from academical shackles, and to them in a great measure one looks for whatever hope there may be for the future of English art—to them and to the Newlynites, the little group of earnest workers who have colonized St. Ives and other villages on the Cornwall coast. At the Royal Academy exhibitions nowadays it is to their work, to the pictures of Stanhope Forbes, the two Fishers, Adrian Stokes, or to such men as Mr. Simmons, an American who exhibits here, that one turns rather than to the paintings of Academicians. For the very men who are true to that realism which Sir Frederick Leighton condemns in Spanish artists, and who seek to show the beauty in the world and life of to-day, alone can redeem art from the dulness and commonplaceness into which it is fast sinking, or rather has already sunk, in England.

N. N.

Correspondence.

TARIFF REFORM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The *Evening Post* of January 3 begins an editorial as follows: "Hearings on the tariff by the Committee of Ways and Means are usually monopolized by persons who want greater facilities for plucking the community. Every interest is presented except the public interest."

This seems to be put forward as a statement of fact and a sort of reproach towards somebody's negligence, whereas it is really an epitome of the way in which our whole Government is carried on, and of the whole tariff difficulty. We should never lose sight of this fact, that the public interest—that is, the nation—is absolutely unrepresented in Congress. There is no man in either house who can officially lift up his voice on behalf of the public. Every one represents a locality, either a State or a district, and if he takes upon himself to defend the public interest as against other localities, he is regarded by his fellows with contemptuous jealousy and as guilty of impertinence. At the same time he will get no thanks from the public, because all work is done secretly in the committees, and the public never see it at all. The little finger of his fellow-members is thicker than the loins of the public. We must remember, again, that the Speaker is elected by a party combination of localities—indeed, the party itself being made up in the same way; and the Speaker does and must pay his political debts by making up the committees from local representatives who have supported him. Is not the way fully prepared for the state of things described by the *Evening Post*?

Now approach the matter from the other end. Of course all private interests belong to localities. The capital they have embarked is so large that no money and no efforts are too great for them to expend to control legislation; and they find a state of things in Congress exactly suited to meet their wants. What chance has the public interest in such a struggle? The public cannot combine in any such way, cannot raise adequate funds or machinery; or, if they could, it would be of no avail against an organization so completely adverse.

The tariff leagues are trying to agitate public opinion by writings and speeches. It seems to me much like marching a large army towards Canada to resist an invasion from the line of Mexico. We have been pleading for ten years and more for free wool, and are apparently no nearer than at the beginning. How many centuries will it take to reform the whole tariff in this way?

I will quote here the closing sentence of an article in the *Nation* of January 2, which intensifies in the strongest manner what I have said: "In the presence of such a peril, the friends of lower tariff taxes will need to do something more effective than debate the relative advantages of internal and external taxes respectively, or discuss the relative orthodoxy of Mills or Randall."

What that something is or should be, is perfectly simple and clear. It is to set up, in the person of the Secretary of the Treasury, a representative of the public or national interest, and let him defend that side of the question in open debate on the floor of Congress; to take the whole business out of the secrecy of the committee-rooms, where negotiations are carried on between two sets of local and private interests, and transfer it to the open session of Congress, where the lobby will not have so complete a monopoly of the field; to place every member before the eyes of his constituents and the country in his attitude towards the national side of the question, and give him a chance to win reputation by defending it, and to give the public an opportunity to follow the development of the subject and its real bearing on the national welfare. G. B.

Boston, January 4, 1890.

FROM AN UNEXPECTED SOURCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Were you a resident of Philadelphia, you would of late have found much serio-comic encouragement for the cause of civil-service reform. Without going into the merits of the controversy, which, perhaps, has no merits, and does not concern you, it may be explained that one of our medical colleges, that had long been in undisputed control of the Philadelphia almshouse and hospital, suddenly awoke to a knowledge of the fact that members of other colleges had, by official action, been given a minority representation upon the medical staff of the institution. To a fair-minded and unprejudiced observer this would seem to have been a just and simple bit of equity and consideration. Not so to the friends of the bereaved. Immediately there arose such a chorus of moans and groans that one would have supposed the most

hideous of crimes had been committed. Almost every paper has sent up such a continuous daily wail at the desecration of civil-service principles that it would have melted the heart of almost any Mayor except our own. It has been chanted and reëchoed that no private business could be carried on under such ruthless changes of management, and that his Honor had previously declared the almshouse to have been excellently managed, etc., etc.

This brings me to the point I started out to explain. Not a single leader-writer seems to have suspected the hollowness of his groans at civil-service destruction. It is still clear in the minds of us all that a certain one of our shopkeepers was last year commissioned to inquire into the criticised administration of the Philadelphia Post-office. He proclaimed that said office, under Mr. Harrity, had been exceptionally well managed, and that all criticism was without justification or warrant. In the topsy-turvy of political life the shopkeeper became Postmaster-General, and proceeded to turn Mr. Harrity out before his term of service had expired, in order to give the position to his political and personal friend. Did these high-minded journals and conscientious guides of public opinion whisper a word of blame for this reckless smashing of civil-service ideals? Perhaps the shopkeeper's $10,000 advertisement-writer might answer the question. But if a good cause is honored in the false worship of its hypocrites, one may still take courage from the wailings and gnashings that daily reach our ears from every editorial sanctum of our solemn town at the few physicians who humbly ask gratuitously to care for the sick poor. DEMOCRITUS.

PRESIDENTIAL ELECTORS ON THE AUSTRALIAN BALLOT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In referring to the possible objections to the ballot law now in use in this State and proposed in New York, the daily papers often mention the difficulty a voter would have in choosing, among the names of the Presidential Electors, the right number, and those of the party to which he belongs.

It does not seem to be generally known that the Massachusetts law provides a different arrangement of these names. Section 10 of the act (chapter 413, acts of 1889) provides: "The names of candidates for each office shall be arranged under the designation of the office in alphabetical order, according to surnames, except that the names of candidates for the offices of Electors of President and Vice-President shall be arranged in groups, as presented in the several certificates of nomination or nomination papers. . . ." This makes it easy to mark all the names of any one party without in any sense interfering with the spirit of the law. W. S. A.

BOSTON, January 4, 1890.

TEACHING IN THE COLLEGES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A few days ago I heard a group of college men, about ten years out, discussing the recent letter in the *Nation* on the subject of teaching in the colleges. They represented four colleges, three in New England and one in the South. All agreed that they had been better taught in secondary schools than in their colleges. Whether there be any general judgment to this effect I do not know.

Without doubt the teaching in secondary schools is stimulated by the competition into which their pupils must enter in going up for entrance examinations. Unless human nature be of a higher quality among college professors than among schoolmasters, a plan which would subject the work of the former to some immediate test of comparison would assuredly cause an improvement in their teaching.

If, for example, in a single State, or in a group of States intimately connected by geographical and other ties, there were a general examining board, composed of representative teachers and other capable men, which alone should have the power of conferring degrees, to which all candidates for degrees in the various colleges must apply, a healthy competition among the colleges would be created. Such a plan would have the additional advantage of giving a more definite value to the academic degrees. Good colleges, for their own protection against a debasement of standard, ought to coöperate in such a system, and if they should do so, colleges refusing to join the confederation would decline in reputation. J.

ST. LOUIS, December 28, 1889.

Notes.

SCRIBNER & WELFORD will publish in this country a volume containing three poems of Tennyson's, "To E. L.," "The Daisy," and "The Palace of Art," illustrated by twenty-two drawings by the late Edward Lear, Lear's portrait, and Watts's portrait of Tennyson. The reproductions are in photogravure, and each of the hundred copies printed for England and America will be signed by the poet.

Prof. Archibald Alexander's 'Theory of Conduct' and Dr. McCosh's 'Religious Aspect of Evolution' will be published this month by Charles Scribner's Sons.

Harper & Bros. will shortly publish Stanley's letters telling the story of the rescue of Emin Bey, with illustrations and route-map—a forerunner of the grand narrative which will be eagerly awaited.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are on the eve of putting forth 'The Diary of William Pynchon, of Salem,' a lawyer of the last century, edited by F. E. Oliver; 'The Bible and Modern Discoveries,' by the Rev. Henry A. Harper, an officer of the Palestine Exploration Fund; and a 'History of the Old South,' by Hamilton A. Hill. This house makes the important announcement of an exhaustive and authoritative work in preparation by Justin Winsor on 'Christopher Columbus,' being an examination of the historical and geographical conditions under which the Western Continent was disclosed to Europe, together with an inquiry into Columbus's personal history.

P. Blakiston, Son & Co., Philadelphia, have nearly ready a new illustrated book on 'Massage and the Swedish Movements,' by Kurre W. Ostrom. Apropos of this, we may mention the appearance on our table of a translation into Swedish of the article "Massage" in the 'Reference Handbook of the Medical Sciences' (Wm. Wood & Co., 1887). The author of the article is Dr. Douglas Graham of the Massachusetts Medical Society, and the translator who boldly carries coals to Newcastle, Nils Posse. The pamphlet is published in Lund, Sweden, by C. W. K. Gleerup; in Boston, by Carl Schoenhof.

Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati, publish directly 'Fort Ancient,' the great prehistoric earthwork of Warren County, Ohio, by Warren K. Moorhead of the Smithsonian Institution; and a 'History of the Girtys: A Life Record of Three Renegades of the Revolution,' by C. W. Butterfield.

An English edition of Mr. David A. Wells's 'Economic Changes' is to be brought out by the Messrs. Longman.

The late Prof. W. F. Allen had nearly completed, at the time of his sudden death, an edition of the first six books of the 'Annals' of Tacitus, which he was preparing for the "College Series of Latin Authors." The whole work, with the exception of the indexes, was in type, and his revision of the proofs, though incomplete, has left little for the editors of the series to supply. The book, it is hoped, may be published in a few weeks by Ginn & Co., Boston. Prof. Allen was admirably qualified, by his sound historical scholarship and his intimate acquaintance with Roman political institutions, for editing Tacitus. His view of the character of Tiberius, of which he had made a special study, deserves and will command attention.

The British Record Society has recently been formed to continue the work of the Index Library, which, during the last two years, has published several indexes to English records of peculiar value to genealogists, among them being indexes to Northamptonshire and Rutland wills, Lichfield wills, Berkshire wills, chancery proceedings, royalist composition papers, etc. The Society will commence work with the new year, and has issued an attractive programme, which includes Derbyshire and Gloucestershire records, besides an important new calendar to Sussex wills. The Society is supported by the Bishop of Oxford, Sir James Hannen, the President of the English Probate Court, and a strong committee of publication. The annual subscription is one guinea. Intending members in America can communicate with either of the local secretaries, Mr. W. H. Whitmore, P. O. Box 3478, Boston, Mass., or Mr. R. A. Brock, Richmond, Va. The English secretary is Mr. W. P. W. Phillimore, 124 Chancery Lane, London.

An effort is making to obtain more subscribers to the proposed Oriental Translation Fund II., and Mr. H. H. Howorth, Prof. T. W. Rhys-Davids, and F. F. Arbuthnot have been appointed a committee to that end, as well as to prepare a list of texts and translations in readiness for the starting of the Society. The annual subscription fee is £1, and adhesions may be addressed to Mr. Arbuthnot, at 18 Park Lane, Piccadilly, London.

The *Green Bag* concluded with the last year its first volume, which, bound up, makes an uncommonly handsome appearance (Boston Book Co.). It has justified its sub title as "a useless but entertaining magazine for lawyers" only in the case of the second epithet, for the profession must take a real interest in the accounts of the several law schools of the country, and in the lives of distinguished jurists, which have been among the prominent features of the year's editing. The portraits alone are enough to give a permanent worth to the volume, and we would suggest a special indexing of these and the other illustrations hereafter. Chief-Justice Fuller, Lord Chief-Justice Cockburn, Judge Lemuel Shaw, Jeremiah Mason, Rufus Choate, Sidney Bartlett, Judah P. Benjamin, are some of the most notable full-page plates; while the past glories as well as the present corps of instructors of the law schools are frequently portrayed in the text—*e. g.*, Joseph Story and John Norton Pomeroy. The monthly bill of fare has included, for the dessert, the retelling of a *cause célèbre*.

Volumes v. and vi. of *Scribner's Magazine* recall a goodly quantity of entertainment and instruction during the past year. The railway articles had not ceased, preparatory to their reappearance in a volume by themselves, be-

fore the electrical series began. The chief serial in fiction has been Stevenson's "Master of Ballantrae." Our readers will also remember Prof. Trowbridge's original paper on photography; Mr. Eugene Schuyler's on Tolstoi; Mr. Prout's on Emin Bey's whereabouts, since only too sharply defined; and Mr. Henry Drummond's on the great scourge of the African slave trade.

The lapse of twenty years has brought us so much nearer to a Columbian centenary that Mr. B. F. De Costa has thought it timely to put out a second edition of his 'Pre-Columbian Discovery of America by the Northmen, with Translations from the Icelandic Sagas' (Albany: Joel Munsell's Sons). It was, in its original conception and execution, a useful work, and it has been considerably enlarged in the editorial portion, as was inevitable in view of the discussions and discoveries of the past two decades. We miss, in the note on the old mill at Newport, a reference to what has been printed in the *American Architect* on the subject, and Prof. Horsford may feel aggrieved that his partisanship on behalf of the Northmen goes unrecognized by Mr. De Costa, who, by the way, identifies Norumbega with Nova Scotia. Our author stands by Leif Ericson as an historical personage and pre-Columbian voyager to New England, and approves of his Boston statue; and he is entirely in disaccord with Mr. Winsor, who holds that "there is not a single item of all the evidence" that attests archæologically the presence of the Northmen south of Davis's Straits. With regard to this critic, we think Mr. De Costa quite too formal and remote in only alluding to him in a footnote, and revealing him in the index.

A. C. McClurg & Co. add two pretty volumes to their series of "Laurel Crowned Tales" in reprinting Johnson's 'Rasselas' and Laboulaye's 'Abdullah, or the Four-Leaved Clover'—the latter in Miss Booth's translation, by arrangement with the Messrs. Harper.

A contemporary document of some interest and novelty is the 'Story of the Dockers' Strike,' by H. Llewellyn Smith and Vaughan Nash (London: T. Fisher Unwin). Sidney Buxton, M.P., who furnishes the introduction, regards the late strikes in the East London docks as having given an enormous impetus to the extension of old and the formation of new trades-unions. This he calls "perhaps the most important and satisfactory resultant," as tending to prevent strikes and lock-outs.

Why certain diseases, such as smallpox, measles, scarlet and typhoid fevers, generally grouped as zymotic, so seldom attack the same person the second time has never been satisfactorily explained. The procedures now collectively known as vaccinations, after the Jennerian operation, affording immunity against smallpox and rabies in man, and against anthrax and chicken cholera in the lower animals, are equally inexplicable. The most generally received explanation for both the natural and the artificial conditions has been that the disease-cause is a ferment, and that, once introduced, it exhausts the material within the system; hence there is no succeeding disease. Mr. Eusebio Güell Bacigalupi, a Spaniard, has proposed a novel explanation, which reaches us in an English translation, by Dr. R. F. Rafael, from the second French edition, of 'Immunity through Leucomaïnes' (J. H. Vail & Co.). Starting with the fact that the excreta of all organisms are poisonous to the excreting body, he assumes that the infecting bacteria die, not from starvation by using up their pabulum, but by being poisoned by the outcome of their own existence. To these products of elimination through the vital functions of micro-organisms the author applies the name leucomaïnes, first used by Wurtz to cover both the organic bases of putrefaction and those produced by living animal tissues. And he believes that it is the accidental introduction of these leucomaïnes, not the presence of the attenuated microbes, that gives immunity. The hypothesis is ingenious, and has elements of probability, but as yet it has not been demonstrated clinically nor in the laboratory.

The infinitesimal plants that we are beginning to know as bacteria have found a genial historian in Dr. T. M. Prudden, whose 'Story of the Bacteria' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) opens to the ordinary reader a fair insight into an underworld more wonderful than any fairy realm. Out of its invisible depths have been drawn, so lately that they still are curiosities, the evil agencies that cause various dire diseases, and this little volume explains, in plain and acceptable speech, how these germs are cultivated for study, how they probably work their mischief, and some reasons why we are not all daily victims to their ubiquity. When the author asserts (p. 91) that "to-day we know that Asiatic cholera is caused by a little curved bacillus," he is probably in advance of the fact. One German school does so teach, but equally qualified observers are not sure which is cause and which is effect. But his statements in all other respects seem to be up to the last advance, and his comments on such practical subjects as consumption, bacteria-laden ice, and the impurities of water are worthy of careful reading. This is a scientific book, not written down to popular taste, but popularly written and well worth a popular reception—despite an occasional lapse of style, as where (p. 5) the amœba "crawls off on its own hook"; "hook" being a figure of speech and not a microscopic attachment.

In the September number of the *American Journal of Archæology*, the American School of Classical Studies at Athens furnishes the two leading papers, viz., on the excavations at the theatre of Sikyon, and on the discoveries in the Attic deme of Ikaria. The plates of the first named include a photograph of the mutilated colored statue of a youth.

To the number of the *Revue Illustrée* for December 15, M. Coquelin contributes a paper on "L'Art du Comédien," which has already been read in English in an American magazine. In the French review will be found all the drawings made for *Harper's* by M. Duez, and many more by M. Vibert, M. Madrazo, M. Friant, and Mme. Madeleine Lemaire. There are in all thirteen portraits of M. Coquelin in different characters and twenty-one of other actors. We may note that the portrait of Mr. Irving really represents him as *Vanderdecken*, and not (as its legend declares) as *Hamlet*.

The *Bulletin* of the French Geographical Society contains an account of the Structure and Origin of the Banks of Newfoundland, by T. Thoulet. It is accompanied by a chart and several bathymetrical and geological maps, constructed from French Government surveys made in 1886. The other papers are on the Khmer ruins in Cambodia, and the first exploration of the valley of the Ogoway on the west coast of Africa, made in 1862 by M. Serval and Lieut. du Bellay. The gold medallist of the Society for 1889 was Lieut. Caron, who explored in a steamer the upper Niger from its headwaters to Timbuktu.

At a recent meeting of the Royal Meteorological Society, an interesting paper was read by Mr. Marriott, discussing the distribution of days in which thunder-storms occurred throughout England and Wales, from 1871 to 1887. The years of greatest frequency were 1880, 1882, 1884, and 1872. Those of least frequency were 1887, 1874, 1879, and 1871. The average yearly number of thunder-storms is about 39. The south of England and the extreme northern counties are most frequently visited by these storms, and Cheshire, Lancashire, and Yorkshire the most seldom. July is the month in which the greatest number occur, and the least in February and December.

In 1890 will occur an annular eclipse of the sun, June 16–17, in which the central line passes through northwest Africa and southern Asia; a partial eclipse of the moon, November 25–26; and a total eclipse of the sun December 11, in which the central line lies wholly in the Antarctic Ocean. A partial eclipse will be visible in Australia and New Zealand.

During 1890, too, several comets of short period will return to the sun. Among these is Brorsen's comet, the period of which is so nearly five years and a half that the perihelia fall alternately in the spring and autumn. When the return takes place in the spring, the conditions for observing are more favorable, and, as the perihelia may fall in February, 1890, good observations are hoped for, more especially as this comet was missed at its last return in 1884. Its orbit approaches very closely that of Jupiter; and at intervals of ninety-five years the comet encounters the planet, making a decided change in the orbit. The last time this approach occurred was in 1842. Before that time the comet's motion had been hyperbolic, but was then changed to the elliptical form in which it now moves. This proximity will again take place in 1937, when the comet will probably resume its former curve and become lost in space. Denning's comet, D'Arrest's comet (which also was not seen on its last return), and Barnard's comet, of whose orbit further discussion is much needed, will likewise return to perihelion.

A copy, in twenty-one volumes, of the collection of the engravings of Roman antiquities by the eminent engraver of the last century, Piranesi, comprising 1,501 subjects from the Roman ruins, sculpture (antique), and paintings of the great Italian masters, is offered to the public. It was the presentation copy to Gregory XVI. As there is not probably in existence another such copy, and the impressions are all in first-rate condition or proofs, it is worth the notice of some of our great libraries. It belongs to Dr. J. G. Van Marter, Rome.

—The most noteworthy article in *Harper's* is a pleasantly written paper upon American Art. It begins with a sketch of the life of Thomas Cole, and describes with some detail the home of this artist on the Hudson, his manner of work, and the life of the students under him or in the neighborhood. The same locality later became the haunt of the American Pre-Raphaelites, and with a notice of them the paper concludes. The larger part of the number is occupied with foreign topics and fiction. The Russian Army is elaborately described, and the narrative lighted up and made more interesting by a number of anecdotes of the conduct of the soldiers upon the march or in battle. Jamaica is the subject of an artist-travel paper, well illustrated with sketches, by Howard Pyle. The Smyrna Fig Harvest and St. Andrew's University are next treated of, with several striking cuts. Nothing else calls for mention, unless it be a paper upon horseback riding by women, which is devoted to advice upon all points connected with the subject.

—The *Atlantic* begins the new year with Mrs. Deland's new novel, "Sidney," making the third striking serial now running in this

magazine, and giving, with Miss Jewett's excellent short story, a full allowance of good fiction. The miscellaneous papers are of inferior interest; one upon the Pension Office is valuable for its statistical views, and one upon John Dickinson revives a notable Revolutionary reputation. The longest is upon Milton's obligation to Avitus, and is somewhat rambling and spun out. It is no new thing to learn that 'Paradise Lost' was written by some other and much more obscure person than the great Puritan, but when brought to book the evidence is not convincing to those who are familiar with the common material of literature, and the normal amount of coincidence to be found in all great writers treating the same theme. It appears that Avitus had been used by other precursors of Milton, and had helped to shape the legend of Paradise in its extra-Biblical form. It seems probable that Milton knew the poem, but it is by no means certain from any proof here given. The coincidences are certainly too slight to sustain a case of real obligation, and, in fact, the parallelism between Avitus and Milton seems to lie most often in their common indebtedness to the classics. Dr. Holmes returns to his serial, "Over the Tea-Cups," which was broken off some months ago, and discourses, in his accustomed vein of pleasant reminiscence, upon old age; at the end he gives a new poem.

—The *Century*, like the other magazines, requires but brief mention. The leading article, by Miss Edwards, introduces us to the find at Bubastis, and is most valuable for its cuts, in which we see the sculpture for the first time. Mr. Jefferson continues his autobiography with much detail in regard to the old theatres and the life in them. Daumier, the caricaturist, is the subject of a sketch which is made the occasion for reproducing several bits of his characteristic work. The Lincoln biography rehearses the familiar story of the death of Lincoln. The two semi-religious papers are upon the Family and the Gradual Nature of Revelation, and both of them contain valuable suggestions in a temperate form. James Bryce, a portrait of whom opens the number, is made the subject of a biographical sketch, in which his political life is but scantily treated, but his literary and scholastic achievements are justly characterized.

—The last number of the *Zeitschrift für Biologie* contains Sophie Handler's paper giving an account of her investigation of the reduction of the oxygen of the blood on its passage through the heart. She establishes the fact that it is not the work done by the heart, but simply the number of beats, irrespective of the resistance to be overcome, that determines the amount of oxygen used up. This result, which seems strange at first, becomes very natural when it is remembered that in each contraction of a muscle certain chemical changes first set free a definite amount of force (dependent only upon the condition of nutrition of the muscle), and if this is not all used up in performing the contraction, it can only be wasted—there is no possible means of recovering it or of storing it up. The experiments which show this were exhibited (on the heart of the turtle) before a meeting of the Scientific Society at Berlin a few years ago. The discussion applies, of course, only to those muscles which work automatically.

—We hear on good authority that Trübner & Co. have in hand and will soon publish an English translation of Prof. Leopold von Schroeder's 'Indiens Literatur und Cultur in historischer Entwicklung.' This book appeared first at Leipzig in 1887, and is perhaps the very best history of Sanskrit literature that has been written. It is full and accurate, and, moreover, very interesting, being in this regard in marked contrast to the dull and heavy work of Weber on the same subject. The book was reviewed and highly praised by Oldenberg in the *Deutsche Rundschau* in September of the year 1888. As Prof. von Schroeder is possibly less known in America than some of his fellow-Sanskritists, it may be worth while to say that he holds the chair of Sanskrit in the University of Dorpat, and is the author of several books. More or less outside of his own special line of study, he has written upon Esthonian customs, upon Buddhism, and upon philological questions. The first part of his book 'Griechische Götter und Heroen' is a really good discussion of the possible derivation of the name "Aphrodite" from the name of an older deity, from which also some minor Sanskrit divine beings take their names. This treatise was highly praised by Kuno Meyer, who has himself done work of the same sort.

— The recent convention of the Modern Language Association was, even aside from Mr. Lowell's address elsewhere spoken of, a highly interesting and helpful meeting. About eighty scholars and teachers were in attendance, the most of them naturally from New England and New York, though the Western and Southern States were also thinly represented. The proceedings were indicative of the fact that a growing number of well-trained young scholars are devoting themselves to high-class work in modern philology. Of the papers read upon the first day, in accordance with the programme already printed in these columns, that of Prof. Francke of Harvard, upon "A Forerunner of Bunyan in the Twelfth Century," probably excited the most general interest. It was followed by an animated discussion relative to didactic poetry and fiction. The introduction to Dr. Primer's paper upon the English of Fredericksburg, Va., and its vicinity, seemed to promise an interesting account of local survivals from a remote past; in reality, however, the paper showed rather how thoroughly the various levelling influences that are all the time at work upon American pronunciation have done their work. There proved to be but very few of Dr. Primer's Virginia localisms which were not entirely familiar to members of the convention from other parts of the country.

—On the second day it was thought best to combine the general session with the phonetic and pedagogical sections. Mr. Melville Bell, President of the Phonetic Section, delivered an address upon the importance of phonetic science —a matter which, we should say, philologists of the present epoch are in no imminent danger of forgetting. An excellent paper was read by Prof. Grandgent of Boston, describing a method of vowel-measurement which, if experience proves it generally practicable, will do much to free that subject from the uncertainties resulting from individual peculiarity and doubtful nomenclature. In the Pedagogical Section Prof. Joynes of South Carolina read a suggestive paper, of which the general thesis was that college students should be required to read very much more French and German than they now read, to the end that they may learn to love such reading and so may keep it up after they leave college. We fear the proposed remedy is inadequate. The mass of college graduates do not keep up the reading of good *English* literature, though the language is familiar to them.

VON HOLST'S HISTORY.

The Constitutional and Political History of the United States. By Dr. H. von Holst, Professor at the University of Freiburg. Translated from the German by John J. Lalor. 1856–1859: Buchanan's Election—End of Thirty-fifth Congress. Chicago: Callaghan & Co. 8vo, pp. 352.

Dr. von Holst's sixth volume covers only a little more than two years, but they are years that count for a great deal in the political history of the country. They include the last session of the Thirty-fourth Congress and the whole of the Thirty-fifth: the end of Pierce's Administration and the first half of Buchanan's. In these three sessions of Congress came the full development of Douglas's doctrine of "squatter sovereignty" and its consequences; the insane effort of the Administration party to force the Lecompton Constitution upon Kansas; the Dred Scott decision of the Supreme Court; the rise of Lincoln as a political leader through the Lincoln-Douglas debate; the split in the Democratic party by reason of the refusal of Douglas and his followers to accept the iniquity of forcing slavery into Kansas by means of the Lecompton Constitution and without submitting it to a popular vote.

Those of us whose memory goes back to the Kansas struggle may find the author's treatment of these topics calmer and more judicial than we expected; for it is hard to keep down the hot indignation which everybody but the partisans of slavery extension then felt against all who did not openly denounce and oppose the audacious wrong. The blood tingles again, even at the historical recital. Von Holst's treatment of these chapters will doubtless seem vigorous enough to men of the younger generation and to European readers; though he makes liberal allowance for the honesty of prominent actors, when it is possible to do so, by giving fullest consideration to their education, habits of thought, and partisan zeal.

The volume opens with the victory of the Democratic party in the election of Buchanan, though he received only a minority of the actual vote cast. The success had been won upon the specious platform of popular sovereignty, in which the repudiation of the Missouri Compromise had been sugared over with the pledge that the people of the Territory should themselves decide whether it should be a free or a slave State. If the game had been fairly played, it is quite possible that Douglas's doctrine might have been accepted by a majority even of the Northern States. The faith in the superior vigor of free-State communities and in their better adaptation for planting new colonies, made many men willing to trust to a free competition for the new Territories if the balance were steadily held by the national Government, and immigrant slave-holders would honestly abide by the risk that their slaves would be freed if a majority of the settlers in any Territory should choose a free-State constitution on its admission as a State. The ultimate result would not have been changed, for we can now see that slavery was inevitably doomed, because it was contrary to the progress of the age and essentially hostile to modern civilization. There was, however, plausible reasoning in the contention of the more liberal Douglas men that the teeming free communities of the North might swallow the wrong of the repudiation of the Missouri Compromise, might accept the competition in the creation of new States, and beat the slave-power at its own game. To this extent there was worldly wisdom in the squatter-sovereignty doctrine, as it tended to make the more

timid and conservative classes at the North acquiesce in the Southern aggression, in the faith that time would bring things even.

Leading politicians of the South themselves began to fear that Douglas's doctrine would prove a gift of the Greeks. Looking about for the means of making their victory fruitful, the Dred Scott case in the Supreme Court was utilized for the purpose of bringing the weight of that great tribunal to bear upon the political question. If the reverence for its decisions which was so nearly universal among the people, could be made to reinforce all the other influences which checked the growing anti-slavery sentiment of the North, new and strong vantage ground would be gained. Especially would this be so if, besides justifying the repeal of the Missouri Compromise on the ground that it had been unconstitutional, the Court should take the further step of declaring that the fundamental law secured the right of property in slaves to every slave-holding immigrant who entered the Territories not yet admitted as States. This was exactly what was done.

Von Holst's handling of this part of the subject is both judicial and strong. He recognizes the fact that judges are determined by the same mental and moral forces as other men. Their early associations, their education, their political predilections, their standards of right and wrong, are not changed when they are appointed to the bench, and they must needs view all questions through the medium thus created. It was neither strange, nor in itself morally reprehensible, that the convictions of a lifetime in regard to such a matter as that of asserted property in slaves, should show themselves in the judicial opinions of the eminent lawyers who formed the Court, if questions involving those convictions were fairly before the Court. Because the common sense of the people clearly recognizes this fact, it is often more logical than the perfunctory advocates of judicial independence, in drawing the conclusion that the Court, even of last resort, may be overruled by a settled popular judgment, and the Court may rightfully be brought into harmony with the spirit of the age by changes in its *personnel* as vacancies occur. This also is what was ultimately done in the Supreme Court on the question of slavery.

The author very clearly points out the broad difference between a popular acquiescence in the judgment in a case and acquiescence in the doctrines of the judgment. Buchanan was quite right in expecting the people of the United States to acquiesce in what the Court should do with Dred Scott. He was quite as plainly wrong in expecting them to acquiesce in the contradictions of history and extravagances of sophism on which the judgment was based. They would enforce the judgment, but they would reform the Court. This became at once a proper political issue because the decision was a political one.

The cumulation of historical evidence enables Von Holst to assert with positiveness that the Supreme Court had agreed upon the decision of the Dred Scott case on grounds of jurisdiction alone, and had appointed Justice Nelson to deliver the opinion, the same which he subsequently gave as his dissenting opinion. By remanding the case to the Circuit Court, to be dismissed there for lack of jurisdiction, the suit would be disposed of and Scott would be left where the judgment of the State court had placed him—a slave. This would have left untouched the political questions of the constitutional protection to slave property in the Territories and the power of Congress to exclude it. In this juncture Justice Wayne moved that the scope of the decision be reconsidered, and that the Court pass upon the political questions which were agitating the country. He has left it clear that he did this for political effect, to settle, as he vainly hoped the Court's decision would settle, the public ferment on the Territorial question. The determination of the Court to do this made mere *obiter dicta* of the only important things in their opinions. They attacked questions which they had before agreed were outside of the case, for a political effect, and only more fiercely embroiled the strife they had hoped to allay.

Von Holst also very neatly points out the sophism of their plea that it was the custom of the court at times to decide all questions argued in a case, for the guidance of the court below. This cannot apply to the case of Dred Scott, for if it were dismissed for lack of jurisdiction, the Circuit Court *could* have no further need of guidance in regard to it. To say that the points thus decided were to guide the courts in *future* cases would be the plainest confession that the decision was *obiter*—an academic political address in the guise of a judicial opinion.

The curiously inconsistent attitude of Buchanan in regard to submitting the Lecompton Constitution to the popular vote is brought out with equal certainty of touch. Both personally and through Cass as Secretary of State, the President had assured Gov. Walker that he would be sustained in insisting that that Constitution should not be imposed upon the Kansas people except by their consent freely given by a popular vote upon it. Buchanan had himself written Walker, "On the question of submitting the Constitution to the bona-fide resident settlers of Kansas I am willing to stand or fall." Two things became notorious: first, that the Lecompton Constitution was framed by a convention elected by invaders of the Territory, most of whom never had or pretended to have a residence in it; and, second, that the "bona-fide resident settlers" would surely vote it down with practical unanimity if it were submitted to a direct and fair vote.

Southern politicians (not without protest from fair men among themselves) now insisted that Kansas should be immediately admitted as a State under this pro-slavery instrument. The President surrendered and joined his power and influence to theirs, while the Mississippian Walker threw up his Governorship in disgust, rather than be party to so dishonorable a breach of faith. Then came the election of a new Legislature, demonstrating the overwhelming majority of the free-State men. The lower house of Congress began to show the influence of growing indignation in the free States, and an admission without any pretence of a popular vote was defeated. The subterfuge known as the English bill was adopted, and a bribe of a large land grant was offered to the Territory if it would organize under the hated Constitution. Kansas rejected the proposal by a vote of over 11,000 against 1,700. The battle was won for freedom, though the people were yet for a time remanded to the condition of a Territory.

The author does not neglect the subordinate questions of the time, but devotes a chapter to the economic crisis of 1857, the Mormon question, and the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. Throughout the whole he keeps fully alive the feeling with which his readers have followed him through each successive volume. Our wonder grows that a foreigner, whose visits to the country have been not greatly prolonged, could so well master not only the philosophy of our Government and the broader characteristics of the struggle over slavery which has been the great constitutional question of our history, but also the subtler shades of character, and the limitless mass of facts, the study of all of which is necessary to a comprehension of our national development. The book is sure to remain an eminent authority in general history.

Believing this of it, one is forced to add that it is a great pity the translation is not more satisfactory. Such a book deserves to be rendered into lucid and idiomatic English. The American reader ought never to be made to pause a moment in doubt of the author's meaning. His thoughts may give reason for hours of profitable pondering, but the words should be no hindrance to fullest understanding of the thought. Instead of this, the translation is mechanical and careless. Long sentences which, in the German, may rightly develop the meaning through numerous modifying clauses, are rendered into strange complications of part and of phrase abhorrent to every good English standard. Errors in idiom abound, and it is a duty to say that hardly a page is free from glaring faults. To make the book really useful to ordinary readers, or at all satisfactory to any, a thorough revision of the translation is, from a literary point of view, a necessity.

MRS. STOWE.

Life of Harriet Beecher Stowe. Compiled from her letters and journals by her son, Charles Edward Stowe. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889.

THIS is a subscription book, and while its externals generally are of much better quality and in much better taste than those of most books of its class, it has, in common with these, the generous margins and expansive letter-press which make a little much. The contents of this bulky octavo of 530 pages could easily have been compressed into a duodecimo of as many or fewer pages, and so have been a much more convenient book to read and much more likely to be read by many who would appreciate it most heartily—poor people who read 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' with great joy and pain, and some for whom it was preëminently written. But this is not the final life of Mrs. Stowe. There is as much room as ever for a brief popular life of her, and the "American Men of Letters" series, which has already taken in one noble woman, will certainly, some day, find Mrs. Stowe a place, if only for that critical estimate of her writings of which there is here nothing from the biographer and only a very little in the letters of her friends.

Mrs. Stowe has been an invalid for many years, but from her introduction, which is given in facsimile, it is evident that Miss McCray's 'Life-Work of the Author of Uncle Tom's Cabin,' which we lately noticed, grossly exaggerated the failure of her mind. The introduction, though brief, is happily conceived, and one who has been ever "valiant for truth" might well choose for her last public words the words of him so named in Bunyan's allegory of the Christian life. The introduction was written September 30, 1889.

There is little in the account of Mrs. Stowe's childhood and youth which has not been made familiar by the biographies of her father and her brother, Henry Ward. Of her father we are told next to nothing. The picture of her mother, Roxanna Foote, is so beautiful that it is easy to believe all the praise her husband and her children gave her was not more than she deserved. She died when Harriet was less than four years old, and Henry less than two, and he not the youngest of the eight, of whom the oldest, Catharine, came in with the cen-

sailing out of the mouths of the Weser, the Elbe, and the Eider, who afterwards extended their excursions across the Channel and ravaged the shores of Roman Britain. Although Du Chaillu, to prove differently, has again brought to light an argument apparently long since laid to rest, *Limes Saxonicus* and *Littus Saxonicum* mean not the country the Saxons occupied, but the marches they harried. Earlier accounts of these Teutonic maritime tribes there are none. Cæsar's description of the Suevi only applies to the people adjacent to Gaul or the Empire. Tacitus mentions the Angles, to be sure, by name, but only incidentally as a North-German tribe with whom he manifestly did not come in contact. As regards the actual settlement of England from 449 on, there is, as has been intimated, no reason to doubt the main facts of the traditional account contained in the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* and in Bede. No good evidence has thus far been brought forward to disprove it, and the evidence of institutions and of language is unmistakably in its favor.

If the Saxons were a Continental Teutonic tribe, or, what is most likely, a congeries of tribes, the generalizations of Tacitus, as contained in the 'Germania,' ought manifestly to apply to their institutions, even after the lapse of more than four centuries and the transference to a new environment, provided, of course, that those institutions have been left to pursue a development as unimpaired as may be by foreign interference. In point of fact, there is not a general, but a most particular coincidence between the institutions of the Teutonic tribes of the Continent in the time of Tacitus and the Anglo-Saxons of early England. Such writers, for instance, as Stubbs, in his 'Constitutional History,' have pointed out in detail and incontrovertibly the links of the connecting chain. That it is possible, on the other hand, to prove not only a multitude of fundamental correspondences, but numerous striking coincidences between English and Scandinavian institutions, is a result presupposed by the commonly accepted Teutonic origin of both people. Such a proof, nevertheless, in the absence of historical or other data to substantiate it, establishes nothing more than the original consanguinity that is now no longer a matter of doubt. To cite, however, as illustrative of the early institutions of the ancestors of the English the laws contained in those sagas specifically Icelandic, no one of which could possibly have had its action until the tenth century, is an unpardonably careless use of terms. In old Icelandic literature we have a storehouse of detail as to primitive conditions of society and state that is utterly lacking to any such extent elsewhere among the Germanic peoples. While no one, therefore, will dispute the exceeding and especial value of the sagas for the light they shed upon ancient Teutonic life, there is, nevertheless, here an interval of nearly five centuries from the usually accepted date of the settlement of England; a new environment that has necessitated, to no small extent, new conditions; and a direct descent from Norway which had already established itself as a nationality over against the other Scandinavian tribes.

If an appeal is made to the phonology or to the lexicographical elements of the languages of the people here brought into question, the fact of identity that Du Chaillu assumes becomes more than ever hopelessly incapable of proof. The assumption of identity at the late day that our author affirms the languages to have been the same, presupposes in the first place a subsequent differentiation which, under the known circumstances of historical development in each dialect, is unparalleled elsewhere and utterly impossible here. Mr. Du Chaillu leaves this point, however, wholly outside of his argument, although this one fact alone is quite enough to disprove his whole elaborate reasoning. The claim to community of language as here presented is based upon two or three extracts from Old Norse writings that are, however, capable of an entirely different interpretation from that which the author puts upon them. The principal statement in Old Norse literature directly bearing upon the case is that contained in the 'Gunnlaugs Saga,' whose action falls between 983 and 1009. This statement is, however, not a constituent part of the original saga, but was added by the saga-writer, in all probability at least a century and a half after the events with which it is here placed in juxtaposition. It is as follows: "The tongue was one in England and Norway before William the Bastard conquered England. But thenceforward French was current in England, since he was thence [*sic*] descended." The true explanation of this simply is that here were two Teutonic people speaking kindred dialects, which had differentiated themselves, at the time the writer has in mind, generically but little. There is, at this time, free intercourse between the Anglo-Saxons and the people of the North. The Icelanders, particularly, in their character of merchant, soldier of fortune, or wandering scald, were readily understood not only in Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, but also in England, as numerous instances from the sagas incontestably prove. The fact, however, that the language of one land was intelligible in the others by no manner of means precludes differentiation. Compared with the language brought into England by the Normans at the Conquest, it is up to that time one language that is spoken over the whole Teutonic territory. There is, besides, plenty of Anglo-Saxon from this very time that is not Old Norse, as the most cursory comparison of the very scaldic strophes that were recited by Icelanders in England with the English language of that day will prove. A point that Du Chaillu has lost sight of corroborates this theory: the first definite knowledge that we have of the North is that contained in the narratives of Ohthere and Wulfstan, who came to the court of Alfred the Great in 871. Alfred apparently had no previous knowledge of the North, and eagerly accepted their information, which he appends to his translation of Orosius. These two Northmen, in the ninth century, so far as can be seen, have no difficulty in communicating with the King, but the language of Alfred's Orosius is very far from being Old Norse of this or any other period.

Mr. Du Chaillu further raises the point that nowhere in the sagas is "Saxon" applied to England or its inhabitants, thus leaving the inference that the Northmen were themselves the so-called Anglo-Saxons. If the term "Saxon," however, as applied to the people or the language of England does not appear in the North, neither, as Freeman shows in his 'Norman Conquest,' does it occur from a true Teutonic source in Anglo-Saxon literature itself before the Conquest. The Chronicles use "Engle" of the followers of Hengest and Horsa, while the people as a whole are "Angelcynn," and the language is "Englisc." In the same way Old Norse has "Enskirmenn," Englishmen, "Enskr," English, "Enska," the English language. "Saxon," however, appears frequently enough in the sagas with its own signification, being there invariably applied to Germany.

The greater and by far the more valuable and satisfactory part of Du Chaillu's book is that formed by the translations from Old Norse originals, which have been judiciously selected so as to form, as nearly as may be, a connected account of the details of ancient life in the North. As a whole, they are extremely well rendered. This is particularly true of the prose, which includes extracts from the Younger Edda, from the early Norwegian and Icelandic laws, and almost the whole range of the saga literature. As much, perhaps, cannot always be said of the Eddic and scaldic poetry, which, although it is usually true to the letter of the original, yet often falls far short of being felicitous, and is frequently entirely lacking in the peculiar essence that gives it its distinctive character, and which a mere translation of words is entirely inadequate to reproduce.

As for the book as a whole, while its critics have for the most part taken it too seriously, as if it were, or pretended to be, a scientific and not a popular exposition of the subject which it treats, it is none the less a record of persistent and ingenious research, and of extraordinary literary zeal. If Mr. Du Chaillu has not proved the startling assumption of the title-page, he has, nevertheless, made a most noteworthy addition to the English literature of the history, manners, and customs of ancient Scandinavia.

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

Memories of Fifty Years. By Lester Wallack. With an introduction by Laurence Hutton. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The London Stage: Its History and Traditions from 1576 to 1888. By H. Barton Baker. London: W. H. Allen & Co. 2 vols.

Our Recent Actors: Being Recollections Critical, and in many cases Personal, of late Distinguished Performers of both Sexes, with some Incidental Notices of Living Actors. By Westland Marston. 2 vols. in 1. Boston: Roberts Bros.

Le Théâtre en France: Histoire de la Littérature dramatique depuis ses origines jusqu'à nos jours. Par L. Petit de Julleville. Paris: Armand Colin; New York: F. W. Christern.

La Comèdie en France au XVIIIe. Siècle. Par C. Lenient. 2 vols. Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern.

Mr. Lester Wallack bore an honored name; he came of good theatrical stock; he was a comedian with great breadth of humor and abundant dash; he was a kindly man in private life; but he had an overwhelming self-consciousness—an egotism almost incomparable even in the history of the stage. Thus it happened that, succeeding to the finest theatrical property ever passed from father to son, he saw it slowly crumble and decay in his hands, until at last he gave up the theatre founded by his father on a rock, and he was reduced to taking a benefit like any other theatrical wreck. Moreover, after having associated all his life with clever people, he left a book of reminiscence absolutely devoid of value. From the perusal of these 'Memories of Fifty Years' we rise with no addition to our knowledge of the stage, its art, or its history, except a sharper impression of the author's extraordinary egotism. The publishers have done all that need be done for an author. The cover of the book is neat; the typography is elegant; there is an abundance of illustrations. The editor has treated the actor with the utmost care, having provided a list of parts and an index, and written a biographical sketch which is a model of brevity, complete-

ness, and courtesy, such as we may fairly expect from Mr. Laurence Hutton.

The only fault to be found with either editor or publisher is that they have allowed to appear the needless and pointless mention of the domestic difficulties of Hamblin, whose relatives survive to be wounded by Wallack's careless chatter. It is Wallack himself who did the least for his book. We quite understand the feeling of the old soldier and old playgoer who said that this volume of 'Memories' "was the biggest give-away since 'McClellan's Own Story,'" and it is like that in so far as the hero is condemned out of his own mouth. As an instance of the blindness which allowed Lester Wallack to see only himself, we may call attention to pp. 205-7, from which it appears that the actor was very intimate with Thackeray, whom he met night after night when the novelist was in this country, and the one fragment of the novelist's talk that lingered in Wallack's memory was a compliment on his acting with Blake in "A Cure for the Heartache." The book is bare even of amusing anecdotes of his fellow-players, a class quick to see a joke and prompt to tell it, and adroit in setting it off to best advantage. Almost the only jest the reader can recall readily is Blake's rather vulgar practical joke on the name of the unimportant actor whom he caused to figure on the playbill as "Mr. B. Hind." It remains to be recorded only that Lester Wallack was born in Varick Street, in this city, and that he dwelt here at least two-thirds of his life; yet, according to his own declaration, he remained all his days an Englishman, and he died at last a foreigner in the country of his birth.

Mr. H. Barton Baker is already known to readers of theatrical books as the author of 'Our Old Actors,' a pleasant, gossiping, uncritical, and often inaccurate series of biographical sketches of the more distinguished British comedians and tragedians. His present book is misnamed; it is in reality a series of histories of each of the London theatres as they have come and gone during the past three centuries. As such it is very welcome indeed. We know not where else to look for such an account, the utility of which will be apparent at once to all who have ever had occasion to pursue any original investigation in theatrical history. Especially to be commended is the chronological list of the London theatres from the earliest period to the present time, beginning with the theatre built in 1576 and ending with the Shaftesbury and the Lyric, opened only last year. It is to be hoped that some such similar list may soon be prepared of the theatres of New York, tracing the history of each house through all its successive changes of name. The present Daly's Theatre, for example, has been known as Banvard's, Wood's, and the Broadway; and other Broadway Theatres have existed near Broome Street and opposite Waverley Place before the present theatre at Forty-first Street.

Mr. Baker considers first the Elizabethan and then the Restoration play-houses. Then, in two chapters each, he gives us the annals in outline of Drury Lane and of Covent Garden. A single chapter suffices for the Haymarket and for the King's Theatre (Her Majesty's). In the second volume separate chapters are given to the Olympic, the Lyceum, the Adelphi, the St. James's, the Princess's (with its memories of the Keans), Sadler's Wells (the scene of Phelps's triumphs), and the former Prince of Wales's (where Mrs. Bancroft brought out the Robertsonian comedies). The other minor theatres are more briefly considered. Mr. Baker is not as precise or as accurate as the late Mr. Blanchard, who covered some of the same ground in briefer articles in the successive "*Era* Almanacks," but, for the most part, his work is done fairly enough. His English is execrable; he dislikes Americans; he thinks the late Mr. Sothern was a bad actor; and he approves of one of the most outrageous acts ever committed by a literary pirate, Fitzball's dramatization of Cooper's 'Pilot,' in which the nationality of the heroes was changed, and Long Tom Coffin was made to appear as an Englishman. It is perhaps characteristic, also, that Mr. Baker accepts Mr. Burnand as the author of "Proof" (a bald adaptation from the French), and that he thinks that Scribe wrote "Don César de Bazan."

Dr. Westland Marston is a dramatic author of high repute and wide experience, and he ought, therefore, to be a dramatic critic of nice discrimination. The present volume of theatrical reminiscence is almost an autobiography, and, with but a few sparse exceptions, it is a critical record of things seen. It would be better were it wholly so, for a first-hand report has always its own value. We felt a certain doubtfulness as to Dr. Marston's disinterestedness, or acumen, when we read in his preface a flattering reference to Mr. T. Thorne, who is one of the poorest of contemporary English low comedians, but who happens also to be the manager of a London theatre. For the most part, however, the criticism is sound, although we cannot but think that Dr. Marston overpraises the late Adelaide Neilson, an actress of limited gifts, unduly lauded during her life, and nearly always overestimated since her death. He is more moderate in his praise of Fechter, also an overrated performer. His appreciation of Charlotte Cushman is hearty and discriminating. Among the others whom he considers are Macready, Phelps (from whom he quotes an opinion absolutely in favor of the Diderot-Coquelin theory), Charles Kemble, and Charles Kean (and of the latter he tells several amusing stories, indicating a keener sense of humor on the actor's part than the feeble but authorized biography would have suggested).

Although there is no lack of fairly good histories of French dramatic literature, M. Petit de Julleville's excellent compendium is welcome. It is greatly to be wished that we had as good a history of English dramatic literature; Prof. Ward's is not altogether satisfactory, and it stops with the reign of Queen Anne. M. de Julleville is already known to those interested in the French drama by his careful study of the rude stage literature of the middle ages; and in the early part of the present volume he does little more than summarize the results set forth at length in his larger treatises. Like most French writers about dramatic literature, M. de Julleville considers plays strictly from the theatrical point of view; in France a play is something to be played, and the heresy of the "closet-drama" has never taken root there. The non-theatrical point of view is one of the chief defects of Mr. George Saintsbury's histories of French literature; to Mr. Saintsbury it seems to make little difference whether or not a play had been acted or was intended to be acted. Of course, no critic with a real understanding of the principles of the drama would ever make a blunder like that. While the account of the early French stage, its origins, its growth, and its development, is perhaps what is freshest in M. de Julleville's history, he is perfectly at home in the other divisions of his subject. The chapter on Molière is wholly adequate. The discussion of the contemporary French dramatists is pertinent and acute. Note, for example, his tracing (pp. 358-9) of the possible connection between the ruder melodrama of Pixérécourt and the splendidly rhetorical plays of Hugo.

One point which M. de Julleville brings out clearly is, that, frequent as were the French imitations of the Spanish drama in the seventeenth century, they were not more in number than the French imitations of the English drama in the eighteenth century. He shows, for instance, how the plot of "Venice Preserved" was used in La Fosse's Roman tragedy of "Manlius" (see, also, pp. 286, 303, 305, and 306). This same point is repeatedly brought out in M. Lenient's history of French comedy in the last century. In view of the ampler richness of French dramatic literature in the days of its great trinity, Corneille, Molière, Racine, and seeing the vigorous revival of French dramatic art in our own day, with Hugo and Scribe, Dumas, father and son, Augier and Sardou, we may sometimes overlook the value of French comedy in the eighteenth century. But a book like this of M. Lenient's forces us to acknowledge the vitality and vivacity of the dramatists of that day also. Regnard, Dancourt, Destouches, Marivaux, Sedaine, and, greatest of all, Beaumarchais—these are names not to be neglected. M. Lenient's account of their comedies is an honest and conscientious work, lacking a little in originality and in personal impressions, but orthodox and trustworthy.

A New England Girlhood, Outlined from Memory. By Lucy Larcom. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889.

It is difficult to convey by brief notice the charm of this simple autobiography of early years in New England, which is the last issue of the Riverside Library for Young People. It is written for the young, and that fact has influenced both the style and the contents; but it has an interest for older readers who may enjoy an exceedingly truthful and unvarnished picture of life in an humble New England home, typical of thousands of such hearths, in which the virtue and power of New England lay.

Miss Larcom has obtained some repute as a minor poetess by graceful verses of local interest, and was at one time an object of curiosity as one of the literary mill-girls of Lowell, who made such a collection of factory hands as the world never saw elsewhere, at the time when Lowell sprang up as a centre of manufactures. She was born at Beverly, on the Massachusetts coast, and grew up with just such training and amid the same traditions and circumstances as then were the common lot of New England birth, although the sea-faring influence prevailing in Massachusetts Bay gave a peculiar local color to her childhood. She describes in homely phrase and without reservation the persons of her girlhood, the family and relatives, the country scenes, the school and the church, the foreign touches in the community arising from a world-wide trade which took a sailor from every family; and mingles with this trivial anecdotes, but such as show very plainly and often with delightful simplicity the life of a child in these surroundings. The chapter upon the Hymn-Book, and the confession she makes of her childish errors in religious matters, and her reasoning about them at the time, are characteristic. The nearness of England—the books for the young then coming principally from English pens and the imaginary children being English—is noticeable; and the excellent reading of those days, which included the 'Pilgrim's Progress,' always a prime favorite, Shakspere, Cowper, Miss Edgeworth, Scott's novels, Layard's and Stephens's travels, and the like, is something to

make one regret the old time, and to help one to understand why New England was fruitful in literature. The whole range of life, intellectual, religious, and social, is covered by Miss Larcom's narrative, and the forming elements in it are plainly made out, while the scene of hillside and sea, and the gray streets with the great and humble houses, the graveyard, and the ships coming and going, is admirably rendered as a background. It was a community in which as a child she did not know the meaning of "rich" and "poor."

The family, however, was in humble circumstances, and when the father died, leaving only the strip of land and the house, it was necessary for the widow to make some provision for the children. She removed to Lowell, and took charge of one of the boarding-houses. Then Miss Larcom soon grew old enough to do some little work at the mills, and of course did it. She was still quite young, apparently under fourteen, and was able to pass an intervening year at Beverly before she came into the mills to do a woman's full work. The more interesting portion of the volume to many will be her portrayal of the life led there by the New England girls who came from all parts to earn their living. The management was wise and liberal, and endeavored to do all that was possible for these young women. A single passage will best present Miss Larcom's impression of her mates, who with her were supporting a magazine, learning German or ethics, or welcoming Carlyle and Tennyson:

"What were we? Girls who were working in a factory for the time, to be sure; but none of us had the least idea of continuing at that kind of work permanently. Our composite photograph, had it been taken, would have been the representative New England girlhood of those days. We had all been fairly educated at public or private schools, and many of us were resolutely bent on obtaining a better education. Very few were among us without some distinct plan for bettering the condition of themselves and those they loved. For the first time our young women had come forth from their home retirement in a throng, each with her own individual purpose. For twenty years or so Lowell might have been looked upon as a rather select industrial school for young people. The girls then were just such girls as are knocking at the doors of young women's colleges to-day."

Many of them supported themselves at the seminaries of the best class one half the year by working the other half at the mills; some were working in order to send their brothers to college—the man's privilege; they all seem to have valued and used the opportunities supplied them at Lowell by societies and classes to improve their minds. Miss Larcom writes sympathetically of their lives, but with a fidelity which carries its own warrant on its face. She adopts the tradition of her people that it is natural for women as well as men to work, that it is their duty, and that it brings with it no reason for regret in an honest heart.

She left the mills when little more than twenty, and added to her life the experience of "going West." The change from the mill-machinery to the unsettled and treeless Illinois prairies is strikingly shown; the description of the travellers and of the mood of the emigrant beginning to build a home in that strange land is excellent in truth and likeness; and here her story ends with a brief account of the college she found, already flourishing even there, and in which she was able to complete her education by working in the institution. The entire narrative is thus an illustration of working life led by a girl under the stimulus of conscientious habit, and with the purpose always to care not less for the mind than for the wants of life. It cannot but be stimulating to those in similar circumstances to her own, and should be interesting to others. The simple tributes to the daily virtue and character of her immediate friends, and particularly a sister, are an added charm, and give breadth to the volume as a record of the common womanhood of the New England stock in its usual and average examples in the community at large. The lover of New England traditions could not ask for a truer or simpler account of them forty years ago; and to those who are interested to know what it was that constituted that hardy and fertile life, so often praised, the book will give much instruction. It is, however, meant for the young, to whom its style and matter are adapted, and for them there could not be more healthy food.

Arkansas Geological Survey. Annual Report for 1888 of John C. Branner, State Geologist. In four volumes. Vols. I–III. Little Rock Press Printing Co.

Up to within a comparatively recent date less has been definitely known about the geology of the State of Arkansas than of almost any of our States or Territories. Not only was there here a serious gap in our knowledge of the general geological structure of the country, but there existed no adequate means of estimating the probable basis of fact in the reports that appeared from time to time of discoveries in it of mineral deposits of marvellous wealth. The recent institution of a State Geological Survey was therefore a wise method of establishing a permanent and legitimate basis for the development of its mineral resources, though it may result in dispelling some of the visions of untold wealth to be acquired in it with little or no labor that are apt to be entertained with regard to regions geologically unknown.

The selection for its Director of a man like Mr. Branner, who, having won his geological spurs under Hartt in Brazil, has had considerable practical experience in this country, was particularly fortunate, seeing that he is also one who appreciates the importance of scientific methods in applied geology. The method of treatment pursued in these first reports is a distinct advance over that hitherto employed by many State geologists of describing the region surveyed areally, *i. e.*, by counties, townships, or other artificial subdivisions. It consists in discussing it systematically, or on the basis of the individual geological formations of the State, and to each of his assistants has been intrusted the investigation of a special formation or group of formations. Vol i. contains a report of a preliminary examination of western Arkansas, with special reference to its resources in the precious metals, by Prof. Theo. B. Comstock. In the choice of Prof. Comstock Mr. Branner has been less fortunate than in the case of his other assistants, but with the meagre funds at his command he evidently had no very wide range of choice. Prof. Comstock's theoretical views are peculiar to himself, and unintelligible to the majority of his readers, and are of little practical value. In the present case he has done what he could for a most unpromising field, yet with all his good will, he makes but a poor showing for the metallic richness of the region examined. Vol. ii. contains a discussion of the Neozoic geology of southwestern Kansas, by Robert T. Hill, which scientifically fills the important gap in the cretaceous and tertiary formations between the Rocky Mountain region and the East, and in its application shows the character and origin of the soils of the region, the methods of improving them, and the economic resources of these formations, such as clays, building materials, gypsum, chalk, lignites, etc. Vol. iii. is by Arthur Winslow, on the geology of the coal regions in western Arkansas, with economic discussions of the comparative composition and adaptability of the various coals.

Such a method of treatment, as compared with the areal treatment by counties, is like the work of the topographer who makes a map showing the surface configuration of a given area, its hills and valleys and natural incidents, compared with that of the land-office surveyor who runs out the lines of a township at so much per mile, and makes a map showing only the outlines of the area surveyed and the points where streams cross these lines. From the material furnished by the latter, by drawing in the intermediate portion of such streams between their intersections with the surveyed lines, an approximate map of the drainage systems could be produced, but one in which guess-work necessarily furnishes a large portion of the data. Imperfect though this method is, it was alone employed for the greater part of the maps of our country until topographical surveys had been instituted. The system of geological surveys by counties, indeed, affords a basis upon which a systematic survey may be built; but unless the systematization be made by one familiar with all the features of the country by personal observation, it too must necessarily have a large proportion of guess-work included in it.

Fugitive Facts: An Epitome of General Information. Edited by Robert Thorne, M.A. New York: A. L. Burt. 1889. Pp. 491.

As one star differeth from another in glory, so may one compilation have fewer claims than another upon the reader's attention. Some are the fruit of many years' searching for the needles of out-of-the-way learning; others are but pages of a scrap-book in which is pasted anything, on any subject, which strikes the maker's eye. The present well-printed and neatly bound volume belongs to the latter class. We presume the compiler is pleased at having his clippings in a shape easier to handle, and we dare say there are persons to whom "Gems" from the encyclopædia will be more interesting than "Choice Passages" of like length from the works of Shakspere or Mrs. Southworth. For a schoolboy, again, to whom useful knowledge (not included in his text-books) must be administered in small and varied doses, this book might be a desirable prize or birthday gift. It is as full of information as an egg is of meat, and, from the composition of Absinthe to the politics of Zululand, all interests are provided for.

It is hardly worth while to inquire into the quality of the information furnished, both because no student would consult a book of this sort, and because it makes no pretensions either to supersede or to stand in the way of any serious work of reference. We shall therefore permit ourselves only two criticisms: one is, that much of the value of a "scrap" consists in knowing whence it is taken; the productions of a space writer on the *Greenbush News* not having the same degree of value, to some persons, as an extract on the same topic from the 'Britannica' would have. Mr. Thorne never gives this credit. Our second criticism is, that the alphabetical order in which the titles are arranged is not that of the key words, and, as there are no cross-references, much that the book contains is unavailable for reference. Thus, articles on Railways are found under Europe, New York (elevated), and First; Bells under Great; Blue-laws under both Blue and Massachusetts; Mugwump under Origin, etc.

The Home of a Naturalist. By the Rev. Biot Edmondston and Jessie M. E. Saxby. Second edition. Scribner & Welford. 1890. 8vo, vi.–395 pp., illustrated.

In this volume are some twenty chapters, most of which appeared in *Chambers' Journal* and other British periodicals so long ago that their present republication has the effect of novelty. But there is nothing in them which the march of time should render uninviting. On the contrary, the bits of folk-lore and description of life in the Shetlands before the invasion of steamers and tourists become more attractive as the years go by. The papers separately published were well worth gathering and reprinting in permanent form. We have seldom derived more pleasure and satisfaction from a book of this class than the present volume has afforded. No one, young or old, we think, will finish its perusal without a feeling of gratitude to the authors for the charming and instructive pictures they have sketched. Home life of a sort only too infrequent, lived under conditions which the progress of civilization is rapidly effacing; sport and outdoor life, now no longer possible in like measure in any part of Britain; animal psychology, as developed in a loving study of domestic pets—not the cat and collie alone, but such as the gull, the cormorant, or the seal; legends and superstitions as weird as those of Brittany and as firmly believed; Shetland weddings in that far-off time; the good physician, braving storm and tide-race on his mission of humanity—these things, and such as these, pass in review before us. They are simply told, out of personal experience and a full heart. Only one chapter, the last, seems to have a touch of fiction in it, and the altered note here is very marked.

The book is well worth better illustrations; the full-page process-work, though not worse than common, jars with the high quality of the text, and had better have been omitted. The heliotype portrait of the good old Scottish doctor and naturalist will be prized by many.

A Rambler's Lease. By Bradford Torrey. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889.

Mr. Bradford Torrey is one of our pleasantest writers of outdoor books. He has the true rambler's gift, the eye to see and the heart to be interested, whatever fortune may bring him by the wayside. A cornfield in Vermont, a road in the woods, a mountain-side, are sufficient text for him, with their trees and brambles and especially their birds. Like most of those who have like tastes with him, he brings his whole life to bear upon his enjoyment of nature, and strews his pages with those confidences of boyish days which add charm to this modest way of writing. In early life a merely passive and poetical pleasure is the initiation through which these adepts pass, and in later days the disposition to inquire is aroused—the scientific curiosity of the intelligence—and the man becomes an amateur ornithologist of the living birds, interested in their little affairs and habits as in a kind of wild pets. Naturally he falls to conversing of them, and these essays take on a conversational and intimate quality, and through all quietly assume the reader's pleasure in listening. The birds and his adventures with them are the common topic, and he tells his anecdotes of them with an agreeable simplicity, and conveys into his words the wild wood fascination which constitutes the attractiveness of the out-door book. Occasionally, as writers of such leisurely experiences do, he moralizes and indulges in fancies as to the animal soul in nature, and in general betrays a liking for the meditative sympathy of Wordsworth which so humanized the creatures of nature, whether plant or animal, in his poetry; and of course Emerson and Thoreau appear in quotation or allusion as the mild geniuses of this literary mood in New England. Reflection and sentiment, however, are not noticeably prominent; but rather the reader is led into direct acquaintance with the face of nature, in all seasons, and pleasantly reminded how much fine enjoyment lies just outside his threshold if he will but open his eyes and take what they bring him.

Handbook of Psychology. By James Mark Baldwin, Ph.D. Henry Holt & Co. 1889. 8vo, pp. 343.

The most astonishing feature of this book is that a Princetonian openly acknowledges a greater indebtedness to Wundt and Rabier than to Dr. McCosh. Surely the "American Philosophy" has come to a sad end. In its outline and peculiar philosophic views, this Handbook adheres very closely to the venerable ex-President's teaching; but the mass of facts pressed into that framework, for which, of course, the author is indebted to the new movement, gives a decidedly scientific aspect to the work, which is not common with American text-books on psychology. There is one intimation, at least, which would grieve the spirit of Mr. Baldwin's master, who is such a mortal enemy of Kant. In speaking of visual space perception, he says: "Sensations . . . can be only intensive modifications of consciousness which are apprehended under space-form by the mind's own reconstruction." If there was ever a graver departure from the Scottish philosophy than this, we have not seen it. It is, however, only one of the many incidents showing a movement away from the dogmatism of the Princetonian school. To be sure, a concession is made to pedagogic demands in the chapter on "Rational Function," where are raked together a lot of "intuitions," of which the last is the "intuition of God." The language defining it is worthy of quotation:

"The final conceptive product or ultimate generalization of reason proceeds out from the world and self, and seeks a further unifying postulate. This final unity is adumbrated in the unity of the apperceptive process, the identity of the reasoning powers, and the instability of all the complexes constructed in experience. Unity, identity, constructive infinity, end, cause, perfection, categorical being—all lead on, by the necessary progression of intellect, through the conditions and limitations of finite mind, to the intuition of the absolute and unconditioned subject *God*."

It is only just to say that obscurity like this is quite exceptional in Prof. Baldwin's textbook, which is far above the average, and is, for example, incomparably clearer than Prof. Dewey's, however much it may suffer by comparison in other respects. Taken as a whole, it is about the best we know.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, W. H. D. The Maid of Orleans. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Bell, A. M. Popular Manual of Vocal Physiology and Visible Speech. New York: N. D. C. Hodges.
Bellamy, C. J. An Experiment in Marriage. Albany (N. Y.) Book Co. $1.
Black, W. Prince Fortunatus. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Booth, Maud B. Beneath Two Flags. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.
Browning, R. Asolando: Fancies and Facts. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Campbell, Rev. W. M. Footprints of Christ. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.50.
Carpenter, E. Civilization: Its Cause and Cure. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.
Clark, Rev. R. W. The Church in Thy House: Daily Family Prayers. Thos. Whittaker. 60 cents.
Clarke, R. F. Cardinal Lavigerie and the African Slave Trade. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.50.
Conway, M. D. George Washington and Mount Vernon. Brooklyn, N. Y.: Long Island Historical Society.
Cooper, T. American Railroad Bridges. Engineering News Publishing Co.
Crooker, J. H. Problems in American Society: Social Studies. Boston: Geo. H. Ellis. $1.25.
Daudet, A. Kings in Exile. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
De Costa, B. F. Pre-Columbian Discovery of America. 2d ed. Albany: Joel Munsell's Sons.
Dix, E. A. A Midsummer Drive through the Pyrenees. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Ernst II., Herzog von Sachsen-Coburg-Gotha. Aus meinem Leben und aus meiner Zeit. Vol. III. Berlin: Wilhelm Hertz.
Gowing, L. F. Five Thousand Miles in a Sledge Across Siberia. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Griswold, Hattie T. Waiting on Destiny: A Story for Girls. Boston: Universalist Publishing House.
Halévy, L. The Abbé Constantin. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. $1.
Harper, Prof. W. R., and Burgess, I. B. An Inductive Latin Method. Ivison, Blakeman & Co.
Harper, Prof. W. R., and Waters, W. E. An Inductive Greek Method. Ivison, Blakeman & Co.
Heron-Allen, E. A Fatal Fiddle. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Hiermans, F. Love by Induction, and Other Plays. De Witt Publishing House. 50 cents.
Hildreth, C. L. Oo: Adventures in Orbello Land. Belford Co. $1.50.
Hutton, Rev. W. H. S. Thomas of Canterbury. London: David Nutt.
Ibsen, H. The Doll's House. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Jansen, V. F. Gesamtindex zu Kluges etymologischen Wörterbuch der deutschen Sprache. Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner.
Japp, A. H. Days with Industrials. Scribner & Welford. $.25.
Johnson, S. Rasselas, Prince of Abyssinia. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Justice and Jurisprudence: An Inquiry concerning the Constitutional Limitations of the XIIIth, XIVth, and XVth Amendments. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.
Laboulaye, E. Abdallah; or, The Four-Leaved Clover. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Lanzky, P. Am Mittelmeer. Stuttgart: J. B. Metzler.
Loti, P. Into Morocco. Welch, Fracker Co.
Lyall, Sir A. Warren Hastings. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Masson, Prof. D. The Collected Writings of Thomas De Quincey. Vol. II. Autobiography and Literary Reminiscences. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
McCarthy, J. H. Lily Lass. D. Appleton & Co. 25 cents.
Moses, Rev. I. S., and Moses, Rev. M. Ethics of the Hebrew Scriptures. Cincinnati: Block Publishing Co.
Nelson, Dr. W. Five Years at Panama: the Trans-Isthmian Canal. Belford Co. $1.50.
Page, W. M. New Light from Old Eclipses; or, Chronology Corrected and the Four Gospels Harmonized. St. Louis: C. R. Barnes Publishing Co. $2.50.
Prentiss, G. L. Union Theological Seminary in the City of New York: Historical and Biographical Sketches. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $2.
Sanders, D. Aus der Werkstatt eines Wörterbuchschreibers. Berlin: Hans Lüstenöder.
Sanders, D. Bausteine zu einem Wörterbuch der sinnverwandten Ausdrücke im Deutschen. Berlin: Hans Lüstenöder.
Schopenhauer, A. Religion: A Dialogue; and Other Essays. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.
Scribner's Magazine. Vols. V., VI. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $2.25 each.
Sherwood, Emily L. Willis Peyton's Inheritance. Boston: Universalist Publishing House. 75 cents.
Smith, H. L., and Nash, V. Story of the Lockers' Strikes. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Stearns, J. M. Germs and Developments of the Law of England. Banks & Bros.

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LIFE DEPARTMENT.

Number of Life Policies written to date	58,185
New Life Insurance written in 1889	$8,439,650.00
(A Gain over 1888 of more than $1,000,000.)	
Paid Life Policy-holders to date	5,406,955.48
" " " in 1889	553,311.80

ACCIDENT DEPARTMENT.

Number of Accident Policies written to date	1,619,588
" " " in 1889	104,348
" " Claims paid in 1889	14,428
Whole number Accident Claims paid	201,591
Amount Accident Claims paid in 1889	$1,026,552.52
Whole amount Accident Claims paid	12,063,685.24

Total Losses paid, both Departments . . $17,470,640.72

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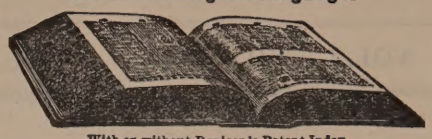

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[Publication was begun July 1, 1865, Vol. I. comprising the last half-year. Two volumes per year have since been issued, Vol. XLIX. comprising the last half-year of 1889.]

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ASSETS.

Real Estate, Securities, and Bills receivable	$1,143,588 03
Mortgages Deposited as Security for Debentures	1,399,245 12
Municipal and other Stocks and Bonds	50,850 00
Real Estate	14,076 40
Cash on Hand and in Banks	120,655 62
Due from Branch Offices and Agents	17,743 04
Furniture and Fixtures	3,864 36
Debentures on Hand and with Agents	245,300 00
	$2,995,322 57

LIABILITIES.

Capital Stock paid in	$1,312,000 00
Surplus and Undivided Profits	141,208 17
Debentures Certified	1,141,150 00
Money Received in Payment of Loans not yet Delivered	7,400 00
Individual Deposits	133,964 20
Certificates of Deposit bearing Interest	115,632 00
Bills Payable	110,000 00
Interest Paid by Borrowers, awaiting presentation of Coupons	10,266 00
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	$2,995,32: 57

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 16, 1890.

The Week.

If we had been asked beforehand where Mr. Edmunds would be found in any debate on the "blocks-of-five" letter written by Dudley in the last Presidential campaign, we should have said that he would not be found pettifogging the case for Dudley, throwing doubts on the authenticity of the letter, or seeking to extenuate the offence by saying to the accusers of Dudley, "You're another." Undoubtedly the Democrats of Indiana have sins enough to answer for. That fact does not improve the character of Dudley's offence. Nor is any presentation of it helpful unless accompanied with unsparing exposure and denunciation of both. Mr. Edmunds's treatment of it, we regret to say, was that of a criminal lawyer retained by the defence, not that of a Senator charged to see that the republic receives no detriment. What would such a man as Abraham Lincoln have said under like circumstances? Mr. Lincoln was as stout a partisan as Mr. Edmunds, and he was by no means unskilled in the arts of the politician or averse to employing them for party advantage. Yet on a question involving the integrity and permanency of republican government, which requires above all things an unbought vote and an unpurchasable people, he would have said: "I join you, Senator Voorhees, and every other man, of whatever political faith, in the severest condemnation of the Dudley letter and the writer thereof and the accessories thereto. I believe that you and your friends have been guilty of the same offences in times past, and that your present indignation arises principally from the fact that you were hurt; but none the less do I support, with my whole soul, every proposition which looks to the establishment of the truth in this matter, and the exposure and punishment of the guilty so far as we may be able to reach them." Would not the Republican party have been benefited if its foremost Senator had taken this elevated point of view?

Gen. B. F. Butler has joined the ranks of the anti-ballot-reformers, imparting a final touch of moral grandeur to the collection. Its members now are Gov. Hill, ex-Gov. Foraker, Mr. Halstead, Senator Gorman, Capt. Boutelle, C. A. Dana, and Gen. Butler. Here is a nucleus for a party which might run two of its members on a Presidential ticket with a chance of polling almost as many votes in this city as Butler did in 1884—that is, 3,499. The Butler organ in that campaign is obviously eager to repeat the experiment, for it gives up a half column of its first page to a report of Butler's views on the Australian system, which, it is needless to say, are very contemptuous. A ticket like Hill and Butler, or Butler and Foraker, or Gorman and Boutelle, or Butler and Halstead, or Foraker and Dana, would be certain to poll the "party's" entire strength, and to have the enthusiastic support of the ex-Butler organ in this city and that of the ex-penitentiary convict in Albany.

"Corp." Tanner denounced civil-service reform at the same Boston banquet at which Gen. Butler expressed his contempt for ballot reform, but the most interesting portion of his remarks was that devoted to his career as Pension Commissioner, and the reasons for its sudden ending. He said that the Republicans carried Indiana for Harrison by the votes of Democratic soldiers, and that those votes were secured because he, Tanner, "personally, and amid the plaudits of every Republican in that State, plastered that State two feet thick, from the north to the south, with the promises of what the Republican party would do for the soldiers if they came into power." He added that he tried to keep these promises when he was put in charge of the Pension Bureau, but the day came when his self-respect demanded that he should say, "One figure I will not cut in official life: I will not prove myself the liar of an Administration." Who did prove to be the liar of the Administration, he did not point out; but he placed the full responsibility for his course in the Bureau upon the President, where it belongs, by adding: "His was a wise declaration who said it was no time to use the apothecary's scales when you come to weigh the services of the men who saved the nation. I believe in that. I quoted it freely. I tried to obey the injunction to keep within the law and be liberal to the boys."

The election of Mr. Calvin S. Brice as Senator from Ohio will bring up for discussion in that body the meaning and intendment of art. i., sec. 3, clause iii., of the Constitution of the United States, viz.:

> "No person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, *when elected*, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen."

If Mr. Brice were elected to the Senate from New York instead of Ohio, no question would or could be raised respecting his right to a seat in that body. The question then arises whether a person can be an inhabitant of two States at the same time in the purview of the clause quoted above. We think that such a contention would deprive the clause of all meaning, because if he can be an inhabitant of two States, he can be an inhabitant of forty-two States. In other words, any man is eligible to any Senatorial vacancy in any State—a plain *reductio ad absurdum*. It is idle to speculate on the view the Senate may take of this question next year, when Mr. Brice's credentials are presented, but it is quite certain that he will not be admitted to a seat without a thorough overhauling of the constitutional points in the case. Residence, citizenship, and inhabitancy are different things. In discriminating between them the Senate is not restricted to the rules of evidence applicable to the courts of law. The fact of inhabitancy will undoubtedly be inquired into carefully, not because of any objections to Mr. Brice as an individual, but because the question which his election presents is a fundamental one.

The annual reports of the Civil-Service Commissioners of this State and Massachusetts refute once more by their statistics the wearisome charge of the opponents of competitive examinations that these are in the interest of college graduates and against the common people. In Massachusetts, out of 1,016 persons who passed the examinations, 926 were educated in the common schools and only 27 had attended college. In New York, of 157 who passed the competitive examinations, 96 had been educated in the common schools, 46 in academies, and only 15 in colleges. In both States the Commissioners declare that there has been a great improvement in the character of the employees in the minor positions of the State service. The Massachusetts Commissioners say that they "have had the cordial support of the Governor and Council and the Legislature, and their work has met the approval of appointing officers who, now that the system is thoroughly understood, quite generally acknowledge its relief to them, its justice to applicants to office, and its benefit to the public service." The New York Commissioners say that their predecessors "adopted a resolution, which is awaiting the Governor's sanction, which applies the civil-service examinations to all positions in the Senate and Assembly, with the exception of the Clerk of each house." It is to be feared that the changes which Gov. Hill has made in the New York Commission, by practically forcing the retirement of Gen. Sickles and of Mr. Manning, will not be conducive to increased usefulness in its work during the present year.

The retirement from office, at the end of his term, of Mr. B. R. English, Postmaster at New Haven, together with the story of the obstacles which he has met in applying to the office civil-service rules, is peculiarly instructive as showing the resistance which the reform is encountering, and must hereafter encounter, at the hands of the "practical politicians" of both of the two great parties. Mr. English succeeded as Postmaster of the city Mr. N. D. Sperry, who had held the place previously for more than twenty years, and who served out his term under Mr. Cleveland. Although, during the first year of Mr. English's administration, there were some complaints of the local postal service, there have, of late years, been none. Perhaps in no office of the country during the four years has the civil-service principle been more rigidly enforced. Out of the twenty-three clerks whom Mr. English found in the office, nearly one-half now remain at the end of the four years. Of the twenty-three letter-carriers, ten are left. Of the

whole forty-six, fifteen have been removed, and, according to the Postmaster's statement, every one of these for causes quite disconnected with politics. Twice during the four years the New Haven Civil-Service Reform Association has investigated the office, and each time it has commended in the highest terms the Postmaster's record. To show Mr. English's spirit, it may be stated that, during the last Presidential campaign, certain Democratic managers met with a curt refusal when they asked his permission to "go through" the office, for the purpose of asking party contributions, and, furthermore, were told that they had no business to ask for such contributions at all. His course since taking office has naturally made him the target of severe party criticism, particularly when the Presidential election returns showed a loss of a hundred or more votes in the city's Democratic plurality.

Under the circumstances it might be supposed that Mr. English would at least have escaped attack from Republican opponents for violation of the Civil-Service Law. Fancy, then, his amazement last summer when he was informed from the Post-office Department at Washington that he was charged with allowing party contributions to be collected in his office. He went at once to Washington, where he obtained an interview with Mr. Wanamaker. The Postmaster-General drew from a pigeon-hole a portly bundle of manuscripts signed by certain names, and informed Mr. English briefly of the substance of the charges, which the Postmaster met with a sweeping denial. Mr. English's request to be allowed to see the papers, or at least to be told the names of his accusers, Mr. Wanamaker abruptly refused. An inspector whom Mr. Wanamaker afterwards sent on to look into the charges found them groundless, and they are commonly believed to have been the work of local Republican politicians, "stealing weapons of the Lord to serve Satan," and with the object of driving Mr. English from office before the expiration of his term. But from that day to this Mr. English's utmost efforts have failed to disclose either the details of the charges or their authors; and, under prevailing conditions at Washington, he must count himself uncommonly fortunate in being able to serve out his term.

Congressmen and newspapers, in discussing the causes and the consequences of the recent hat-band and bonnet-trimming decision, must keep it in mind that the decision, if obeyed (it may not be) by a protectionist Administration, will compel not only a refund to Postmaster-General Wanamaker and other importers, but a change in the rate of tax from 50 to 20 per cent. The law of 1883 is still in force. How can importing merchants safely do business when, without the consent of Congress, a rate is suddenly put up 30 per cent., and then put down 30 per cent.? All such jerks will cease if the Treasury will only obey the Supreme Court rule, which commands that, in cases of real ambiguity in the language used by Congress, the lowest and not the highest rate shall be levied by customs officers. Congress should compel itself to use precise language in tax laws, and compel itself by a new legislative declaration that, where it has spoken ambiguously, the lowest tax shall be imposed. That could do no harm, for Congress can always quickly correct its own blunders. But the tariff beneficiaries will not tolerate clear and explicit words in tax laws.

The exhibition of greed among the tariff beneficiaries at Washington continues from day to day and becomes rather more disgusting. The general features are pretty well known and understood, but there are some special features that should be carefully remarked. Mr. Knight of Massachusetts, for example, wanted a new arrangement of the duty on buttons so that it would "increase the duty on low grades and give a slight decrease on the expensive goods." Mr. Knight is wise as a serpent in this matter, and in making this request he follows a line of distinguished precedents. Tariff taxes, in order to be really beneficial to the protected classes, must not fail to hit the poor because they are the bulk of the population. Those who buy low grades of buttons are 90 to 95 per cent. of the population. Give Mr. Knight a chance to tax all the sewing women in the country and he will "let up" on the millionaires with the greatest pleasure. In like manner Mr. Torrey, also of Massachusetts, wanted a larger increase of duty on low-grade razors than on high-grade. And this witness had the impudence to admit that he was now making a fair profit on the razors he sold, but said that he wanted to enlarge his business, and he believed that he could do this if he could have low-grade foreign razors excluded. He employed about seventy men, he said, but of course he represented American labor, the 70,000 barbers in the United States being presumably foreigners, or at all events of no account.

The question of the sugar duties is reaching an acute stage, and one which is likely to give Chairman McKinley much trouble. The New Orleans *Times-Democrat* endorses the position taken by ex-Gov. Warmoth of Louisiana and Representative Peters of Kansas, that the sugar-growers do not want a bounty of one cent per pound or of any other rate per pound. A bounty, it says, could not possibly last more than one or two years. The people would "see through it" and repeal it, and then the cane and sorghum-growers would be without protection, while the other tariff beneficiaries would be getting their fill as before. The Boston *Advertiser*, on the other hand, thinks that "the greatest good to the greatest number should be the motto," and that therefore the opposition of the planters to the bounty system might properly be disregarded. Touching the duty on refined sugar, the *Advertiser* takes a conservative stand, because the cost of bone black is greater in this country than in Europe, and because the original cost of the sugar-refining plants is also greater. No remarks issue from the *Advertiser*, as yet, on the capitalization of the Sugar Trust and the relation thereof to the "original cost of the plants."

The *Dry Goods Economist* is justly indignant that the Department of Agriculture at Washington should have gone before the Committee of Ways and Means and asked that a duty of a dollar a pound be imposed on raw silk in order to encourage the silk-worm industry in this country. The only producer of raw silk in this country, according to the *Economist*, is the Government itself, through a bureau of the Agricultural Department. All the silk thus produced does not amount to 20,000 pounds annually, and this is produced at a loss. The importation amounts to over 6,000,000 pounds. Putting a tax of $6,000,000 on the silk-manufacturers would, the *Economist* says, kill an established industry in order to put a new one on an uncertain basis. Any man who seriously advances a proposition of that kind is a confirmed harlequin, and ought to be beaten with a stuffed club. There are a good many whose backs call for such treatment just now, as for example the tin-plate men and the alleged growers of carpet wool. But these are private persons looking out for their own interests. The Agricultural Department is supposed to have some sort of care for public interests.

The dispute between the wool-growers and the carpet-manufacturers as to the duties on "wools of the third class" is no nearer settlement than it was when Mr. Whitman and Mr. Delano closed their spicy correspondence last October. On the contrary, the Boston *Journal of Commerce* of December 11 says that "the radical demands of wool-growers, and the pertinacity with which they are adhered to, render agreement upon some plan an impossibility." Further evidence pointing to the same conclusion is found in an article in the *Tribune* of the same date, taking the wool-growers' side of the controversy, and putting the argument on the curious ground that it is *dishonest* to use wools of the third class for any purpose but carpet-making. There is, however, no law in this country, or in any other, we believe, which requires a buyer of wool, or of cows' hair, or of hogs' bristles, to use the same for a particular purpose. The tariff describes the wools in questions as "carpet wools and other similar wools," but if it had described them as carpet wools exclusively, it would still do no violence to the Ten Commandments for a man to make a chair cushion out of such wools, if he found them adapted to that purpose.

The *Tribune* and its correspondent in Brazil are wrestling with these facts, sent by the correspondent:

"The exports to Brazil from the United States have fallen from $9,252,094 in 1883 to $8,127,883 in 1887 and $7,137,008 in 1888, while the imports from that country have exceeded $53,000,000. While England contributes 40 per cent. of the imports received at Rio,

France 12 per cent., and Germany 9½ per cent., the United States has the fourth place on the list, contenting itself with 7 or 8 per cent. At the same time Americans receive 66 per cent. of the products exported from that port. While England virtually balances its imports from Brazil by furnishing 45 per cent. of the exports to that country, the United States purchases more than one-half of the surplus products, and contributes a comparatively insignificant fraction of the manufactures and foreign supplies."

Our buying from Brazil seven-tenths in value of her surplus articles does not persuade Brazil to buy much from us. There are steamers enough to bring hither that seven-tenths, and would be enough, if called for, to carry thither all Brazil will buy of us. What, then, is in the way of our sales to Brazil? The *Tribune* answers that Brazil seeks "cheap" goods. What will President Harrison think of men and women so deluded as to wish "cheap" goods? The *Tribune* scolds our manufacturers for their stupid obstinacy and indifference. They should compete with more enterprise and vigor. They should establish agencies, and send goods on consignment, which is precisely that which our protectionists complain of European manufacturers for doing to us. But the fact is our manufacturers cannot undersell Europeans in Brazil, and simply because our taxes prevent. It is cold in the mountains of Brazil, which is a country having, if we exclude Alaska, a larger area than ours, and the people require blankets; but we cannot sell blankets in Brazil in competition with England and Scotland. The smart women in Brazilian cities want smart shoes; but how can we undersell Parisians so long as we have to pay a tariff tax of 60 per cent. on the silk trimmings? Brazilians are large buyers of perfumery; but how can we compete with European sellers so long as our perfumery-makers are taxed 300 per cent. on alcohol, 45 per cent. on glass bottles, 30 per cent. on the stoppers, and 20 per cent. on the paper wrappers? For similar reasons we do not and cannot export to any country articles which, in the language of trade, are really manufactured articles, displaying the skill and labor of our artisans and weavers, and the perfection with which they can manipulate cotton, silk, flax, wool, wood, leather, iron, and steel.

It is quite true, as the Trenton *State Gazette* says, that the opposition to the Blair bill in the South is prompted in part by the fact that it involves "an assumption of 'paternal' functions by the general Government, and an invasion of the sovereignty and independence of the States." But it is a great mistake to suppose, as the *Gazette* in its ignorance apparently does, that the opposition to the measure on this ground is confined to Southern Democrats. On the contrary, it is fully shared by leading Republican Senators from the North. Mr. Hawley of Connecticut, for example, has said on this point: "This bill is a bill drawing into Federal control an interest that from the settlement of the continent to this day has been under local control, and wisely so. It would be the beginning of a permanent policy, a permanent new relation between the Federal Government and the States, and it would never go backward; it would never diminish its action." Mr. Plumb of Kansas was even more emphatic. "I see in it," he said, "the most dangerous endeavor I have ever witnessed to extend the power of the Federal Government at the expense not only of the State governments, but of every form of government within them." In the same tone said Mr. Hale of Maine: "All experience shows that in any field occupied jointly by the Federal and State Governments the absorption and aggression are in one direction. The Federal interest increases, and the Federal control increases, and it is the State interest that yields and grows indifferent and slothful." Republican newspapers have been equally outspoken on this point—the St. Paul *Pioneer Press*, for instance. We are persuaded that, if the *Gazette* will make a careful study of this question, it will be constrained to agree with the conclusion of the *Pioneer Press* that "the Blair bill is bad, in principle and practice, from the ground all the way up." Reports from Washington indicate that there is a growing disposition among Republican Senators and Representatives to follow the advice of the *Pioneer Press*, "Let every patriotic man in Congress speak and vote against it"; and that opposition to the scheme is also increasing among the Democrats, so that it is threatened with deserved defeat.

The suggestion that President Harrison might well appoint a Democrat to some future vacancy on the Supreme Bench, in view of the fact that only two of the present nine judges are members of that party, strikes the Albany *Evening Journal* as the height of absurdity. It says of it: "May the sound American idea of party power and party responsibility never be lost sight of, and may civil-service nonsense never so completely delude the American people that the party voted into power shall be deprived of the legitimate fruits of its victory. The demoralization that would result would be a disaster to the public. 'Nonpartisan politics' is a day-dream of the Mugwump—the ideal of the millennium, when peace, good-will, and free-trade will exist throughout the world. Put none but Republicans on guard!" All this betrays most extraordinary ignorance as to the decisions actually made by the Republicans who have been appointed judges of the Supreme Court. The most important ones have been decisions annulling acts passed by Republican Senators and Representatives, on the ground that these acts were unconstitutional. The truth is, that it makes very little difference whether Presidents "put none but Republicans on guard" in the Supreme Court so long as these Republicans render decisions which command the heartiest approval of Democrats. The argument for appointing a Democrat is not that he would take any different view of the Constitution from Justice Miller and the other Republican judges, but that, in a country where the voters are divided almost evenly between the two parties, it seems hardly fair that one of those parties should have only two representatives out of the nine men on the Supreme Bench.

As for the argument that "such a thing did not happen in Cleveland's time," it is of course absurd. The Federal judiciary being almost entirely composed of Republicans when Mr. Cleveland became President, he was not called upon to appoint Republicans to fill vacancies in order to equalize such honors between the two parties. A Republican President might well follow the example set in this matter by the Republicans of New England. Although that party has controlled Vermont without interruption ever since its formation, and Massachusetts and Maine with only slight breaks, the majority have recognized the justice and wisdom of allowing the minority a representation in the courts, and Democrats have been given judgeships of the highest courts in those States at times when none but Republicans need have been put on guard. There is no doubt that this practice has conduced to popular respect for these tribunals in New England, and what is true of New England would hold true of the whole country. The first essential to a judicial tribunal is that it shall command the respect of the people without distinction of party, and a representation of both parties is the surest way to command such respect.

A fresh attempt is about to be made to induce Congress to authorize an increase of the salaries of Federal judges in this State, and we sincerely hope that it will succeed. Similar efforts have been made in every Congress for many years, but, for some inscrutable reason, have resulted in nothing. Nobody can claim that the salaries paid at present are anything like what they should be. As a matter of fact they are not sufficient to enable the recipients of them to live respectably. A United States District Court judge receives only $4,000 a year, and a Circuit judge receives only $6,000, from which he must pay his own travelling expenses and private clerk hire. The absurd inadequacy of these salaries is more than ever apparent when we compare them with those paid to New York State and city judges. Our Supreme Court judges receive $17,500, those of the Superior and Common Pleas Courts $15,000. We even pay our police justices, scarcely one of whom is a lawyer by profession, $8,000, and our civil justices $6,000. When Mr. Lacombe, who was one of the ablest Corporation Counsels this city has ever had, resigned from that office to accept an appointment as Federal Circuit Judge, he gave up a salary of $12,000 to receive one of $6,000. This is a sacrifice which men of legal and judicial talent ought not to be asked by the Government to make, and it is one which few of them can or will consent to make. The inevitable result is, therefore, that the Government cannot, except in rare instances, command the services of the very men whom it is most desirable to have upon the Supreme Bench. Present salaries ought at least to be doubled, and this Congress ought to authorize the increase without hesitation or delay.

RICH MEN IN THE SENATE.

Mr. Calvin S. Brice has been elected to the Senate from Ohio, with doubts hanging over his qualification as an "inhabitant," and with no equipment worth mention in the matter of political experience, and, in fact, without any generally recognized equipment except great wealth. This is sure to bring up once more, between now and his taking his seat, the much-bruited question of the gradual occupation of the Senate by men noted only for their riches. On this point the founders seem to have eased their minds by forbearing to exact a property qualification. Story refers to it in the following curious passage:

"In concluding this topic, it is proper to remark that no qualification whatever, as to property, is required in regard to Senators, any more than in regard to Representatives. Merit and talent have, therefore, the freest access open to them into each branch of the Legislature. Under such circumstances, if the choice of the people is but directed by a suitable sobriety of judgment, the Senate cannot fail of being distinguished for wisdom, for learning, for exalted patriotism, for incorruptible integrity, and for inflexible independence."

Story's belief evidently was, and he doubtless shared it with most of the political philosophers both of his own generation and that immediately preceding it, that if the people were relieved from the legal necessity of choosing rich men for the high offices of State, they would inevitably choose men of "merit and talent." By merit and talent he plainly meant merit and talent displayed in other ways than in the accumulation of wealth. What we know of the social and political conditions of those days warrants us in supposing that he thought persons distinguished for their oratory, or their legal knowledge, or their capacity as legislators or administrators would be sure to command the popular choice in preference to men distinguished only for the amount of property they possessed. And he was certainly right in his conclusion as to his own time. Where he erred was, in supposing that he was laying down a rule of general application and indefinite duration. Eminence qualifying a man for high office in the popular eye varies from age to age with social or economical conditions. Between the establishment of the Government and the outbreak of the civil war the process of making a fortune was a slow one, and the fortune when made was never very large. It was made, too, for the most part, on the old Poor Richard lines—that is, by industry combined with strict economy. There were but few chances of lucky speculation. Moreover, even large fortunes were spent without splendor or display. Manners were simple, and the means of ostentation, even for the ostentatiously disposed, were scanty.

Under these conditions, intellectual eminence of some kind was almost the only eminence known. The minister, the judge, the successful lawyer, the college president, professors, and authors, were the great men of the day, and their greatness the only kind of greatness that seemed possible to the popular mind, except that of the successful naval or military commander. The rich man, noted for nothing but his riches, was not thought of as a great man at all, because riches were hardly ever the result of any remarkable mental exertion. Those, therefore, were the golden days of the orator and lecturer and editor and the literary man. They filled the popular imagination. The orator had a better chance of the Senate than anybody, and walked about with a following of admirers such as have waited on greatness in no other country since the Roman patricians led their clients on fine mornings down to the Forum. The Senate between 1800 and 1860 was pretty sure to contain whatever eminence of this sort each State possessed.

All this has been changed, mainly, though not wholly, because our economic conditions have changed. The clergy have lost their eminence, owing to the weakening of theological beliefs and the consequent loosening of the bonds of church organization. The judges have lost a good deal of their influence under the operation of the elective system, and the bar has suffered in dignity and consequence through the diminished authority of the bench. The writers and orators held their own fairly, owing to the support they received from the great moral enthusiasm of the anti-slavery struggle. But the war brought into sudden overwhelming importance the military men, or men of action, and correspondingly depressed the "book-men" and "littery fellers." For ten years after Appomattox, military eminence was the only eminence that counted for much either in politics or society. The soldiers came home, and married the pretty women, and got nominated for anything they took a fancy to. They got the Presidency, and a considerable share of the House and Senate, and of the Governorships and Lieutenant-Governorships, and in fact were literally "cocks of the walk." But their day began to pass when the great speculators, the oil, coal, iron, and railroad men, began to appear on the scene under the influence of the immense premiums offered to money-making talent by the debased currency, the high tariff, and the opening of the great West by the new lines of railroad. The talent of the country then began to be turned into the money-making field, which offered for the first time materials for combinations that might task anybody's intellectual powers, and returned in a few years fortunes such as the world has not seen since the Roman procurators came home laden with the plunder of the provinces.

Under these circumstances, rich men having become the popular heroes, it is not surprising that they get the honors and rewards which in Story's day were reserved, and he thought would be reserved for ever, for a different kind of merit. Every generation has its own sign of worldly success, and bestows its trusts on the men who can show it, and infers from their possession of it all the more useful virtues. The misfortune is that wealth is an unusually untrustworthy sign, and can only be relied upon in about half the cases. It is an eminence which, though often the reward of character and capacity, is often won without either. But this, too, shall pass, as the poet says. There is sure to be a reaction against it, as against all titles to fame which will not bear strict examination. In politics, as in business, moth and rust do corrupt, and thieves break through and steal. It will give place in its turn to something more enduring, when the present great opportunities for acquiring it have diminished.

HISTORY OF THE SIX-MILLION-DOLLAR CASE.

If Congress had not thrown down the reins and surrendered itself to be whirled whithersoever the tariff beneficiaries wish to go, it would order a serious investigation into the origin and history of the tax gathering which the Supreme Court has recently condemned, for a second time, as unauthorized, arbitrary, and lawless in the case of hat-bands and bonnet-trimmings. Fifty per cent. ad valorem was the monstrous and indefensible exaction levied, by a sort of lynch law, upon the women of the country. The magnitude of the annual exaction can be inferred from the estimate that the refund to a very few importers who protested and sued will reach $6,000,000. How could there have been such executive blundering in the beginning, and such obstinate adherence to the blunder after so many warnings by the courts? What personal motive allured or pushed on Treasury officials to enforce this illegal tax?

On February 27, 1884, the Arthur-Folger Administration, on the advice of Attorney-General Brewster, decided the rate on bonnet-trimmings to be as the Supreme Court has just now decided. Somehow or other the question went to the Supreme Court, and it sustained Secretary Folger, who was a wise and competent lawyer. The Treasury, under Mr. Fairchild, instead of sending to the customs officers the *text* of the Supreme Court decision, sent a misleading summary on April 25, 1888. On May 31, 1888, Collector Magone had the rate on the article in question before him, and he directed that 20 per cent. be levied, as the Supreme Court had decreed. Appraiser McMullen did not indicate a rate. Naval-Officer Burt refused to liquidate the entry at that rate, because the Treasury instructions of April 25, 1888, in his opinion, required 50 per cent. The disagreement accordingly went to the Department at Washington. On May 15 Mr. Maynard, Assistant Secretary, wrote to Collector Magone, saying that it had been represented to the Department, "at a personal interview by Mr. Cheney and other silk-manufacturers," that some doubts existed in the minds of appraising officers at the port of New York "as to the scope of the Department's instructions of the 25th ult., addressed to the Collector of Philadelphia for the purpose of carrying out the decision of the United States Supreme Court in the case of Hartranft vs. Langfeldt." In order to establish uniformity in classification of such goods at the several ports, Mr. Maynard directed that the general principles as laid down in the instructions be examined by the Conference of Ap-

praisers. The Conference reported on July 26, and, acting upon their report, the Department decided against Collector Magone's 20 per cent. and in favor of Naval-Officer Burt's 50 per cent. rate.

On August 28 a New York manufacturer, Mr. Curtiss, complained to the Treasury that 50 per cent. was levied at New York and only 20 per cent. at Philadelphia, adding that the difference "involves our *existence*," to which Mr. Maynard replied that orders had been given which would restore uniformity. Those orders put up Philadelphia to 50 per cent., as the New York Appraising Board advised. That was on August 31, in the midst of a Presidential campaign on an issue made by the Democratic party for lower duties.

In the next month but one thereafter the suit of Wanamaker (the present Postmaster-General) vs. Cadwalader was brought to trial before Judge McKennan and a jury. It presented the very same question of 20 or 50 per cent. rate. The importer produced and examined forty witnesses and the Collector twenty, and a judgment was entered against the Treasury. The District Attorney, who was beaten, advised the Department that the court was all wrong in its law, and, without taking the advice of the Attorney-General, the suit was appealed by the Treasury Department to the Supreme Court, and the 50 per cent. exaction continued.

On October 5 Mr. Maynard applied to the President of the Silk Association of America for his advice "as to what steps should be taken by the Government in the premises"; and the latter repaired to Washington. Ten days afterwards the Department wrote to District-Attorney Walker of New York that it had been told that witnesses could be had in that city to prove that 50 per cent. was the true rate, and asking if another suit could be tried there at an early day. On October 17, 1888, the District Attorney said that there were a lot of such suits on the calendar, but he added:

"The case of Edelhoff vs. Robertson, No. 9063, tried in this district in April, 1886, is now pending on appeal in the United States Supreme Court. This case involve the proper construction of T. I. 448, Schedule N."

That is the suit just decided by the Supreme Court.

On November 7, 1888, Collector Magone wrote to the Department for more definite orders as to whether the rate should be 20 or 50, saying he had levied 50, but adding:

"If you affirm our action, we will assess duty at 50 per cent. ad valorem. If, on the contrary, you feel compromised, *either by the decisions of the courts* or previous action of the Department, or differ from us as to the construction of paragraph 448, then we will assess duty as you may advise."

On November 13 the Department did not object to 50 per cent., and said:

"In this connection it may be mentioned that the United States Attorney at your port has been requested to prepare for trial, and to try at the first favorable opportunity, a suit which may involve a full consideration of the questions now pending, as to the proper classification of so-called hat-bands and other similar merchandise; and also that the U. S. Attorney at Philadelphia has been requested to take the necessary steps for having the case of Wanamaker vs. Cadwalader, recently tried at that port, concerning the classification of fancy ribbons, taken to the United States Supreme Court for review."

Two days afterwards the Treasury again appealed to the President of the Silk Association of America for advice, and on December 17 Collector Magone begged Assistant-Secretary Maynard to come to New York and help the Custom-house out of the worries into which it had been plunged by the hat-band and bonnet-trimming business. The importers said they had sold goods to arrive on the basis of 20 per cent., and by reason of the recent 50 per cent. decision they were in deep distress. The Treasury decided at first that goods *ordered* prior to the order increasing the tax to 50 per cent. be admitted at 20 per cent., and those ordered afterwards must pay 50. That made such a confusion and rumpus that finally the Treasury Department ordered, on December 20, 1888, that the bonnet-trimmings and hat-bands arriving before January 1, 1889, could be admitted at 20 per cent., but all after that date must pay 50 per cent. If that is not increasing customs taxes by an executive order, what is it?

We have been at the trouble to gather the foregoing facts and dates in order to convince the most sceptical what sort of a taxing system it is under which they live. The recent decision of the Supreme Court puts the illegality of the 50 per cent. exaction beyond question or cavil.

CANADIAN RAILROAD COMPETITION.

Mr. Erastus Wiman, before the Senate Committee on Canadian Relations, said recently that he was authorized to state that Canada would be willing to conform its railroad system to the principles of our Inter-State Commerce Law if necessary to continue its carriage of American products. Details were not given, but presumably Mr. Wiman referred principally to the long-and-short haul provision of our law. It is generally believed that the Canadian Pacific, on its long lines, charges its local shippers more than it receives from American transit trade. The value of the American carrying-trade to the Canadian Pacific must increase in the future, and our roads may as well prepare themselves for a yet stronger competition from Canadian lines. The logic of the situation is driving the Canadian Pacific more and more to seek American trade. A part of its present advantages, both of Government guarantee of dividends and of monopoly, must shortly come to an end. Besides this, the reputation of its managers is at stake. The Canadian people have invested a great many millions in this railroad. If in a few years the road does not show a substantial business, its managers will have to meet a dissatisfied people. Where will this growth of traffic come from? Not from Canada, because there is not enough business there to make the good showing required. It is known that Government and railroad are much disappointed over the failure to settle large numbers of immigrants in the Northwestern provinces, as expected. Whatever the reason may be, the fact is true that it is the United States, and not Canada, which is showing the great increase in volume of trade. To the American transit trade, therefore, the Canadian Pacific must turn if it would show a business large enough to justify the expectations of its projectors and creditors.

If political union or annexation were to be looked for soon, the solution of the larger problem would solve the transportation question also; but that prospect seems very remote. Meanwhile our American railroads think themselves unjustly treated wherever they find themselves paying higher prices for supplies or wages, while at the same time limited as to rates by the competition of their Canadian rivals. Certainly our lines should be freed from the restrictions of the Inter-State Law whenever subject to such Canadian competition. This would not need additional legislation, but only an expression of opinion on the part of Congress and the people that Canadian competition constitutes such dissimilar circumstances and conditions as are mentioned as sufficient excuses in the law itself.

One of the ramifications of this Canadian transportation question is shown by the recent complaint of the Board of Trade and Transportation of this city, and the reply of the Pennsylvania Railroad just made. This complaint in brief is, that railroads charge regular tariff rates on merchandise shipped from New York, while accepting a less sum as a proportion of a through rate, say, from Liverpool to Chicago. Doubtless this has proved a serious matter for New York merchants in certain branches of trade, more serious than the small percentage of imports credited to Western cities as ports of entry would indicate; one reason being that such direct imports (at a less through rate) fix the prices and profits at which all sales must be made. The reply of the Pennsylvania is, that such through combined ocean and land rates are made in competition with similar routes through Canada. In the export case last summer the Inter-State Commission decided that the railroads must charge the same sum to the seaboard whether the grain was for export or for domestic consumption. Logically, the Commission is bound, therefore, to declare the same rule in the present complaint. If the view is the correct one that, in the nature of things, Canadian competition must increase, we may shortly find that we have really legislated in favor of the export and import trade of Canadian ports. Montreal, and perhaps Quebec, with the ports further east, would be glad to be thus assisted. On the other hand, it would be unjust to ask our American carriers to accept on all their traffic the rates fixed on part of the same by Canadian through water and rail lines. It is a difficult question at the best, and the Inter-State Commerce Commission in its late annual report was glad to put the whole matter upon Congress without recommendation.

One way of escape from this export and import perplexity has not been tried, though, if practicable, it would be in line with the theory of exemption of our carriers from the Inter-State Law under Canadian competition. That plan is one of rebates under

careful restrictions: that American carriers, in the Board of Trade and Transportation case, should be allowed to quote the same through-rate to Chicago via New York as via Montreal; that when a shipment was made from New York of a quantity of an article proved by custom-house papers to have been previously imported, a rebate equalizing the through European rate should be paid. This is the plan now pursued at Boston on exports, which works well. New York would present more complications, and, besides this, severe fluctuations of the through-rate would be a serious difficulty in adjusting such a rebate. Possibly the control of ocean steamships by railroads would tend towards steadiness of rates, and in general favor the settlement of our export and import transportation questions. Any plan must have in view two things: the ever present low-rate quotations to and from our interior cities and Europe via Canadian carriers and Canadian ports, and next, the right of the American seaboard merchants to continue sharing in our import and export trade.

THE ANGLO-PORTUGUESE TROUBLE.

THE difficulty between Portugal and Great Britain which Lord Salisbury has so summarily terminated, began by the publication, in the Lisbon *Official Gazette* on the 9th of November last, of a royal decree placing under Portuguese administration a vast territory in the interior of Africa, both north and south of the Zambesi, to which the Portuguese Government gave the name of Zumbo. It embraced on one side a large part of Mashonaland, and to the north an immense region close to the frontier of the Congo Free State, and to the dividing line of Lake Nyassa. Lord Salisbury thereupon called the attention of the Portuguese Minister to the fact that Mashonaland was already a British dependency, and that Portuguese pretensions to any part of it could not be allowed; that the convention between Lobengula, King of Mashonaland and Makalakaland and Great Britain, concluded on the 11th of February, 1888, had been duly communicated to Portugal and published in Cape Colony.

He added that the British Government could not recognize Portuguese pretensions to the country north of the Zambesi; that the territory there claimed by Portugal lay along the river Loangwa, with the tribes on both sides of which the British Government had concluded treaties, and that the Portuguese pretensions in that region were incompatible with British rights resulting from the creation of English settlements on the River Shiré and the banks of Lake Nyassa. Besides this, Portugal had pretended to establish jurisdiction over vast unoccupied territories principally discovered by English explorers. Lord Salisbury reminded M. Barros Gomès that in August, 1887, he had by formal note warned the Portuguese Government that no claim of sovereignty or jurisdiction not supported by occupation or effective military possession would be submitted to.

After the receipt of this note—that is, on the 16th of December—came news from Mashonaland of the 8th of August, from M. Alvaro Castellões, who was making surveys for a railroad in Mashonaland. His story was, in brief, that the natives of various tribes had driven off his surveying parties, and had finally compelled him, after some severe fighting, to fortify himself and await the reinforcements from Maj. Serpa Pinto, the commander of the military escort, and that these attacks had been instigated and directed by two Englishmen, brothers, named Petit. Almost immediately after this, came a telegram dated November 17 from Mashonaland, announcing the arrival on the scene of Maj. Serpa Pinto, with Gatling guns, with the aid of which he defeated and drove off the native forces with great slaughter, and forthwith became the hero of the hour at Lisbon. In the midst of the enthusiasm came Lord Salisbury's cool and crushing ultimatum. It compelled Gomès's resignation and a complete surrender, but the mob got some satisfaction by breaking the windows of the British Embassy at Lisbon.

The truth is, that Portugal, after having been the first Power to explore or make any considerable settlements in Africa, has made no progress there in two centuries, has exerted no influence on the civilization of the continent, has been cruel in her treatment of the natives, and is accused, whether rightly or wrongly, of conniving at the slave trade and obstructing the efforts of other nations to abolish it. It is not surprising that her pride should have been wounded and her old ambition roused by seeing the inroads into the African wilderness made by England and Germany, but, considering that her population is small, stationary, and unenterprising, her financial situation wretched, the position of the monarchy precarious, the army small and of very poor quality, and her navy hardly worthy of the name, her entrance on the scene as a competing colonizer and conqueror must be pronounced an egregious piece of folly. The prompt check given to it by Lord Salisbury must undoubtedly be considered a blessing in disguise.

THE EUROPEAN EQUILIBRIUM.

PARIS, December 26, 1889.

THE preparations for war have never been greater than they are now all over Europe; even the neutral Powers have been roused from a long inertia, and are transforming their armaments, building fortifications, reorganizing their armies. Belgium covers the line of the Meuse with forts; Switzerland is building immense arsenals and new military roads. France has made a new military law: instead of keeping in the service all men from twenty to forty, she keeps now all men from twenty to forty-five, thus adding five generations to twenty and augmenting the number of fighting men by one-fifth. Besides, the institution of the one-year volunteers (copied from the German *einjährige*) has been abolished: all the young men are obliged to spend the same amount of time in the active army, whether they are educated or not, rich or poor; whether they intend to follow a liberal career or to become common laborers. Even the ecclesiastics have not been exempted: the seminarists will go to the barracks. This last article has been the great *cheval de bataille* of our modern republicans, who still repeat, with Gambetta, "Clericalism is the enemy," and who never lose an opportunity to show their hostility to the religious body.

Our armies will be enormous *on paper;* in time of war the whole nation will be in arms. We now read articles in the military papers in which there is, for instance, discussion of a cavalry corps of 60,000 men placed under the independent command of a single general. Imagine 60,000 horsemen invading a province! I was reading some time ago a letter from Turenne to Mazarin. He had at the time a little army of 12,000 men under his orders, and he complained that his horses could find nothing to eat—they were so weak that they had not the strength to go to water. Future armies will be like the plagues of Egypt: the difficulty will be to feed these millions of men. The vision of the horrors of future wars has a calming effect on the imagination, and I can not remember the time when French chauvinism was so subdued. Though the belief in war is in all minds, the time is left vague. "Après moi le déluge," as Louis XV. once said.

If the ideas dormant in every mind could find an expression, it would be this: We shall not begin war; to which must be added: If Russia and Germany should go to war, we could not help joining Russia and taking our opportunity. The same thing is probably thought in Russia; the solitary will of the Emperor is also waiting for some external cause of action. Personally, the Emperor is pacific; he is said to have a great horror of war. He knows that his country did not gain much by the last Eastern war, the siege of Plevna and the march on Constantinople. But could he remain neutral if France and Germany were again belligerent? Could he allow the political annihilation of France? He has been urged, over and over again, to join the Triple Alliance—he has probably been tempted in a thousand ways; but his people could find no compensation for the predominance of the German element in Europe—a hegemony which would destroy for ever the political equilibrium of the Continent.

In order to obey the aspirations of his country and to preserve the existing equilibrium of forces, the Emperor of Russia has adopted a passive attitude. His sullenness for a moment appeared to verge on hostility. The young Emperor of Germany, as soon as he ascended the throne, made it his duty to pay a visit to Russia. It was the first of the series which he thought it necessary to make to his brother sovereigns. The visit of the Emperor of Russia was returned very late, so late that great anxiety was felt in Germany and all over Europe. When at last it took place, the anxiety was, it may be said, intense. What was going to happen in the interview? Its external features were noted with the greatest care; but these features are almost invariably the same. Exchanges of uniforms do not mean exchanges of ideas. There was no witness to the most important conversation which took place—the long conversation between the Emperor of Russia and the Chancellor of Germany. But the diplomatic correspondence which ensued has allowed us to form some idea of the exchange of views which took place on that occasion.

Prince Bismarck had no easy task. The Russian press had been constantly denouncing him as the enemy of Russia; he was obliged to prove, by official documents, that in every important circumstance his instructions to his agents had been inspired, with regard to Rus-

sia, by the most friendly sentiments. His enemies had not hesitated, in order to influence the mind of the Czar, to use once more documents which were wanting in authenticity. His exposition of his diplomacy is said to have been listened to in silence, and, at the end of it, the Emperor thanked the Chancellor for it, and told him that he was glad to receive the assurances which were made to him; at the same time, if the German Empire entertained nothing but friendly sentiments towards Russia, their way (a very simple way) to prove it was not to give any support to the order of things existing in Bulgaria, which was contrary to the letter of the Treaty of Berlin. It is easy to imagine that, on these terms, the conversation could not be carried very far; the Emperor of Russia, however, declared that he would not oppose by force the irregular order of things now existing in Bulgaria; that he would content himself with not recognizing it.

Before the interview took place there had been some talk of this recognition by Italy, by Austria afterwards, and even by the Porte. Many articles had been thrown out as feelers in this direction. The Chancellor of Germany was not long in understanding that any partial recognition would be useless, as the Treaty of Berlin requires unanimity in this case; he understood also that if Russia refused her recognition, France would do the same, as these two Powers, by a sort of tacit agreement, combine their action in every important measure. The signatures of Prussia, of Italy, of Austria on one side, with perhaps those of England and the Porte a little time afterwards, and on the other side the protests of Russia and of France, would have given too vivid a form to the constellation of political forces, to use a current German expression. What is useless in politics is generally not only useless, but dangerous. It was therefore determined that things should remain *ad infinitum* in the present state; the Bulgarian Government will no more be recognized by its friends than by its enemies; it will remain in Europe as a permanent danger to peace.

However, so long as a danger is not imminent, it seems less formidable. Bulgaria will have to count on time, on the unforeseen incidents of political life; if she is wise, she will take good care of her finances. If she organizes her army, especially if she builds railways and becomes an important line of communication between Austria-Hungary and the East, she will some day reap the benefit of her patience. The present King of Rumania was for a long time unacknowledged, and he seems now tolerably firm on his throne. Nevertheless, it cannot be denied that the whole Eastern question may be reopened at any moment, that the little nationalities which have sprung up in various parts of the Ottoman Empire do not seem to have in themselves great elements of independent vitality. Russia is longing for Constantinople, and we can hardly imagine her, in Constantinople, surrounded by a host of small sovereigns and small nationalities. The orthodox Czar will always be tempted to rule over all the orthodox Christians of the East. The difficulties and complications of the Eastern question are numberless; and the Eastern question cannot be reopened without endangering the peace of the world. The smallest spark may set fire to the combustible materials which for the last twenty years have been accumulating in Europe.

We can, therefore, say with reason: "They cry, Peace, peace, but there is no peace." The philanthropic effusions of the Exhibition of 1889 in Paris must not deceive us; we may build higher and higher towers, larger and larger halls; humanity remains fundamentally the same. It is a very materialistic view to believe that because men are better clothed, and warmed, and lighted, they are really better. The moral work of humanity is not comparable to its physical work. We are too often deceived by words. The Republic which has been proclaimed in a moment of stupor at Rio Janeiro, will, I am afraid, have little in common with the Republic which was organized a hundred years ago by the founders of the American Constitution, and it is but a narrow view of politics to divide all the governments of the world, as Montesquieu did in his 'Esprit des Lois,' into three categories. The German Empire of the North of Germany does not much resemble the German Empire of the South, and much less the Russian Empire. Constitutional government as carried on at Bucharest or at Sofia has little in common with the same government as it is understood in London or in Brussels. The present French Republic is a republic *sui generis*, and, even now that Gen. Boulanger is living an obscure life in one of the Channel Islands, can we forget that less than a year ago he was the idol of Paris, which elected him its representative by the largest vote ever obtained in this capital? Can we forget that, two years ago, he was the favorite of the men who are now in power, and their Minister of War?

Without being too much of a "laudator temporis acti," I may perhaps be allowed to say that our time suffers from the absence of any great ruling principles. Everything seems uncertain; there is not a country in Europe—and I will not even except England—where you can be thoroughly tranquil about the future. The great wars initiated by the Second Empire, after long years of peace and quiet, produced a perturbation which is not yet ended. We all feel instinctively that Europe has not found a real state of equilibrium. This uncertainty produces an uneasiness which is felt in all the relations of life. We live from day to day, and dare not look too much into the future.

THE POPE AND IRELAND.

ROME, December 17, 1889.

IT is curious to see how long the newspapers have kept up the superstition of the pressure of the English Government on the Pope to induce him to "pacify Ireland." The English Government has no channel of official communication with the Vatican, and has had none since the Jubilee mission of the Duke of Norfolk; and I know from the lips of his Grace that he had never any negotiations on the subject of Ireland with anybody at the Vatican, that political topics were never discussed in his interviews either with the Pope or the Secretary of State. With the cessation of his mission ceased all official intercourse between the Pope and the English Government, only to be renewed with the coming, a few weeks ago, of the mission of Gen. Sir John Linthorn Simmons to arrange the relations of ecclesiastical and civil affairs in the island of Malta. This Ambassador Extraordinary is a soldier, former Governor of Malta, and I have his personal assurance that his mission has no relation to any part of the English dominions except that island. Between these two there has been no attempt to carry on diplomatic intercourse between the English Government and the Vatican.

This statement is as positive as anything which can be said in opposition to it, because the presence of any person for the purpose of such intercourse in Rome could not escape the habitual observers of affairs which are watched with so much jealousy, nor could the negotiations long escape discovery. Being in more or less familiar intercourse with leading and influential Catholics resident in Rome as well as English Catholics temporarily here, I am able to assert, with a positiveness which does not fear denial, that the English Government has never in a direct or an indirect manner applied any pressure or urgency, officially or officiously, at the Vatican to induce the Pope to "pacify Ireland." If men had not their minds heated by partisan excitement so as to be unable to see clearly, they would understand that the English Government, being a Protestant Government, besides being dependent on public opinion for existence, could not permit the Pope to interpose his authority between itself and the subjects of the Queen without incurring a danger greater than it has now to meet. Nothing in the entire history of England is clearer than that, since the day of Henry VIII., every ruler of the kingdom has repected, *bon gré mal gré*, the jealousy of the English people of any foreign intervention in the affairs of the country, and that to-day the Pope, were he ever so much disposed, would not be permitted to mediate between the Government and what it regards in the light of domestic insurrection. I am convinced that any person competent to judge the position will agree with me that this is certain. There is not a Conservative in England, unless he be more Catholic than Englishman, who would not abandon a Government guilty of such a weakness.

And the facts of the case accord with this à priori view of it. Not only has the Government never desired the intervention of the Pope to "pacify" Ireland, but the Pope has never proposed to take any action which was open to the implication of meddling in Irish politics. It is my opinion that if the Irish people had risen in insurrection, or if they had proposed to rise, the Pope would have limited his action to advice to keep the peace, and this would have been in accordance with his general feeling and advice. But no rescript would or could have been issued, because the act of rebellion, as such, is a political act, and could not have been condemned as immoral by the Church, as boycotting and the plan of campaign were. This judgment, moreover, was not the act of the Pope, but of the College of Cardinals, composed in a large majority of Italians who have no sympathy with the interests of England or English landlords. The practical revolt against English law was not condemned, but the means by which this revolt was carried on, viz., boycotting, which is an act of excommunication, a prerogative which the Church reserves to itself, as well as judging of the conduct which justifies it; and the plan of campaign, which was a combination intended to interfere with the rights of property and the observance of contracts.

I am not going to enter into a discussion of Irish affairs on their merits—I am only stating facts of history. In the discussion of the nature of the disturbances in Ireland which made this rescript necessary, the English Government had no part; nor did it present, directly or indirectly, any case, which is indeed implied in my saying that it did not recognize the political character of the Pope. The Roman ecclesiastics have never taken a leading interest in the Irish affair. The English Government had nothing to offer the Pope or the Church, and the Church had nothing to ask of England. In the time when the matter was under consideration here I asked a leading cardinal what the Church wanted which England could give, and he replied, "Nothing." There was, and always is, a desire for some

method of official communication with the English Government on account of occasional irregularities in Catholic provinces under English rule, and even because the idea of being treated with as an independent sovereign has always been dear to the heart of the Pope; but this is recognized as at present impracticable, though the leading English statesmen of both parties, with the exception of Mr. Gladstone, are in favor of it. The Church has, therefore, no interest in the political side of the Irish question, or, if it have any, it would be due to the Irish ecclesiastics, who are mostly in favor of home rule. Their influence was, in fact, the strongest at work in Rome. The people who worked against them were not the English Ambassador or the Jubilee Embassy, but English Catholics and Irish Catholics who are loyal to the Government and suffering from the state of things in Ireland. These were the "emissaries" of the English Government, as Archbishop Walsh and his coadjutors were of the Home-Rulers.

To clear up the doubts of the authorities of the Church, called on to judge in such a conflict of interests, the Pope sent Monsignor Persico to examine on the spot all the elements of the problem. He heard everybody interested, and his report, made by letter and continuous, not embodied in an ecclesiastical blue-book, settled the question; and the decision of the College of Cardinals, registered among the immutable decisions of the Church, was the end of the discussion. Save certain letters or amplifications of the rescript, this ended the Pope's interference in the matter, and there has been no change in the attitude either of his Holiness or of the College of Cardinals since. The bishops and the priests have been left to their own consciences, and those who conform to the rescript, as those who do not, act on their own responsibility; the former respecting and the latter defying the decision of the authority they accept as infallible.

It is true that there is, in quarters where the Italian prelates are not regarded with favor, a certain impatience with the dominant influence they exert in Vatican matters; but so long as the Pope is Pope by force of his succession to St. Peter as Bishop of Rome, it is difficult to see how the affair can be otherwise arranged. The Church over which he is head is the most conservative of all human institutions, and this is the source of its greatest power over the minds of its adherents. The jealousy of the clergy of other countries is based on the belief that the influence of the Vatican is exerted with too little regard for other nations than the Italian, and is strengthened by the hope of getting a larger part of that influence. But what has nationality to do with this matter? The instant that the Church becomes national it ceases to be universal, and the immediate consequence would be that schisms would begin to appear. In Italy the Church is not under the control or influence of the State, but, on the contrary, in confirmed hostility to it. So far as the jealousies of the Catholics of other countries are concerned, this is a safe position for it to be in. In France there is no doubt that it would be under the influence of the clergy of that country, which would be, so far as the other Powers are concerned, a much more serious trouble. The "spirit of insubordination towards the Papacy on the part of the non-Italian element in the clergy" has nothing to do with Irish matters, nor is there any appearance of its "growing more rapidly of late," except among the Irish home-rule clergy. On the contrary, the zeal and devotion of the Catholics of all Europe have shown within the last year or two a very great intensification. The political prelates of all nations desire to pocket the Church if possible, and the Italian hereditary guardians to keep it. The latter have long, perhaps always, kept the foreign prelates aloof, and it is not more with regard to the Irish than the English that this is true. I remember hearing a Scotch prelate, who stands very high in the esteem of the Pope, say one day that the Italian cardinals did not allow the English prelates to know much of what was going on at the Vatican, and this was precisely in relation to the Irish question, then at its crisis.

The Italian prelates seem to regard themselves as a kind of Levites, whose special virtue and function is to keep the Church from the "liberalization of Catholic theology," because they feel, and very justly, that the liberalization means dissolution in a greater or lesser mode. So far as an outsider can judge, the sound churchmen prefer the risks of apostasy and diminution of the numbers of the faithful to the weakening of the authority of the Church. The Church must maintain its principles beyond the matters of dogma, which, as all the world knows, are settled once for all. There are certain principles of social organization which the Church must uphold with all its authority short of a dogmatic declaration. The Church has the entire Catholic world to think of, and the precedents sought to be established by the Land League would hold equally in Italy, in Germany, Austria, and wherever landlords have tenants.

Out of Rome the greater part of the world seems to think that the Pope settles the questions brought before him in much the same manner that the Czar of Russia follows, and that the decisions he announces are the outcome of his individual cogitations; while the fact is that in no constitutional government now existing is there such profound and prolonged study of the questions to be answered; and, so far from any problem being solved by the opinions of one, however important, ecclesiastic, it employs the united thought and application of the Sacred College in its solution. There is not probably in the entire world another such case of grave and multiplex deliberation on moral questions; and the most solemn form of it was that in which the questions of boycotting and the plan of campaign were answered. The Irish bishops were here to urge all the considerations on their side; they were aided by all the influence of Cardinal Manning, the primate of the English Catholic Church, and against them were the greater part of the English Catholics and prelates resident in Rome, though of the former there were some influential individuals, such as Lords Ripon and Bute, on the side of the Home-Rulers. Under these circumstances, the Pope decided to send to Ireland a confidential representative, and through him learn the truth. The report of this emissary, an Italian, was submitted with all the prior arguments to the College of Cardinals, mainly Italians, and the question was decided by their unanimous verdict.

It is true that there are parties in the Church and opposing tendencies—mainly the Jesuits on one side and the more liberal orders on the other; but their antagonism hardly goes beyond differences as to the policy best calculated to restore the supremacy of the Church, and to apply the term liberal in its commonly understood sense to either party would be a mistake. When the Church begins to "liberalize," it begins to break up. The advantages in the control of the Church by the Italian clergy are, that, besides being the traditional guardians, they are the most conservative, and that the Italian nation has during so many centuries been non-existent (and, so far as the Church is concerned, is so still) that the Italian clergy is a neutral depositary of the Church's sanctions, avoiding all questions of precedence and rivalry, just as the Latin language serves to silence all claims of any living tongue. When the Church leaves its present seat, the first step is taken towards its nationalization, and the consequent and inevitable division into as many churches as there are nations. This it is, more than any desire to regain a temporal sovereignty, that impels the Pope and the Church to hold with such tenacity to the restoration of Rome. This it is which makes the "monopoly of ecclesiastical rule" necessarily Italian; and the more furious the struggle of nationalities in Europe, the more imperative it is that the Pope should be an Italian.

I have not treated the question as a Catholic, as any good Catholic will see, but as an observer who has lived long under the influence of the Papacy, and studied its workings without prejudice or hostility, as without any sympathy with its doctrines or tendencies.

W. J. S.

THE WHIGS OF 1832.—I.

LONDON, December 23, 1889.

PAST politics are the dreariest and the most instructive of studies. Whoever doubts their dreariness should try to read through a volume of Hansard, say for 1832. If our sceptic accomplish his task, he will never again maintain that the details of bygone political battles can be otherwise than wearisome. Whoever questions the instructiveness of the dullest political annals, should read with care Mr. Walpole's 'Life of Lord John Russell,'* and the 'Melbourne Papers.' Neither book is lively reading. The biography is the political life of an able but uninteresting statesman, written by a painstaking but dull biographer. The Papers are disappointing; they are the fragmentary pieces of a fragmentary correspondence, which give tantalising glimpses into the mind of a Minister whose personality was far more original than his policy, and whose true character remains to the end an undeciphered enigma.

But books which disappoint a reader's hope for interest may yet amply satisfy a student's desire for instruction. From them he may learn to understand the causes both of the success and the failure of that Whig party whereof the name hardly survives and the effective influence has long become a thing of the past.

"Over the past not heaven itself has power:
What has been has, and I have had my hour."

These are words more than once applied by Lord John Russell to his own career; they might be appropriately inscribed on a monument to the Whigs of 1832. These men, of whom no Englishman should ever speak but with the profoundest respect, "had their hour." What did they accomplish? The true answer is, that they rendered to their nation, and through England to the world, three immense services, of which the first earned for its authors a vast though transitory popularity; the second brought upon them bitter, though undeserved, popular hatred; the third, and perhaps the greatest, excited little notice at the time, and is now all but forgotten.

Their first achievement was to carry the Reform Bill. What this measure meant to the men of 1832 it is difficult for men living in

* 'Life of Lord John Russell.' By Spencer Walpole. Longmans, Green & Co.

1890 to understand. A lapse of more than half a century is of itself sufficient to place a great gulf between the present generation and a generation who found their leaders, and, so to speak, deliverers, in Grey and Russell and Brougham. But it is not the mere lapse of time which makes it so hard for us to-day to appreciate the real meaning of "reform." The whole state of public and, if one may use the expression, of private opinion also, has undergone a fundamental but subtle revolution which even reflecting persons find it the harder to understand because in England the change has not been marked by the phenomena of revolutionary violence. The essential difference, in so far as it can be summed up in a sentence, may be thus defined. The men of 1832 had grown up in a period during which not only reform but even alteration or improvement seemed all but impossible; fixity had become the law of English life and of English institutions. Modern Englishmen live in an age which has seen most things changed and which feels all things to be changeable. What gave to the Reform Bill its true significance was that it visibly terminated the era of immobility. It changed much; it opened the prospect of far greater changes. The year 1832 was to thousands of Englishmen what 1789 was to thousands of Frenchmen—the opening of a new age. British enthusiasm took, as was natural, a milder and more rational form than the French frenzy of hope which heralded in the bloodshed of the Revolution. Englishmen did not hope, perhaps they did not care, to renovate Humanity. They did hope to reform their own institutions, and in due measure obtained the fulfilment of their desire.

The point to notice is that the Whig leaders, who were essentially among the most moderate of politicians, were, when they carried the Reform Bill, the representatives of something very like revolutionary sentiment. Hence the enthusiasm of followers; hence, too, the genuine fear and hatred of opponents. The fervor of men so little fervid as Sydney Smith and Lord Cockburn was as genuine, and, we may add, neither more nor less natural than the fears of men as bold as Scott, the Duke of Wellington, or Croker. Schedule A and Schedule B contained a good deal more than the destruction of rotten boroughs; they virtually contained, though possibly the Whig leaders hardly saw this distinctly, the revolution, or the possibility of revolution, in the whole system of English life. Put the matter at the very lowest, the Reform Bill of 1832 was the transfer of political power from the landowners and the aristocracy to great traders and to the middle classes. The Whigs earned for the moment the popularity which belonged to men who suddenly carried through a change desired by the mass of their countrymen. Nor was the credit which the Whigs gained undeserved. As Parliamentary reformers, they deserve the praise which cannot often be given to English politicians, of boldly carrying through at one stroke as large a measure as the occasion demanded. It is easy for a critic in 1890 to say that the country would have gained if the Whigs, by extending the suffrage to all householders, had prevented the renewal during the century of the cry for reform. But it is more than doubtful whether in 1832 a measure more extensive than the Reform Act could have been passed, or, if passed, would have been beneficial. To pass the Act showed a boldness not often exhibited by British statesmanship.

The second achievement of the Whigs was the reform of the poor law. Of all the services which statesmen have within the century rendered to England, the introduction of the New Poor Law will, in the eyes of impartial critics, be esteemed the greatest. When an historian meditates upon the habitual cowardice of Parliamentary leaders, on the inevitable tendency of representative government to turn even upright politicians into worshippers of public opinion, and on the singular want of administrative capacity displayed by the Whigs of 1832, he will be filled both with admiration and wonder at the one piece of bold constructive legislation by which the Whigs saved England from ruin. For it is no exaggeration to say that pauperism was destroying the country, and that while the old system of relief lasted, the increase of pauperism was a moral, one might almost say a physical, certainty.

A glance at the report of the Commission which formed the basis of the New Poor Law, the perusal of the third volume of Walpole's 'History of England,' or a study of Miss Martineau's now forgotten tales in illustration of political economy, will easily convince the reader that this statement of the condition of England does not err on the side of exaggeration. The nation suffered from a dangerous disease which might prove fatal. The Whigs had the boldness to apply the true remedy. "The effects of the measure [the New Poor Law] were seen almost instantaneously. The cost of relief steadily decreased, and the burden of supporting the poor, which had exceeded £7,000,000 in 1832, was only slightly over £4,000,000 in 1837. . . . Moderate men could afford," adds Mr. Walpole, "to disregard the clamors of politicians like Cobbett, whose influence had already waned, and of young men like Mr. Disraeli, whose opportunity had not yet arrived." The glory of the Whig Ministry is that they disregarded the clamor of the people and saved the nation. They had their reward; they proved their patriotism and they lost their popularity, for no measure was ever more unpopular than the law which carried out the soundest maxims of political economy just where they came into conflict with the most widespread sentiment of injudicious charity. Politicians of all parties find it difficult enough to-day to support against popular feeling principles of poor relief which half a century and more has proved to be beneficial. A generation who can hardly imitate should at least pay the tribute of admiration to statesmen who, in the face of popular outcry, dared to try a bold experiment then justifiable only by faith in sound principles.

The passing of the Reform Act and the introduction of the New Poor Law could not fail to arouse the most vehement feelings, either, as as the case might be, of approval or reprobation. The third service rendered to England by the Whigs has been, as already intimated, almost unnoticed. Lord Grey and his followers guided the nation pacifically through a period of revolution. The difficulty of this achievement can be understood only by those who note the state of the country in 1832, and who also notice how rare are the instances in which a fundamental change in a nation's institutions has been accomplished without violence: revolution is, in popular language, almost equivalent to insurrection and civil war, and common parlance here reflects, as it is wont to do, the common experience of mankind In 1832 all the signs were visible from which men rightly infer the approach of violent revolution. All classes were discontented. George IV. had ruined the moral credit of the Crown. The peerage and the Church were unpopular. The middle classes aspired to power. Men of sense knew that during fifty years of reaction or repression abuses had accumulated. Every one felt that some change was necessary, and most persons felt that every change was full of peril. The laboring classes were in misery, and were quite prepared, if the occasion offered, to try if the evils they suffered from might not be remedied by violence. The transactions of 1829 showed that popular organization could be stronger than the law. The experience of Ireland was not lost on the people of England, and the now almost forgotten "glorious three days" at Paris seemed a proof that a mob of citizens could overthrow an unpopular government, and were in truth a proof that, in periods of excitement, the forces meant to defend the Crown might easily be used to affect the success of an insurrection. It is by no means clear that, had the peers persisted in rejecting the Reform Bill, some portion at least of the army might not have "fraternized," to use the French phrase, with the people.

In 1841 the Whigs quitted office as a party no longer possessing the power and credit necessary for carrying on the Government of the country; yet the difference between 1841 and 1831 was the true proof of the benefits which Whig statesmanship had conferred upon the United Kingdom. The time of revolution was passed. Compare this state of things with the state of France in the same year. The era of revolution was no doubt thought by Louis Philippe and his ministers to be closed. That they should have believed this must, to any one who examines the history of France between 1830 and 1841, seem a curious instance of political blindness, for more than once the Orleans dynasty had been kept on the throne by nothing but the free use of the armed force. We now, at any rate, know that whoever in 1841 believed Louis Philippe's throne to be firmly established, was the victim of a delusion. The year of revolutions, 1848, tested the work of French and of English constitutionalists. The test was decisive. It proved that the French Liberals of 1830 had unsettled everything and had founded nothing; it proved also that the Whigs of 1832 had conducted England pacifically through a perilous revolutionary crisis. But though Whig statesmanship had succeeded, Whig statesmen had lost their influence. Why this was so is a question well worth consideration. X.

Correspondence.

NEITHER BACHE NOR DUANE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In his letter of January 2, entitled "Bache, not Duane," Mr. Ford has given a charming example of the true journalistic rejoinder. Having ignored the main point of my letter, he takes six lines in which I expressed doubt whether Duane wrote what he had previously referred to in these words, "The farewell to Washington on his leaving the Presidency, penned by Duane, has become a classic of unseemly libel"; or whether it had been published in the *Aurora*.

After searching in three libraries, I have found an unmutilated copy of the *Aurora* of March 6, 1797, to which I am referred for personal annihilation. An inspection of this paper enables me now to make the positive statement that not only is Mr. Ford wrong, as he has confessed, in attributing this classic libel to Duane, but equally wrong in charging its authorship to Bache. This classic farewell is a small contribution to the paper of thirty-five lines "From a *correspondent*." Nor is it a farewell to Washington at all, but a fare-

well of the writer because a new era has dawned. Its opening words of quotation, "Lord, now lettest thou thy servant depart in peace," have deceived Mr. Ford. Familiarity with the New Testament would show that they were the words of one quitting this mortal stage. The brief communication is in form more severe than what would now be approved of, but the time was marked by savage invective on all sides. Our fathers liked that sort of thing. The central thought and the bitterest expression of the thirty-five lines is contained in the phrase which calls for "Exultation, that the name of Washington from this day ceases to give a currency to political iniquity and to legalize corruption."

In the main thought, that there was danger to republicanism from the presence of an overshadowing personality and the influence of a celebrated name, probably half of the people of the country believed. Towards the close of Washington's Administration, Jefferson wrote to Monroe, referring to Congress: "You will have seen by their proceedings the truth of what I always observed to you, that one man outweighs them all in the influence over the people, who have supported his judgment against their own and that of their representatives." Lodge, in his recent Life or eulogy of Washington, corroborates this position. Referring to the signing of Jay's treaty, he thus pictures and praises the President's attitude: "With his own party silenced and even divided, with the Opposition rampant, and with popular excitement at fever heat, Washington was left to take his course alone and unsupported." The inflexible determination and the fine courage needed by a great general are not always the best qualifications of a political leader. The great statesman should carry his people with him.

Both Bache and Duane shared in what was a common feeling of their day, the fear of the reëstablishment of a personal government. Both labored successfully in building up the great party that soon swept its Federal opponents into nothingness; a party that deserved its success, because it believed in the people, the influence of whose solid judgment, when enlightened by due discussion, the country has often experienced, and doubtless often will witness. Both of them have also been cleared of the particular charge of libellous writings made by Mr. Ford; and in speaking of them as he has done, it seems to me that he has made at least a mistake. C. W. DUANE.

PHILADELPHIA, January 13, 1890.

A CABINET OF THE HOUSE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The instructive comparison between the British Parliament and the American Congress, drawn by Mr. Bryce in his widely read book 'The American Commonwealth,' has fixed the attention of many readers, as nothing has done before, upon the defects of the American system. The main defects are two—lack of contact between the executive and legislative branches of the Government, and lack of concert and proper organization in Congress itself. The latter is probably the greater evil of the two, and the more mischievous in its effect upon legislation.

The need of a remedy is clearly set forth by Mr. Bryce. The possibility of applying a remedy, and the nature of the remedy to be applied, are problems in which every patriotic American must feel an interest. The remedy proposed and so ingeniously urged by your correspondent "G. B." is noticed, although not very fully discussed, by Mr. Bryce. He makes it clear, however, that conferring upon Cabinet Ministers the right of appearing in Congress to discuss measures before the House or Senate would be an inadequate remedy, and might have results other than those desired.

A remedy which shall meet the wants of the case must begin with a reform in the organization and business methods of the House of Representatives, whose defects are most apparent and most productive of evil legislation. The numerous small committees of the House, having no policy in common, and ignorant of each other's work, produce conflicting laws, and, being composed of members of both parties, are often hampered in their work by differences among themselves; hence the bills which they report are generally in the nature of compromises and represent no definite policy. Are these committees indispensable? Or might a substitute be found for them which would do the work better? A single Governing Committee, chosen from the members of the majority, having the sole power of originating revenue and appropriation bills, and given the control and direction of all important measures, taking precedence of other members upon the floor, and furnished with a sufficient force of clerks and with eminent legal counsel, might give at least a single definite policy to the legislation of a session, and produce some degree of harmony where chaos reigns at present.

For the discussion of all minor and private bills the House might be divided into several grand committees of forty or fifty members each, on which the Opposition should be represented, which should have the right of choosing their own chairmen, appointing sub-committees, summoning witnesses, etc., and should act in general for the Committee of the Whole. In this way business might be expedited and a check be put upon the secret influences of the small committee-rooms. Having thus organized the House by appointing a Governing Committee composed of the leaders of the majority, and six or seven grand committees of mixed politics, it remains to bring it into contact with the executive branch of the Government. This could best be done by requesting the President to summon the Governing Committee of the House to certain stated meetings of the Cabinet, at which all money bills and bills affecting the departments should be discussed before presenting them to the House. Thus the Governing Committee would have the benefit of all the information the Cabinet officers could give concerning the effect of its measures on their respective departments, while retaining complete control of legislation in its own hands. The responsibility for every measure would rest with the Governing Committee, and so long as it could command a majority in the House its power would be supreme. If defeated on an important bill, it must give place to a new committee, representing the new majority, and would thus reflect the English Cabinet in all but its administrative functions.

Such a body of trained leaders would add dignity and power to the House itself, and offer prizes in the way of promotion which would be an incentive to industry and ambition among the members. It would offer a mark for the Opposition, and challenge public scrutiny of its acts, throwing the light of public debate on the merits and defects of all the measures which it championed, which would necessarily be few and of the first importance.

By adopting such an organization, the House would surrender neither power nor prerogative, but would gain much greater efficiency, and probably increase its influence in the councils of the nation, while the people would be the gainer by the more enlightened and economical legislation most certain to result.

The increased contact between the legislature and the executive, so long as the majority in the House was in harmony with the Administration, would strengthen the hands of both. When, however, the House was hostile to the Cabinet, the conferences between them might result in compromises less prejudicial to the interests of the Government than those which are at present hatched out in secret committee-rooms.—Respectfully, WM. W. HUDSON.

CLEVELAND, OHIO, December 30, 1889.

THE INWARDNESS OF THE TARIFF.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A New York newspaper that prides itself on being the special mouthpiece of the present Administration is printing a droll series of "Talks on the Tariff," and boastfully defying its tariff-reform contemporaries to answer them, if they can. As the newspapers challenged presumably have enough of serious work on hand without replying to dialectical banter, permit a "literary fellow," whose time hangs heavy on his hands, to point out an interesting admission that this latest theorizer on protectionism is betrayed into making. At the top of each article is printed this choice bit of logical tomfoolery:

"The price of a thing is what is given for what is gotten. To get an article of home production, we—the nation at large—must pay for it nothing whatever as respects the labor and capital which produced it, and nothing in the way of profit to the producer. We, as a nation, part with nothing but the materials used up. The American people can manufacture every staple article of metal, wood, or leather, every staple fabric of wool, cotton, or silk, cheaper than it can import it."

Isn't this frank? We can produce staple goods of every kind cheaper than we can import them, yet our manufacturers have the impudence to demand a 47 per cent. tariff to raise prices artificially! It is not because they are bothered by any vulgar considerations of cost that they want protection; bless our simple souls, no! As a "nation at large" we don't cost ourselves a copper. Production is all right; what we want is to monkey with distribution. The poor are altogether too well off. The rich must be supported by taxes. Tariff-reformers have suspected for some time that this was the true inwardness of the protectionist's brain, but they had not expected to see him display his gray matter to an unfeeling world quite so unreservedly.

ONE OF THE UNFEELING.

CONSTITUTIONAL LAW IN COLORADO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A correspondent, in the issue of your paper of December 12, makes some comments upon the state of constitutional law in Colorado. An inference might be drawn from the writer's words that there is something almost *sui generis* in the Constitution of this State, in its limitations upon legislative power. On the contrary, the scope of power in the legislative branch under this instrument has been found to be amply sufficient for the public welfare. It is admitted that the instrument is closer on the economic side than a majority of State constitutions. Still, it is broad enough even in this respect to meet all reasonable demands with a fair margin to spare. The fact that there are restrictions in this instrument against extravagance on the part of the legislative branch, and that the Secretary of State is intrusted with the power of purchasing supplies there-

for, is in no respect incompatible with the proper exercise of legislative functions. The contingency that needed legislation may be prevented, by a failure of duty in the premises by the Secretary, may be dismissed, for history proves that this officer is ever ready with sup plies *ad infinitum*.

It is admitted that a model constitution should be very sparing in parliamentary rules. Still, the most that can be generally charged against such rules is innocuous frivolity, which is the least of evils in law-making. The fret of legislators over such rules is not that needed legislation is thereby actually prevented, but that such are an infringement upon right of choice in procedure. Hence the public is not visibly injured.

The Constitutional Convention of 1876 was superior in qualifications to any other law-making body that has ever assembled in the State. The close economic aspect of the instrument is chiefly ascribable to two causes: first, a general distrust that the opponents to the organization of a State might prevail on the argument of expense, which prospective argument, in the eyes of the convention, was greatly magnified by the general feeling of poverty and unrest engendered by the devastation of the Rocky Mountain locust; secondly, the Convention was imbued with a deep distrust of legislatures, which seemed to be justifiable then as well as now, and was but the echo of public opinion. Truly, that the Caloptenus Spretus left his foot-prints on the organic law, affords no cause of complaint to the people, but rather a cause for rejoicing.

The position of Judge Helm in drawing inferences in his opinion upon historic grounds and slight verbal changes against *stare decisis* is untenable. The Judge by his construction gives to the provision quoted by said correspondent a meaning that the Legislature framing it did not contemplate—that is to say, the legislative mind had neither a negative nor an affirmative purpose in regard to the value of such opinions as general judicial precedents. So far as evidence goes, both from word and act, the Legislature was confined solely to the purpose of avoiding breakers as to its own acts. The very hostility of the Legislature to the court at that time precluded any intention of enlarging such power beyond the necessity of the expedient. Furthermore, such provision was not created upon "solemn occasions," but was injected into the bill by a hasty amendment in a committee of the whole.

In legislative parlance, when any power is to be conferred upon the Court as a whole, or upon any of its members as judges, it is customary to use the term "the Supreme Court." This method of reference always occurs except in cases of variation by reason of a strict adherence to some model to the contrary, or in case of some special precision of expression insisted upon by an accurate and painstaking lawyer.

The requirement that "all such opinions shall be published in connection with the reported decisions of the Court" was not in view of any new or strengthened purpose to be given the opinions, but was solely for convenience of reference. It looks as though the Court was somewhat bent to give the provision a narrower scope and a deeper meaning, thereby to lessen such legislative demands, and thus escape from being "swamped."

The Judge uses these words: "The successive legislatures meeting after the admission of Colorado to Statehood encountered great difficulty in the enactment of laws, on account of numerous wise, but troublesome, limitations contained in the Constitution." I think no instance can be found in which a competent legislator has thus been seriously troubled. The difficulty in the way of needed legislation has been the incorrigibility of the personnel of the legislatures. Instances of enactments pronounced void or inoperative on constitutional grounds are not so numerous as might be inferred from the words of the Judge; and the cause of any such is usually traceable to the stupidity of its framers.

In the use of models for drafting bills, verbal changes occur from clerical inadvertence, from a purpose of brevity, and from sheer caprice, with no intention thereby to work a change of meaning. So there are scattered through the reports instances in which judicial eagerness is shown in finding solemn distinctions in slight verbal changes that have no deeper cause of being than such inconsequential accidents.

The following phenomena are here observable from the existence of this provision: (1) that legislative bodies are ready to ask for such opinions on the most frivolous pretexts; (2) this method is used to avoid expenditure of thought; (3) the supporters of a measure, in order to escape the argument of unconstitutionality by their opponents, seek such opinions, hoping for a favorable response; (4) a legislator who finds himself in a dilemma of either favoring a measure against his judgment or of making dangerous enemies against his own pet schemes, seeks a passage of escape by thus shouldering the responsibility upon the Court.

O. F. A. Greene.

Boulder, Col., January 2, 1890.

[Mr. Greene appears to agree with our former correspondent in thinking that, upon the true exposition of the Colorado Constitution, the opinion of C. J. Helm is not sound.—Ed. Nation.]

DELPHI ONCE MORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Several months ago an appeal was made through the *Nation* on behalf of the American School in Athens, for aid in securing to the School the privilege of excavation at Delphi. The amount estimated as necessary to assure the ownership of the site ($75,000) seemed small indeed for a nation so wealthy and so generous as our own, and many correspondents have expressed surprise at the intimation then given that small contributions from scholars all over the land might be needed, as they certainly would be welcomed. Experience has proved that we were too sanguine rather than over-anxious. No American of great wealth has seized upon this unique opportunity to attach an honorable and lasting fame to his own name. Though the interest aroused is enthusiastic and widespread, it is chiefly among men of slender means. But, from all sources combined, nothing like sufficient contributions and pledges have been secured to win for our country this great opportunity.

News has just been received that the Greek Government has generously extended the time within which their offer may be accepted until June, 1890. With this encouragement it is clear that the sum needed can be obtained. But it is equally clear that success can be assured only by much more widespread effort and sacrifice, on the part of scholars and lovers of learning, than has yet been manifested. Some communities have done their part most generously and promptly. For instance, the officers and students of Cornell University have pledged $322 for this fund. Smith and Swarthmore Colleges and Boston University have made similar efforts in proportion to their means. The pupils and teachers of Riverview Academy in Poughkeepsie have subscribed nearly $200, and the Boston High School girls a slightly larger sum. But there are many far wealthier colleges, and numberless classical schools, where no interest whatever has been expressed.

Probably no one seriously questions the unrivalled importance of this opportunity to the future of classical studies among us. Let it be said as plainly as possible, therefore, that a hearty and general coöperation among thoughtful men and women in every community of the fatherland, is apparently the only means to save us from final failure; a failure which will certainly leave behind it the sting of lasting mortification and regret.

William Cranston Lawton,
Agent of the Archæological Institute.

Cambridge, Mass., January 9, 1890.

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons announce among their earlier publications of the present year 'Thomas Jefferson's Views on Public Education,' by John C. Henderson; 'The First International Railway and the Early Colonization of New England,' by Laura E. Poor; 'Railway Secrecy; its Relation to Inter-State Legislation,' by John M. Bonham; 'American Farms; their Condition and Future,' by J. R. Elliott; 'The Story of the Barbary Corsairs,' by Stanley Lane-Poole and Lieut. J. D. Jerrold Kelley, U. S. N.; 'Six to One,' by Edward Bellamy; and a reprint of 'A Far Look Ahead' (namely, to New York society in the 96th century).

'The Unknown God, or Inspiration among Pre-Christian Nations,' by Charles Loring Brace, is in the press of A. C. Armstrong & Son.

T. Whittaker issues directly 'The Prayer-Book Reason Why,' by the Rev. Nelson R. Boss, and 'Pathways to the Church,' by the Rev. Geo. W. Shinn.

We read in the London *Bookseller* of December 14, 1889, of the amalgamation of the publishing firms of Trübner & Co., Kegan Paul, Trench & Co., and George Redway into a limited-liability company.

Two more volumes have been added to the excellent series, "English History from Contemporary Writers" (London: David Nutt), viz., 'S. Thomas of Canterbury, 1118–1220,' edited by the Rev. W. H. Hutton, and 'England under Charles II., 1660–1678,' edited by W. F. Taylor. They are excellent samples of the scheme, both as respects the intrinsic interest of the documents and the ease with which the historical sequence can be preserved, owing to the copious authorities. Both are quaintly illustrated.

We have received the first volume of *Harvard Studies in Classical Philology*, edited by a committee of the classical instructors of the University, and published in Boston by Ginn & Co. It is a handsome volume of some 200 pages, with a general index and an index of citations. Prof. J. B. Greenough leads off with an antiquarian discussion of *fauces* as applied to a house passage, and shows it to have been the front entrance to the *atrium*. A Latin dissertation, on the modes of deriving fire among the ancients, by Morris H. Morgan, follows. Full and interesting is the paper on the social and domestic position of women in Aristophanes, by Herman W. Haley. Prof. W. W.

Goodwin debates certain Greek constructions. Prof. George M. Lane contributes notes on Quintilian, marked by his customary elegance of scholarship. Plutarch, Vitruvius, and Tacitus also have their commentators. The *Studies* thus make a notable beginning.

Both the Harvard and Yale catalogues for the current year are on our table. They offer an interesting contrast in arrangement, that of Harvard making each department complete as it proceeds, while that of Yale groups all the courses in front and all the student lists at the end, with some obvious advantages.

The most thorough and scientific treatment ever bestowed on the Pennsylvania German dialect has been exhibited in late numbers of the *American Journal of Philology*, by Dr. Marion D. Learned of the Johns Hopkins University. Part I. has now been printed by itself, while Part II., which will deal with German mixture, and etymology, is promised hereafter.

The slow-appearing Historical Collections of the Essex Institute, Salem, Mass., just now reaches us in the issue for the second quarter of 1888. Its main interest will be found to lie in Mr. B. W. Crowninshield's account of his eccentric kinsman's international pleasure-yacht, *Cleopatra's Barge*, built in 1816, with dimensions and tonnage closely resembling those of Mr. Burgess's *Mayflower*.

Despite a certain factitious jocularity and a few stray Briticisms, a little book called 'Whist With and Without Perception,' by "B. W. D." and "Cavendish" (London: De La Rue), may be recommended to those who know what real whist is. The chief novelty of the book is that it gives a series of end games. In chess the books have long since made us almost as familiar with the common end game as with the accepted openings, and "B. W. D." adroitly adapts the same method to whist.

Three of the French Christmas books for boys and girls have an interest for Americans. The first is 'L'Aînée,' by J. Lermont, "d'après Suzan Coolidge." The second is M. André Laurie's 'De New York à Brest en Sept Heures,' with illustrations by M. Riou. Both of these are published in Paris by Hetzel (New York: F. W. Christern). The third is 'Le Tueur de Daims,' by Meryem Cecyl, "d'après Fenimore Cooper," illustrated by M. Ed. Zier (Paris: Delagrave; New York: F. W. Christern).

The unexpected results of law-making were perhaps never more characteristically shown than in the decline of the habit of publishing plays in Paris because of a decision of an American court that performance was not publication, and that therefore an unpublished play could not be acted without the consent of the author, even though he were a foreigner. M. Sardou's comedies are no longer published on the day of their first performance in Paris as was once the case, and many of the minor French dramatists have followed his example. Augier and Dumas have made no effort to hold their American acting-rights, and their plays are published and read as though they were novels. In like manner, M. Alphonse Daudet has published his "Lutte pour la vie" (Paris: C. Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern). The play was reviewed at length by our Paris correspondent not long ago. Its publication is not likely to lead to its piracy on the American stage, as the subject and the treatment are quite foreign to American tastes.

In October, 1885, the Rev. Mr. Baker, Prime Minister of the King of the Tonga Islands, while cruising among the group, had the rare good fortune of witnessing the formation of an island during a prolonged submarine eruption, and he described this remarkable scene in a letter to the Royal Geographical Society. The volcanic matter, mingled with clouds of carbonic and sulphurous gases, was thrown up with prodigious force to a height of several thousand feet. The heavier matter quickly fell; the vapors expanded above into clouds of dazzling whiteness and fantastic shapes; and the lighter volcanic dust (of a light brown color) drifted away at a great elevation. This vast mass of matter was ejected in three large and several smaller jets, "the largest one rushing upwards from time to time like a solid wall of dark matter, often branching like a pine tree." The next morning an island had been formed forty feet high and more than a mile in circumference. The eruptions continued with some intervals for an indefinite time, greatly increasing the size of the island, until it became about five miles long by three wide. Very recently H. M. S. *Egeria* touched at Falcon Island, as it has been named, and found that it was fast disappearing. A party landed and explored the island, though at the evident risk of their lives. It was composed of volcanic cinders which had the appearance of coke, but became liquid when placed in the fire. In some places these cinders were so hot as to make the walking upon them painful and even dangerous. Sulphurous springs also were found in several places. The exploring party planted a flag on the highest point, some sixty feet from the edge of the cliff and two hundred and fifty feet above the level of the sea. They had scarcely reached the ship when a large part of the cliff fell into the sea, making a vast column of white vapor. Three days later the flag had disappeared. A picture of the island is given in the *Graphic* for December 21, as it appeared at the time of the visit of the *Egeria*.

Highly interesting views of people and scenery in New Guinea, after photographs, are given in connection with an article by Hugo Zöller, "Deutsche Kultur in den Barbarenländern von Neuguinea," in *Vom Fels zum Meer*, No. 1, 1889–'90 (New York: F. W. Christern).

Few official documents that we receive give us more satisfaction than those relating to the public health of Japan. A summary of the annual reports of the Central Sanitary Bureau of the Home Department of that Empire for the five years from July, 1879, to June, 1884, inclusive, belongs to that class. This is printed in English at Tokio, in an octavo pamphlet of 160 pages, including tables, and contains a review of the operations of the Bureau in relation to the control of cholera and other epidemic diseases, the regulation of medical practice, and the preparation and sale of drugs, of the extermination of venomous serpents, of the establishment of a vaccine form, the erection of crematories, and general progress in sanitation. Various tables of vital statistics are included. It is by the courtesy of Dr. Nagayo Sensai, Director of the Central Bureau, that we have received this report; and Dr. Nagayo is to be felicitated on the remarkable assimilation to western ways his countrymen have made.

The last, hitherto unnoticed, parts of 'Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon' (B. Westermann & Co.) carry the work into the fifteenth volume and the letter T, and meantime the end must very nearly have been reached. The geographical articles of greatest moment, as giving the freshest information about the probable participants in the next European convulsion, are those on Rumania, Russia, and Servia. Socialism is the chief topic of domestic polity; Schiller and Shakspere the leading biographical notices. Schiller, we are told, is first the poet of youth, and then of reverting old age; and light is thrown on the question (not raised here) whether this poet is holding his own in popular estimation, by a list of his monuments, those since the centenary of 1859 being strikingly numerous. There is the usual profusion of colored plates, of maps, plans of cities, etc. Among these Zanzibar and the neighboring German possessions (if they can be so called, *beati non possidentes*) and Samoa deserve special mention among the charts. We remark, finally, a comparative sheet of stenographic systems.

Nansen's official report of his overland Greenland expedition is translated in No. 142 of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Zeitschrift* (Berlin: D. Reimer), accompanied by a map of the east and west shores of the continent.

The second report of Mr. Robert T. Swan, Massachusetts Commissioner on Public Records of Parishes, Towns, and Counties, is a Senate document (No. 2), dated January, 1890. We commend it to the custodians of records in any part of the Union, partly for its exposure of the lamentable confusion which prevails in Massachusetts, but also for its demonstration of the need of preserving and copying the older records particularly, and its many practical suggestions. One chapter deserves to be widely read, as it discusses the permanence of typewritten copy. The conclusion is that, if the ink be of the right kind (black preferably, blue possibly), the permanence is as great as in the case of press printing. Mr. Swan therefore recommends this mode, which has so great a superiority over pen-writing in other respects.

The holiday number of the *Northwestern Miller* (Minneapolis) is a very striking product of Western enterprise, about evenly divided between text and advertisements, and freely illustrated. We single out for mention a view of the new "whale-back" grain barge which appears to be revolutionizing lake transportation, both as respects capacity and safety, and indeed speed. We are likely to see these strange monitor craft on the Atlantic seaboard, perhaps even adapted to passenger service. A good descriptive article accompanies the cut.

The *Studio* for December 7, 1889, was a Barye number, fully illustrated; the number for January 4, 1890, is occupied in part with another sculptor, Auguste Rodin, who is shown at his work, while another plate copies his sketch for the statue of Bastien-Lepage.

One of the most distinguished and best known scholars of Finland, August Ahlqvist, died at Helsingfors on November 20, of pneumonia, at the age of sixty-three. When very young he travelled in Karelia, Russia, Siberia, and Hungary in order to collect materials for the comparative study of the Finnic-Ugric languages. The result was shown in numerous philological works, one of which, 'The *Cultur*-Words of the West Finnish Language,' an attempt to study the civilization of the race, was translated into German. His 'Reminiscences of Travel' and a tale called 'Among the Voguls and the Ostiaks' were also published in German. But the Professor of Finnish Language and Literature at the University of Helsingfors was also a poet, and many of his songs are popular in the country. To learning, enthusiasm, and eloquence there was added the social charm. No one who knew him will forget him.

—The fourth volume of the new edition of 'Chambers's Encyclopædia' (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.) ends with *Friction*. A fair proportion of articles are by writers of known authority. The late Laurence Oliphant furnished that on the Druses; Austin Dobson writes of Fielding, G. Saintsbury of Dryden,

R. H. Hutton of George Eliot; Prof. Henry Morley deals with English Literature. Prof. Geddes undertakes, with marked unfitness, a popular exposition of Evolution; and, by the way, the writer on Feathers has missed his opportunity to cite Darwin's pet demonstration of the genesis of the ocelli. Emerson's life is liberally retold by Dr. Holmes, whose use of the first person singular in one place, on p. 325, has been overlooked by the editor, and who, on the same page, makes Emerson's sympathy with the "long-haired reformers" of Chardon-Street conventions a little too remote. Mr. Emerson's hair was not shorter than that of most of them. The article on Dolls omits mention of what ancient Egypt has handed down in that line, and asserts too broadly at least that black dolls are manufactured for black babies in the United States. White babies have been known to cherish them, and are, we suspect, the chief if not the sole consumers of them. In fact, a Southern paper lately made it a reproach to the colored people of that section that they never purchased dusky dolls for their own children. Loyalty to Queen Victoria is said to have determined that blue-eyed dolls should be preferred in England during her reign. The articles are mostly brought well down to date, as in the case of Floods (with notice of the Johnstown disaster) and of Edward Fitzgerald, etc. (with mention of the new Life and Letters). Under Encyclopædia is given a useful list of this class of works. There are maps of the District of Columbia, of Florida, of England, Europe, and France, and the usual illustrations.

—The death of M. Paul Andral, which occurred on December 19, 1889, recalls the circumstances and conditions under which he became the guardian of Prince Talleyrand's memoirs. Talleyrand died in the year 1838, and left his memoirs by will to Andral, with the stipulation that there should be a delay of thirty years before they should be published. But when this time expired in 1868, M. Andral found that there were still some people alive whose feelings might be wounded by the appearance of the memoirs, and, on that account, added another twenty years to the period that Talleyrand had set. When this time came to an end, year before last, the same motives as before led M. Andral to a new delay, to which he declined to set any definitive term. He had made up his mind, the *Figaro* says, to wait till all reasons for delicacy had passed away. There is, then, it would seem, not much ground for expecting soon to see the long-waited-for volumes. M. Andral has doubtless left behind him directions which will tie the hands of his executors. The manuscript of the memoirs is a bulky one. It will make from twelve to fifteen volumes when it gets into print. At present it is at Châteauvieux (where M. Andral died), shut up in sealed cases, safe from indiscreet eyes. M. Paul Andral was a son of the great physician of that name, and was in his time one of the leaders of the Paris bar. Berryer, as well as Talleyrand, made him his literary executor.

—The latest contribution to the problem of Talleyrand's motives and character comes from the researches of M. Th. G. Pallain, who has just published a volume of papers and letters bearing upon Talleyrand's mission to London, in which he includes the letters sent by him from America to Lord Lansdowne. What Talleyrand hoped to gain from England was an engagement to absolute neutrality, and an official declaration of it in such terms as should have weight with Holland, Prussia, and the Emperor; an alliance offensive and defensive between France, England, and the United States, to open to these three Powers the commerce of the Spanish possessions in the South Seas as well as in the Atlantic; and, lastly, to negotiate a loan of at least four millions sterling, which should be guaranteed by the English Government, in return for which guarantee France was willing to cede Tobago to England. Talleyrand went to London in January, 1792, but, as he was not properly accredited, there were many delays. At last, in April, Chauvelin was sent over to be the head of the embassy in name, though Talleyrand was its moving spirit as before. They only gained the official announcement of neutrality; the rest of the scheme miscarried, partly from George the Third's antipathy to France, and partly, also, from the distrust that the earlier movements of the Revolution were beginning to create across the Channel. At last Talleyrand was obliged to leave England, and took refuge in the United States. His letters from this country, although they are not of very great historical value, will be read with much interest. Their author was at that time, as the *Revue Bleue* says, "already the cool observer whom nothing escapes; who, putting nothing of himself into things, sees them as they are, and not as he would like them to be." "Il rassemble des faits politiques comme on dépose des curiosités naturelles dans un muséum." He found everybody in America eager to make money. He said that the United States knew too much about politics to believe in such a thing as gratitude between nations, and that, from community of blood and disposition and habits, England was the only foreign Power of which we either would or could be the ally. M. Pallain's book throws some new light also upon the life of Biron, Duc de Lauzun, and upon the party among the nobles that was sincerely attached to the Constitution of 1791.

—A good deal of angry feeling is manifested in late French newspapers at the prohibition of M. François Coppée's new play, "Le Pater," which was to be produced at the Français. The scene of the piece is laid in Paris during the last week of the Commune. A Communard who has taken part in the massacre of the priests seeks refuge in the house of the sister of one of the priests whom he has killed. She hides him from the Versailles troops by disguising him in her brother's cassock, and, that he may play the part of an ecclesiastic better, teaches him the *Pater Noster*. Whether the Government wishes that the memory of the Commune should not be recalled, or whether some prominent political persons feel a little sensitive to any reference to the part they played in 1871, one does not know. From the accounts of the play that are given, the Commune only furnishes a background for the action of the drama, the motives of which are love and forgiveness. The story is founded on fact; at least the *brav' Général* Cluseret tells it for truth in his 'Mémoires.' He sought protection, he says, in May, 1871, from a priest whom he had admitted to the Mazas prison to minister to Archbishop Darboy. This priest took him in and kept him for six months in his house in the dress of an ecclesiastic, took him to theological lectures, and finally, with the help of the Archbishop of Brussels, smuggled him across the frontier. The blow that M. Coppée has received irritates him the more because there was very little civility observed in the delivery of it. M. Fallières simply wrote on a tag: "The Minister refuses to authorize the piece called 'Le Pater,'" and tied it to the manuscript and sent it back. M. Coppée, upon this, wrote an indignant letter to the *Figaro*, which his friends, and others as well, have followed up with other communications in the same sense.

— 'The Possibilities of an Art Gallery in Manchester [England], by a Manchester Man,' is a little pamphlet which might be read with profit by all who are interested in the formation of public galleries in this country. The author is a gentleman who has evidently given considerable time and attention to the study of the administration of Continental museums, with a view to deducing from their experience the principles that should govern the establishment of a provincial museum in England, the scope and aims of which are almost identical with those of the museums that are possible in our country. It is refreshing to see that he at once and heartily condemns the "committee system" of management, and what he says on this subject may well be borne in mind by those who contemplate the establishment or development of galleries of art on this side of the Atlantic:

"The lessons of experience in regard to the *government* of an art gallery are not less clear. They are, briefly, that such a gallery cannot be properly managed by a committee. There must, of course, be a committee to say the last word on financial and other matters, but the more the artistic direction of a gallery is left to a single will and brain, the better will that gallery be. . . . To suppose that a committee of business men, however capable, can do the work of a trained student, . . . is simply childish."

We do not know how far England may possess students who are trained in the branches which are necessary to a man who shall be called upon to fill a position of such grave responsibility, but it is a cause for regret that there are but very few in this country. The need of them is growing every year, however, and to those young men who have had an introduction to the study of the fine arts, such as is offered in our larger colleges, and are now looking for a pursuit in which they can develop the tastes which this study has aroused, we can predict with perfect confidence that the time is near at hand when a few years passed among the museums of Europe, studying their management and their collections, will lead to a position at least as remunerative as that of a college professor, and to a line of work than which none is more absorbing or more satisfactory in its results.

—When, a few weeks since, we noticed Dr. Döllinger's latest work, 'Beiträge zur Sektengeschichte des Mittelalters,' we little thought that we should so soon be called upon to regret his decease. Yet his death cannot be regarded as untimely, for he had rounded out the ripe age of ninety-one, with powers unimpaired. Few men could look back upon a completer or more useful life. In a literary career which had extended over the unusual space of sixty-three years, he had poured forth his exhaustless stores of learning, always in an impartial and judicial spirit, and with the single purpose of utilizing for the benefit of his fellow-men the lessons of the past for the improvement of the present and of the future. The services which such a man renders to his fellows do not end with his death; the seeds which he planted will bear fruit in successive harvests, and he leaves behind him a school of disciples trained in his own rigidly accurate methods of research and exposition.

— The observations of the total solar eclipse of December 22 made by the American party were very successful. After landing at St. Paul de Loanda, a few miles north of the

eclipse-track, various places in the line of totality were studied with a view to their practicability as observing points, Prof. Todd finally choosing Cape Ledo as his principal station. Muxima, at first thought available, was found to be too far away, as well as too hot and unhealthful, for occupation. Extensive lagoons directly across the river poison the air with miasma, so that it is found difficult to keep even one Portuguese officer stationed at this desolate point. Cape Ledo is on the Bay of Suto, and was found to be in every way a practicable station. The direct view of the eclipse through the photo-heliograph, forty feet long, was an entire success, and all the extensive apparatus, automatic and otherwise, worked without a flaw. Clouds interfered to some extent, but eighty or more photographs were obtained. The pneumatic movements of all the photographic apparatus were thoroughly accurate, and the principle is demonstrated to be correct. During the total eclipse several prominences attained great brilliancy and distinctness.

AN ANCIENT FISHING CLUB.

A History of the Schuylkill Fishing Company of the State in Schuylkill, 1732–1888. "If you look to its *antiquity* it is most ancient, If to its *dignity* it is most honourable, If to its *jurisdiction* it is most extensive." Philadelphia: Printed for the members of the State in Schuylkill. 1889. (For sale by Porter & Coates and J. B. Lippincott Co.)

It is not generally known that the oldest English-speaking club in the world is now in flourishing existence on the banks of the Delaware, near Philadelphia. Its membership has included many of the most famous men of Pennsylvania; it has shown its quaint hospitalities to most of the Presidents of the republic, and Lafayette was proud to join its circle and fulfil the duties prescribed to all its members at their banquets. The modest limit of membership (now 25) was not seriously impaired either by the shock and upheaval of the Revolution or of the great civil war, near a century later. At both these periods the members of the Colony and State in Schuylkill forsook the angle for the sword, and furnished conspicuous instances of patriotic devotion.

The "Castle," for such their club-house is termed, is still the wooden building erected in 1812 on the west side of Schuylkill River where Girard Avenue bridge now crosses, though it has been twice carefully removed and set up on new sites. The by-laws and regulations are substantially the same as first adopted, the customs and duties of the members are unchanged from those of a century ago, and the last published proceedings of the company have the same delightful archaic flavor as the earlier ones, for generations of faithful secretaries have recorded the momentous events in the history of the Club from its foundation till the present day.

There is probably, nay, it may be said certainly, but one pursuit on which can be based an association of men which, particularly in this country, could preserve its integrity for a century and a half. Social clubs, literary clubs, artistic clubs, generally fall to pieces in a few years from their own weight, if they are not sooner destroyed by internal dissensions. Length of life in such associations, especially if small in numbers, depends on the love and devotion of the members to some art or pursuit of a contemplative and innocent character, involving constant subjection to the calming influences of green fields and running waters—in short, such as those of whom Walton says:

> "The first men whom our Saviour deare
> Did chuse to wait upon him here,
> Blest *fishers* were."

It is a club of anglers which has seen and formed a part of the most interesting period of our colonial history, and has preserved to this day, in our second largest city, an example of colonial life intact amid the wondrous changes through which our country has passed since its formation; and now, old but vigorous as in its youth, maintains the rights and ancient customs of the State in Schuylkill as jealously as when it sent its formal invitation to Washington, and welcomed its Governor, Samuel Morris, on his return from the Revolutionary army.

The Schuylkill Fishing Company was organized in 1732 and called "The Colony in Schuylkill." There were no States then. The "Colonial hall" in which the Colony met was on the estate of Mr. William Warner, called "Baron Warner," to whom was paid an annual tribute of three sun perch. The payment came, in course of time, to be attended with some ceremony, the Governor of the Colony appointing three "citizens," who placed the sun perch on the large pewter dish known as the Penn platter, which was brought to this country by William Penn and given to the Colony. The citizens then presented the fish, with great respect, to Baron Warner.

The "hall" was occupied by the "Colony" until 1812, when it was condemned, and on March 25 the Company assembled and assisted the master builder and his workmen in raising the frame of another building. The new "baron" of the estate, Mr. Rundle, at this time, gave a seven-year lease of the ground occupied, at an annual rental of one white perch, payable in June of each year. In 1822 the passage of the fish to the Castle having been obstructed by the building of the dam at Fairmount, it was recommended by a committee of "citizens" that the Castle should be removed from the old domain at Eaglesfield, Rundle's Barony, to a suitable site which the committee had found near Rambo's Rock, a short distance down the river. The moving was safely effected on May 7, and at Rambo's Rock until 1887 the State in Schuylkill held its "gala" and "fishing" days and old-fashioned festivities. The change of the old Castle to its present situation on the Delaware River near Andalusia was made in November, 1887, and now it is to be hoped its wanderings have ceased.

The chronicles of the Schuylkill Fishing Company up to 1830 were published in that year by William Milnor, jr., a member, and his volume is now one of the prizes of the collector of angling literature. The book under notice contains a reprint of Milnor's, and its continuation to 1888 under the direction of a committee of members; and also includes with the reprint the memoirs of the Gloucester Fox Hunting Club, which flourished near Philadelphia for fifty years from 1766, and numbered in its list of members some of those of the Schuylkill Fishing Company. At the falls of the Schuylkill early in the eighteenth century there was an association similar to the Schuylkill Colony, whose house was sacked and burned by the Hessians during the Revolution. On the return of peace the remnant of the Society of "Fort St. David's" united its forces with those of the State in Schuylkill, adding what was left of its property to the common stock. This included "five immense pewter dishes of divers forms for the display of a barbacue or a large rock fish at the festive board."

But two individuals of the Colony proved recreant to the cause of the independence of the United States at the time of the Revolutionary struggle, while others rendered signal service to their country during that period. In 1782, while the war was still raging, the Colony came out with a formal manifesto and new code of laws, becoming, by the adoption of the latter, so it is stated in page 48, "a sovereign and independent State," and the "court-house" was thereafter called "the Castle of the State in Schuylkill."

In March, 1789, it was specially recorded that Mr. Benjamin Scull, the Prince of Fishermen, produced a trout, "which he this day took in Schuylkill, that measured 15 inches." The same worthy, about this time, also caught a shad with a baited hook, the first known instance. Two years later the event of the season was the leaping on board one of the vessels belonging to the fleet of "a sturgeon 4 feet in length, of which the company then present made a delicious repast."

In 1812, "The good old Governor, Samuel Morris, usually distinguished by the appellation of 'Christian Samuel,' departed this life in the 78th year of his age." His virtues are still honored at every stated meeting of the Company, at which first "The memory of Washington" is drunk standing, and "The memory of our late worthy Gov. Morris" succeeds. The frying-pan of Gov. Morris is still among the cherished possessions of the Company. On July 21, 1825, Gen. Lafayette concluded, as he says, "his tour of all the States of the Union by visiting that in Schuylkill, of which he was made an honorary member," invested with a hat and apron, and introduced to the kitchen, where he occupied himself in turning the beefsteaks on the gridiron.

The year 1829 concludes the reprint of the history written by Mr. Milnor, and the last chapter "adverts briefly to some unrecorded but well-defined and all-essential usages, a rigid adherence to which has preserved, and will preserve, the Company from degeneracy and dissolution." From these we select the following for mention:

Anybody made a candidate by the votes of a majority of eight members is at liberty to visit the Company on fishing days. The purveyor or caterer for each stated day obtains the list of his Company, the keys, etc., and provides frugally and abundantly at the joint expense of all catered for.

The only meat bought is sirloin beef-steaks. These are not "cleansed by washing off the exuding juices before they are committed to the gridirons, nor are their juices allowed to escape by puncture with a fork in turning, nor is butter nor any high seasoning used, the meat remaining on the coals until the 'Ho! steak's ready' note of preparation is given." The method of cooking fish is also narrated, and that of compounding "governor," a noted punch drunk at the banquets of the company. At the centennial celebration of the State in Schuylkill, on May 1, 1832, a long and learned ode was recited by J. N. Barker, several original songs sung, and numerous toasts drunk, among them—"Our Angling Ancestors: they have exchanged the troubled waters of this world for the calm ocean of eternity"; "Good old laws and regulations revered and strictly adhered to, the grand secret of the unparalleled duration and prosperity of the Fishing Company of the State in Schuylkill."

Passing on to 1842, we find, among other notabilia, that "Citizen Philip Physic made a gift to the State of two books containing the words of many popular songs, with the understanding that they were always to be kept in the Company's chest ready for immediate use." In 1843 the most remarkable event chronicled is

that on August 11 "Citizen Fotterall, determining that his catering day should not go unsolemnized, and finding no citizen to assist him, repaired alone to the grounds, and there, in stately solitude, brewed one tumbler of punch and drank it, cooked one steak and etceteras and eat them, offered the regular toasts, and retired in good order, sending the Governor a full report of the proceedings." Two years later, a grave violation of duty on the part of a caterer who absented himself on a fishing day, is recorded. A special meeting was at once called and the offending member fined $5. No repetition of so heinous an offence is found for the next forty-five years.

On October 3, 1861, the closing day of the season, the stars and stripes were lowered, while the whole company sang, uncovered, "The Star-Spangled Banner," and "during the war of the Rebellion it became a sacred custom for all present to stand around that emblem of our nationality as slowly it descended, and bless it with our country's anthem." These were not barren professions of loyalty, as several members of the Company gave their lives to the Union cause, and we find that no fewer than thirteen of them served in the field during the war.

This country certainly can show nothing like the State in Schuylkill, and as a curious and instructive history the simple and unpretentious records cannot fail to prove delightful reading to those not wholly carried away by the whirl of modern life. A few years ago Robert Adams, jr., published in the *Century Magazine* an illustrated article on the Schuylkill Fishing Company, which gives many details of its proceedings in a most interesting way. The present history is handsomely manufactured and well illustrated with portraits of distinguished citizens of the State and views of the Castle and its surroundings. So important a book to the collector might have been made still more desirable had it been in two volumes, each with a separate title-page. A limited number of copies are offered to the public.

RECENT MATHEMATICAL WORKS.

Prof. Robert E. Smith's work on 'Graphics' (Longmans) easily deserves to be placed at the head of our list. The mechanical execution of the book and the accompanying "Atlas of Diagrams" is of the highest order. The minuteness and thoroughness of the author's knowledge of his subject, his ingenuity in avoiding difficulties, his fertility in inventing new and elegant processes, and the skill and practical good sense with which he discriminates between those cases where the graphic method is applicable and those where the ordinary methods of calculation are most advantageous, are all so marked that, if his manual dexterity is in like proportion (and the beauty and accuracy of his diagrams would seem to indicate that it is), he must be one of the most accomplished draughtsmen in the world. Prof. Smith is also a very accomplished, we might perhaps say a profound, mathematician. Thus, chapter vii., on "Vector-Summation," shows that thorough appreciation and complete mastery of the labors of Clerk Maxwell and Rowan Hamilton which enables him to make clear, practical applications of their more abstract principles.

Most of the matters treated by Prof. Smith in this first part of his treatise relate to mechanical engineering, and more especially to the statical part of mechanics. But it would be a great mistake to suppose that it is intended to take the place of the ordinary treatises on these subjects. A person who had never studied a treatise on statics would waste his time if he attempted to make use of this book. The more thorough and accurate the student's knowledge of mechanics, the more complete his mastery of the ordinary mathematical processes applied in the solution of mechanical problems, the better will he appreciate Prof. Smith's graphic methods and the greater will be his confidence in the results obtained. We sincerely hope the patronage extended to Prof. Smith's treatise will be sufficient to warrant the speedy publication of his second and still more important part.

The text-books in geometry used in British schools may be divided into three classes. Of the largest of these classes Messrs. Hall and Stevens's 'Text-book of Euclid's Elements' (Macmillan) is a more than ordinarily good representative. As in politics and religion, so in the matter of teaching geometry, there are parties in Great Britain. These parties have, for the last half century, been in continual conflict. One party, the ultra-conservatives, regards the 'Elements' of Euclid with a reverence inferior only to that with which the great majority of Christians regard the Bible. But as both the 'Elements' and the Bible are in dead languages, translations are indispensable, and the same party looks upon Simpson's translation of the 'Elements' much as the great body of Christians look upon the King James version of the Bible. They consider the substitution of any other text-book of geometry as an insidious attempt to sap the foundations of geometrical truth, a tacit confession of the intellectual weakness of the rising generation, a fraudulent pretence by which the teacher seeks to cover up his inability to teach the genuine science and to excuse himself and his pupils from the performance of a rigid duty. Another party, the radicals, regards Euclid himself as a man of great genius, and his 'Elements' as one of those books which, like Aristotle's 'Analytics,' or Newton's 'Principia,' or Adam Smith's 'Wealth of Nations,' or Darwin's 'Origin of Species,' marks an epoch in the intellectual history of the human race. But they consider the 'Elements' as wholly unsuited for use as a text-book in the present age of the world, needlessly difficult of comprehension by the young, unadapted to modern methods of teaching and modern modes of thought. The members of this party demand an entirely new book. They believe it is possible to construct one which will satisfy all theoretical and practical requirements, will be more in accordance with modern methods of instruction, and will necessitate the expenditure of far less time and labor than is implied in the mastery of the 'Elements' of Euclid. The strength of these opinions led, a few years ago, to the formation of the Association for the Improvement of Geometrical Teaching. A text-book of Geometry has been published by this Association. To what extent it fulfils their intentions, this is not the place to discuss. A third party—a kind of "Liberal Unionists"—far exceeds both the others in numbers, and is represented by the great majority of the mathematical teachers of Great Britain. The number and variety of text-books of geometry produced by members of this party, especially during the last ten years, is very great. They have one common characteristic—they all profess on their title-pages to be editions of the 'Elements' of Euclid. They differ principally in the extent to which they carry their alterations, omissions, and additions.

Messrs. Hall and Stevens give us the first six books of Euclid—all that are usually studied in an elementary course — substantially in the form in which they appear in Simson's edition. The fifth book, which treats of ratio and proportion, has been entirely recast. We will say a few words in regard to it further on. The chief peculiarity of Messrs. Hall and Stevens's edition is the extent and variety of the additions. After each important proposition a large number of exercises are given, and at the end of each book additional exercises, theorems, notes, etc., etc. These are generally well selected, often ingenious and interesting, but the general impression of such a book is that geometry is not so much a science as a vast collection of facts and observations, connected with each other in various ways, but hardly susceptible of reduction to an orderly, consistent, in fine, scientific whole.

Messrs. Hall and Stevens's reconstruction of the fifth book of Euclid, on ratio and proportion, is based on a work of De Morgan, published more than half a century ago. De Morgan's book, a thin octavo of 87 pages, was a kind of commentary on Euclid's fifth book, and was marked by that clearness of statement and felicity of illustration in which he was perhaps unsurpassed by any mathematician who ever lived. The present editors of Euclid have often adopted his language, and their points of view are mostly the same as his. But we are inclined to think they would have done better to abandon Euclid altogether, and write a professedly new treatise on the subject. The fifth book of Euclid is notoriously the most difficult in his 'Elements.' But the difficulties are, in great part, inherent in the subject itself, and are to be overcome not so much by the study of any treatise as by the constant application of principles to specific cases. There are a great number of minute details about the construction of this edition, and its mechanical execution, which we have no space to mention, but all showing the care, the patience, and the labor which have been bestowed upon it. On the whole, we think it the most usable edition of Euclid that has yet appeared.

Prof. N. F. Dupuis's 'Synthetic Geometry' (Macmillan) has nothing in common with Euclid or any of the ordinary text-books of geometry, except that it treats the same subject. The author does not expressly say whether he assumes that the student has previously studied Euclid or any other of the common text-books, but he says in his preface that "the whole intention in preparing the work has been to furnish the student with that kind of geometrical knowledge which may enable him to take up successfully the modern works on analytical geometry." Still he treats the most important parts of elementary geometry in a manner peculiar to himself; but he also treats a great number of other subjects which find no place in ordinary elementary text books; thus, section 111 of part ii. treats of the "Geometric Interpretation of Algebraic Forms"; part v. treats, among other things, of "Anharmonic Ratios," a subject which occupies so large a place in that remarkable work, the 'Géométrie Supérieure' of Chasles. Prof. Dupuis's book is a valuable acquisition to the library of the professional mathematician, but it seems to us to belong to the class of works with which the authors will do better work than anybody else.

The 'Geometrical Conics' of Messrs. Cockshott and Walters (Macmillan) is interesting as showing, in the statement of its definitions and propositions and in its arrangement, the manner in which the Association for the Improvement of Geometrical Teaching thinks the subject should be presented to pupils. We have no room to criticise their work. It consists, in the first place, in having added demonstrations to the propositions of the Association.

Immediately after the treatment of the parabola, which is placed first, they have inserted a section of half-a-dozen pages on "Orthogonal Projection." One-half of this small space is occupied by the figures necessary for the elucidation of the subject, but they have succeeded in making an admirable presentment of its fundamental principles, containing all that is needed in subsequent parts of the work. The most striking characteristic is the immense number of problems upon which the pupil may test his mastery of the subject. There are, if we have counted rightly, 203 of these "riders," inserted at various places throughout the body of the work. At the end of the book we have 31 "important propositions to be proved by the reader," followed by 496 problems, nearly all of which are taken from examination papers prepared at the different colleges of the University of Cambridge. The shortness of human life, especially of that portion of it which it is possible to devote to the study of conic sections, and more especially still of that portion which a student at school or college can devote to that subject, forbids the supposition that the authors expected any one pupil to do all this work. It is a great mine from which pupils, professors, and amateurs can draw as inclination prompts or occasion requires.

We some time ago recorded our opinion that the elaborate treatise on Statics by Prof. Minchin was, for those acquainted with the higher mathematics, the best in existence. We at the same time recommended the 'Treatise on Elementary Statics' of Mr. John Greaves, both because it was an excellent work by an accomplished mathematician, and because it was written with the express design of serving as an introduction to Prof. Minchin's great work. Mr. Greaves now gives us a still smaller and more elementary 'Statics for Beginners' (Macmillan). For those who intend to study Mr. Greaves's former work, and yet desire to commence with as simple a book as possible, there are obvious advantages in beginning with one by the same author. Even those who have no present intention of pursuing the study beyond its most elementary principles and applications, will not go amiss in using a book especially adapted to serve as an introduction to a higher course.

Of Mr. W. E. Johnson's 'Treatise on Trigonometry' (Macmillan) all that we can say is that it is a very large and elaborate work, better suited, as it seems to us, to the library of the professional mathematician than for use in preparing lessons by the student for the classroom. Large as it is, it does not treat Spherical Trigonometry at all. The last chapter, on the "Geometrical Interpretation of Imaginaries," is well worth the attention of mathematicians.

The excellence and the widely extended use of the previously published text-books of Prof. John Casey create a presumption in favor of his last one on 'Spherical Trigonometry' (Longmans). Those who examine it will find that presumption fully justified. One feature of the book is that it gives the original sources not only of such propositions and processes as are out of the usual course of instruction, but often of those which might properly be considered as having long since become the common property of mathematicians. These historical and bibliographical notices often contain curious and interesting information which, while relieving the monotony of demonstrations and formulas, excites the interest and curiosity of the student. As is now the fashion, the number of exercises is very great; the book contains over five hundred.

Appended to the preface of Messrs. Wentworth, McLellan, and Glashan's 'Algebraic Analysis' (Ginn & Co.) is the following "Note," signed by Prof. Wentworth and Dr. McLellan: "It is due Mr. Glashan to state that the main part of the work on this algebra has been done by him." After careful examination, we cannot avoid the inference that the book is Mr. Glashan's, and that Messrs. Wentworth and McLellan have had very subordinate parts in the composition of it. If we were to venture an hypothesis, we should say that these gentlemen have probably examined the manuscript with sufficient care to satisfy themselves that it is worthy of their endorsement to the extent that Prof. Wentworth, who has a wide reputation as the author of mathematical text-books, and Dr. McLellan, who occupies a responsible official position in one of the departments of the educational machinery of the Dominion of Canada, are each willing to figure as associate authors of the work. They may well do so. It is a work of much more than ordinary merit. Those merits will become more apparent on the publication of a companion volume, which the authors say is in the course of preparation, containing demonstrations of the theorems, solutions of the examples, and other information more especially adapted to the use of private students who wish to pursue their studies without the assistance of a teacher. But there is another promise of the authors, or, as we are inclined to think, of Mr. Glashan, that if the patronage extended to this part i. shall be sufficient to warrant it, part ii. will follow, and a synopsis of its contents is given. We strongly urge all teachers of mathematics, and all interested in mathematical studies, to provide themselves with this book, not only on account of its own merits and utility, but in order to secure the publication of the second part, which, if executed in accordance with the programme announced in the preface to this part, and with the same skill, will bring within a manageable compass, and illustrate by examples, a vast amount of mathematical knowledge of the very highest order, practical, historical, bibliographical, and speculative, which now lies scattered through the pages of mathematical journals, foreign treatises, and the proceedings of learned societies.

The name of Prof. John D. Runkle will awaken in the minds of most of our older mathematicians pleasing recollections of the *Mathematical Monthly*, a journal which, a little over thirty years ago, was founded principally through his enthusiasm and perseverance, of which he was the editor, which presented to the eye the most beautiful specimen of mathematical typography then to be found either in this country or in Europe, and which reckoned among its contributors the ablest American mathematicians of that time, and many younger men who have since taken their places and achieved world-wide reputations. The intense political excitement of 1860, and the absorbing interest of the tremendous military struggle that followed, turned men's money as well as their thoughts into other channels, and the *Monthly* succumbed.

Prof. Runkle's 'Plane Analytic Geometry' (Ginn & Co.) is a very able work and well adapted for use as a text-book, but it is very large. A second volume, on 'Solid Analytic Geometry,' is promised, and it would seem that the extent of the course would necessitate, on the part of the average college professor and student, the omission of a considerable portion. But the book is intended primarily for the students of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and special technological schools can and ought to devote more time to mathematics, especially to analytic geometry, than is possible in the department of arts in most colleges. For those who intend to become engineers, architects, astronomers, or teachers of mathematics, the work seems admirably constructed.

Mathematicians will welcome the appearance of Prof. A. R. Hardy's treatise on 'Analytic Geometry' (Ginn & Co.), because they will be glad to see another specimen of the work of the accomplished author of the 'Elements of Quaternions,' and those who "hate mathematics" will welcome it because they think its completion may clear the way for another novel from the pen of the author of 'Passe Rose.' Prof. Hardy's treatise is much smaller than Prof. Runkle's, yet covers more ground, for it treats of solid geometry as well as plane. It is quite large enough for use as a college text-book, and we highly approve of shortening somewhat the course of plane, in order to make room for at least the elements of solid geometry.

The second edition of Prof. Wm. E. Byerly's 'Integral Calculus' is more than double the size of the first. The chapter on "Definite Integrals" is increased to four times its original length. This is well; it is, perhaps, the most important part of the Calculus. The chapter on "Line, Surface, and Space Integrals" is entirely new. But the most important addition is the long chapter (56 pp.) on "Elliptic Integrals." Not only is this chapter a very good one, but, so far as we know, this is the first time the subject has been treated in an American text-book. Another new chapter (xvii.) is an "Introduction to the Theory of Functions," which "was sketched out and in part written by Prof. B. O. Peirce." On the whole, if any person competent to the task were to compare these text-books with those on the same subjects in use half a century ago, he could not help noticing how large a portion of the recent works is occupied by matters then unknown, or known only to a few great mathematicians; nor could he help admitting that the "world does move," and that, too, forwards and upwards.

MORE NOVELS.

Children of Gibeon. By Walter Besant. Harper & Bros.

A Family Tree, and Other Stories. By Brander Matthews. Longmans, Green & Co.

Two Runaways, and Other Stories. By Harry Stillwell Edwards. The Century Co.

Ogeechee Cross-Firings. By R. M. Johnston. Harper & Bros.

Nobody knows whether the women of Gibeon were included among "all the inhabitants" who sent forth that embassy which appeared in the camp of the Israelites, footsore and ragged, their wine-skins all rent and their provisions reduced to a mouldy crust. Most likely the elders of Gibeon were wholly responsible for the theatrical device which secured a league with Joshua, and took good care not to subject it to incisive and offensive criticism from their wives and daughters. Yet the women shared the punishment decreed by Joshua when he knew that he had been duped, and that the pretended travellers from a far country really dwelt at his door. "Let them live," he said, "but let them be hewers of wood and drawers of water unto all the congregation," thus keeping his faith and the oath of all the Princes, yet not missing the sweetness of revenge.

In the course of ages, by the force of might and by strategy, the men of Gibeon have managed slightly to modify the doom of per-

petual servile labor. The women have been less fortunate, which is part of the fate of all women. Christian civilization has brought no rest or respite to the women of Gibeon; science, with its innumerable appliances for increase of comfort and diminution of toil, has done nothing to mitigate their misery; politicians and philanthropists—always talking, yet always full of talk—have not lifted a hair's weight of care from their shoulders; every year their feet in increasing numbers go down into darker places, and there is no light nor hope of any. Now and again a lance is broken for their sorrows, a song sung, a story told, but rarely has Providence sent them so stout and able a champion as Mr. Besant. He does battle nobly with effective weapons in skilled hands, and he summons, straight and fearlessly, all the daughters of the "Princes of the Congregation" to rally round him and carry on the fight. His novel is admirable, both as a novel and an appeal for a social reform. It is never gloomy, nor has it any affinity with philanthropic tracts. It does not produce hopeless depression, but stirs wholesome indignation. The poor are not sentimentalized, with virtues magnified at the expense of the rich, nor is the oppressor raked over the coals for miseries which are no fault of his. He is accountable for enough wretchedness, and any justice that can be done him is the sort of justice which ought to make him hide his face and cry for mercy.

The plot of the story is well constructed, with enough romance and mystery to excite curiosity, and providing good opportunities for jogging several varieties of slumbering consciences. Unlike most grumblers and would-be reformers, Mr. Besant suggests practical ways for ameliorating the conditions which he describes and deplores. The daughters of the Princes may work a reformation by personal effort and by combination. When each one who wears or uses in any way the product of the toil of her sisters of Gibeon shall know that each sister is honestly paid for her work, then the burden will be lightened and the curse lifted.

In one of the short stories included under the title, 'A Family Tree,' Mr. Matthews says: "A good idea for a short story is a shy bird and doesn't come for the calling." Mr. Matthews knows the bird perfectly well, and rarely attempts to palm off an inferior species. In none of these stories is the idea bad, but unfortunately in several it is so attenuated that one must be supersensitive to catch it. The charm of a short story lies not so much in what is written as in what is insinuated, yet for those not in the author's confidence a slight footing on solid ground is indispensable. Mr. James, who is a master of insinuation, occasionally overdoes it, and Mr. Matthews, who is less subtle and delicate than he, becomes irritatingly vague when he has not a bird of the finest quality sure in his hand. Nobody could divine from what he is given to go upon, whether "Memories" is a tragedy by implication or not. It is cruel, after compelling us to follow the very commonplace, sentimental reminiscences of Lieutenant Robert Douglas, not to give us the least clue for deciding whether he rescued "Pike County Pete's kids" or perished in the blizzard. We are all tired to death of the story-tellers straining to tell something, but it is very doubtful whether the story-tellers whose aim is to tell nothing will wear as well. "Notes of an Uneventful Voyage" is similarly defective. A little stability and definiteness could not have done any harm, and might have justified so much noting of insignificance.

The idea of a Family Tree is not the sort of dea which Mr. Matthews can trifle with most acceptably. His treatment of the humorously supernatural is inimitable, but the supernatural which ought to make one's flesh creep eludes him. Even in using a mildly cynical, very modern youth to link together a series of grimly tragic events, there is a frivolity destructive of any emotion of horror which those events might excite. The idea of "On the Battle-Field" is wholly good, and by the manner of narration a fantastic improbability becomes a real, true story. "Scherzi and Skizzen" are exquisitely frothy papers, including a very witty travesty of Chesterfield's letters. The keenly satirical drawing of a common type of American is still so good-natured that it will cause a grin of appreciation to expand the countenance of every John Quincy A. Chesterfield in the republic. "Postal Cards" are the cleverest work in a book of which all the workmanship is clever and polished in the modern style—a style that has more sparkle than elegance.

There is nothing elusive in the ideas or finical in the management of the stories in the volume entitled 'Two Runaways.' Each is an episode comic or tragic, told plainly and naturally, with small regard for literary graces. The inexhaustible negro, run close by the poor white, supplies both the fun and the pathos. If the language of printed books has any appreciable influence on speech, the future of English in America is awful to contemplate. Unless a sudden blight should fall upon the dialect writers, the native tongue may be quite extirpated, and, a generation or two hence, Americans may be communicating with each other in a "jangling noise of words unknown," a hideous gabble. However bad the language of these stories may be, each is for one reason or another worth telling, and one, "De Valley an' de Shadder," has dramatic fire and passion of remarkable force and dignity.

Mr. Johnston's story, 'Ogeechee Cross-Firings,' like most of his preceding stories, is a wonderful example of corrupt and distorted language. The peculiarity of his books is that the jargon of the uneducated people is hardly less incomprehensible than the hifalutin discourse of the "cultured classes," and much less fatiguing. Mr. Johnston's delineation of the slave-owner in middle Georgia is doubtless faithfully realistic. The plainness and primitiveness of his portraits must be shocking to those who cherish in memory an ideal planter, a gentleman of chivalrous honor and distinguished manners, with Johnsonian sentences rolling off his tongue as easily as smoke curls from his very costly cigar. It is granted by the wicked that truth is wholesome; yet even the good will admit that it is sometimes uninteresting. This story of middle Georgia may be counted among the uninteresting truths.

BRISBIN'S TREES AND TREE-PLANTING.

Trees and Tree-Planting. By Gen. James S. Brisbin, U. S. A. Harper & Bros. 8vo, pp. 258.

In Mr. Edward Emerson's charming memoir of his father's life in Concord, there has been saved for us a truthful and ingenious toast proposed by Col. Shattuck: "The Orator of the Day; his *subject* deserves the attention of every agriculturist." We may say the same of this book on Tree-planting. Its subject deserves the attention of every one who wishes well to his country, but we are not persuaded that the book itself deserves any attention at all.

It is all the more disappointing because its author was one of the first in our country to call attention to the deplorable effects of forest-waste, and we had the right to expect from him a work on forest-saving which should exhibit evidences of careful observation, or at least of careful editing of the observations of others. In this treatise we find no evidence of either. Notes of original observations are conspicuously absent, and the citations from other writers are given with a carelessness which would be amusing if it were not provoking. There is not only a failure to give the page and chapter of the references, but the volumes themselves are not mentioned, and in one case at least the name of the author cited is given incorrectly.

Moreover, there is no sense of proportion governing the citations, as will be illustrated by the following naïve remark (p. 47). After referring to the great importance of certain experiments made by the late President Clarke of Amherst, the author says: "Unable, from want of space, to present our readers with the full report, we endeavor to condense the material portions into a brief space." Overlooking the complete absurdity of introducing into a work on Trees and Tree-planting occupying only 258 pages the whole of a popular lecture on a minor topic, we may call attention to the fact that the brief abstract as it stands consumes six of the pages, and that, too, under the startling title of the "Blood of Trees." But this title does not seem so strange when we find that the author gives us, later on, nine pages filled with an account of the medicinal properties of the trees of the United States, prepared by "a firm of Manufacturing Chemists." Among the Trees mentioned in this account of drugs figure the "American alder" and the "black alder," Aralia spinosa (written in this book Arabia), and the broad-leaved laurel, all of which are, to be sure, goodly shrubs, but hardly to be reckoned as trees in the sense in which that word is understood by most authors. However, it is hard to know exactly what our author means by the term Tree, since (on p. 167) he gives us, incredible as it must seem, a paragraph on sheep laurel, otherwise known as lambkill, a plant which, under favorable circumstances, may attain the height of three feet. But, in order that this humble plant may have company in a work on Trees, we are given also a section devoted to the "ground hemlock," which, according to Gen. Brisbin, "is always a straggling, prostrate shrub," and another to the "shining willow," which, we are told, "if carefully cultivated, may reach the height of fifteen or twenty feet, but in its wild or native state is much smaller."

The difficulty of knowing exactly what our author means by Tree is increased by the following description of a small herb found in California (p. 32): "The soap-plant of California is not only beautiful, but useful, the bulbs being preferred by those who use them to the finest quality of soap. There is *another* tree found in South America, the bark of which is used as soap also." Our readers must pardon us for italicizing the word another.

Gen. Brisbin gives some references to the usefulness of a few of the trees not included in the list furnished by the firm of manufacturing chemists. For instance (on p. 109), we have an account of the cedran tree, "which grows only in Central America" (but which may become of commercial importance in view of the pleasant relations established by the visit of the members of the Pan-American Congress). Mr. John P. Curry's

"attention was first called to the cedran tree while on the Isthmus as consulting engineer for the Panama Railroad Company, by observing the neutralizing effect that its beans produced upon a snake-bitten buzzard. The bird was struck by a rattlesnake, and then made its

way to a cedran tree, and, after pecking at one of its beans, flew off apparently uninjured. A native to whom Mr. Curry related this incident scouted the idea of a rattlesnake-bite being dangerous, and exemplified his confidence in the efficiency of an antidote by bringing a snake of twelve rattles the following day and allowing himself to be bitten by it. He then took a cedran bean, and, having chewed it, swallowed a portion, and saturated the wound with his saliva; after which treatment no disagreeable feelings or unpleasant effects resulted from the bite."

And now comes an example of the author's method of dealing with important facts:

"Mr. Curry, after having been thus satisfied of the marvellous curative power of these beans, verified his experience by writing to the *Alta California* newspaper, and carried about a peck of the beans to San Francisco, where many successful experiments of their efficiency were made by Prof. Lanzwert, a German physician, on dogs, cats, and rabbits, etc., which were allowed to be bitten by rattlesnakes. After these tests the neutralizing power of these beans was never known to fail when applied to human beings bitten by these reptiles."

After this, it cannot surprise us to learn that a tincture manufactured from its roots by the firm of manufacturing chemists before mentioned is a "safer antidote than whiskey or alcohol," and that the same "is also a cure for gout and an antidote for hydrophobia." Of antidotes for snake-bites there would appear to be no lack in our forests, for we read on p. 142 that the bark of the catalpa is "a very good and sure antidote for the bites of snakes" (kind not mentioned). Further on, other statements are made regarding the same plant: "The honey collected from the flowers is very poisonous, and produces effects closely allied to the effects of the honey collected from the yellow jasmine. The flowers are *also* valuable as a remedy for asthma."

Very much that the author has given us regarding the age of trees is nearly as uncritical as the foregoing about their supposed uses. His account of the "big trees" of the Pacific Coast is unpardonably incorrect, since it comes from the pen of one presuming to write on the subject of trees. He has not made use of the trustworthy materials within easy reach, such as the 'Botany of California,' Dr. Gray's 'Sequoia,' and the like; if these were not at hand, he had little right to prepare even a single paragraph on the subject. We are told, for instance, "that they are mostly three thousand years old" (p. 29). But what shall be thought of a writer on the forest trees of America who could have allowed the following sentence to appear in his book (p. 86)? Speaking of the honey locust, the author permits himself to say: "Michaux, sent out by France twenty years ago, predicted that it would become valuable as a hedge-plant." André Michaux visited this country in the last century, arriving in New York in 1785. The author seems to have no clear ideas regarding the lapse of time.

The work is neither trustworthy as a popular treatise nor useful from a scientific point of view. Some portions are quite out of place in a scientific volume, and not sufficiently dignified even for so-called popular science. Thus, on page xxiv. of the introduction, Gen. Brisbin speaks of his boyhood and tells us how "Annie Berry sprained her foot so terribly, on that day, she was laid up for weeks, and the old doctor shook his cane and threatened what he would do if we ever frightened Annie again—all of which we knew was talk, for the doctor loved us too well to harm a hair on our young heads." Such bursts of confidence as this show plainly that the author writes pretty much as he would talk to his friends when wishing to convince them of the necessity of caring for trees and tree-planting; he would not then think it necessary "to verify his references," nor to maintain throughout his conversation due proportion in the treatment of his topics. But a treatise on so important a subject should be accurate and well-proportioned. This treatise, unfortunately, is neither. It cannot aid at all in the great work which its author has so much at heart, for its matter, commonplace to the last degree, should have been relegated to the columns of some country newspaper. There, from the ephemeral nature of the publication, it could do but little harm.

It remains for us to state that the volume is illustrated by a fine portrait of the author.

How to Catalogue a Library. By Henry B. Wheatley. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1889.

THE latest volume in the "Book Lovers' Library" may be cordially commended to all who cherish the popular delusion that anybody can make a catalogue; and even the professional cataloguer may learn something from this intelligent discussion of the difficult points in cataloguing, and careful comparison of the various codes of rules. The introduction treats of the definition of a catalogue, and is followed by a brief account of the codes in use in the British Museum, Bodleian, and Cambridge libraries. Jewett's, Cutter's, and the English Library Association's rules are also noticed, but no mention is made of the code of rules prepared in 1883 by the coöperative committee of the American Library Association, and fairly representing the general practice of this country. The question of the best form for a catalogue is next taken up, and the preference given to print, though it is admitted that manuscript catalogues must always be used in a large number of cases, and especially in private libraries. For a manuscript catalogue the book form is recommended, and the card catalogue dismissed with scant courtesy. The favor in which it is held in this country appears to the author "something almost incomprehensible, and one can only ask why such a primitive mode of arrangement should be preferred to a book catalogue. I can scarcely imagine anything more maddening than a frequent reference to cards in a drawer; and my objection is not theoretical, but formed on a long course of fingering slips or cards."

It is curious to see how our English friends continue to fight shy of the dictionary catalogue. Mr. Wheatley, indeed, gives it a half-hearted and grudging approval, conceding that, "in the abstract, the most useful kind of catalogue is that which contains the titles and subject references in one alphabet"; but he adds that "in libraries containing more than 10,000 volumes it will be found more useful to have a distinct index of subjects, while in catalogues of libraries below that number it will generally be advisable to include the subject references with the titles in one general alphabet." We are not aware that the Boston Athenæum or Boston Public Library has found it necessary, or even desirable, to abandon the dictionary plan, though these libraries contain considerably more than ten times 10,000 volumes.

The fourth chapter contains an interesting, as well as instructive, comparison of the various rules concerning the treatment of title-pages. The author's preferences are in the main sound, though exception may be taken to his treatment of anonymous works, catalogues, and prefixes in foreign names. The vexed question of the authorship of academical dissertations is discussed at length in a paper by B. R. Wheatley, which contains some useful suggestions, but, oddly enough, the author's rules give no directions whatever for the treatment of this puzzling class of publications. On the question of the arrangement of transactions and journals the author, though evidently influenced by the British Museum practice, seems inclined to hedge a little, and says that, if a library contains many magazines, journals, or transactions of societies, etc., it will be well to keep them distinct from the general catalogue, but if they are few, they can be included in the general alphabet. The rules for a small library which follow the discussions are, with very few exceptions, clear and sensible so far as they go; but even a beginner in cataloguing, or the librarian of a small library, would, on the whole, do better to take as a guide one of the fuller codes, for, as Mr. Cutter says, "in planning a manuscript catalogue it should be remembered that a small library may grow into a large one, and that if the catalogue is made in the best way at first, there will be no need of alterations."

The Political Life of Our Time. By David Nicol. 2 vols. D. Appleton & Co. 1889.

FEW readers in this hurried age will have the patience to learn of our political life through the medium of these pretentious volumes. The sight of a chapter entitled "The Development of our Political Culture in the Intellectual Life of India" is sufficiently deterrent, but when we are further bid seek "The Origin of our Political Culture in the Social Life of China," our courage wholly deserts us. We cannot withhold our admiration from an author who states candidly that he has availed himself, without scruple and without prejudice, of every fact and opinion open to him which he has deemed capable of evoking a healthy decision on the many grave interests of our time and country; but, while we wonder, we may not follow. It is indisputable that "the political events of our day succeed each other with great rapidity, and their issues are of such magnitude as to call forth all round the exercise of the most matured judgment"; but this proposition only arouses in us that irrelevant desire for craniological investigation which seized upon Charles Lamb when the Scotchman announced that, in his opinion, Shakspere was a great poet. We grant that "in the present attempt to educate the public mind to a just discrimination of the significance and consequence of passing events, all the representative features of the intellectual and social conflict of our day are merged in the desire to reach that union of philosophical with political and economical truths which the keenest of German critics foresaw would yield the most astounding results to modern society"; but we dare not submit our own mind to this educational process, for fear the result may be more astounding than wholesome. "That way madness lies" for temperaments less serious than this author's.

In short, we find the book absolutely unreadable. We discern that the author has studied much, and we come upon passages from time to time that are intelligible; but after an honest effort to discover what it is all about, we have been obliged to abandon the attempt in despair. Not only is the style singularly impenetrable, but the connection of thought proceeds according to some intellectual law that is to us unknown. We are reluctant to condemn so unsparingly what is evidently the product of patient industry, but we are convinced that ordinary readers would be unable to profit by it. Since it has been possible to write such a book, we suppose that it is possible for minds consti-

tuted like that of the author to understand it, and we may say that it is at least suggestive. The passages quoted above from the preface we believe give a fair idea of the author's thought as well as style, and we need only say that those who find them instructive will find in the body of the book many more of the same kind.

In and Around Berlin. By Minerva Brace Norton. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1889.

THIS little volume is the work of an American woman who, through the "generous sympathy" of her husband, as we learn from the dedication, goes to Berlin for her first residence abroad, lives there a few months, and writes up in a readable way the things that most attracted her attention. We have a chapter of "first impressions," dealing with the habit people have in Berlin of living up several flights of stairs; with the curious stoves and beds, and with the absence of elevators, carpets, bath-rooms, and closets. Then family and social life come in for consideration, the chapter upon this being the longest and most interesting in the book. Domestic customs, table manners, food and cooking, social usages, Christmas, a wedding—such are some of the topics touched upon. A chapter on education has a few pages concerning the Royal Library, and the pleasure of working there, a short account of a gymnasium (compiled from books, the privilege of a visit being so difficult for a woman to obtain), and a fuller account, with interesting details, of two visits to girls' schools. Subsequent chapters treat of such matters as churches, museums, palaces, public works, prominent personages, charities, etc.

For a book purporting to give only the impressions and observations of a short stay in the German capital, a book written with little preparation for the sojourn it describes, and written by one apparently not familiar with the German language, 'In and Around Berlin' is, as was said above, very readable.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alden, W. L. Trying to Find Europe. London: Sampson Low & Co.
Atkinson, E. The Industrial Progress of the Nation. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Baker, J. By the Western Sea: A Summer Idyll. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Carnarvon, Earl of. Letters of Philip Dormer Fourth Earl of Chesterfield to his Godson and Successor. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $14.
Ecker, Prof. A. The Anatomy of the Frog. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $5.25.
Harvard Studies in Classical Philology. Vol. I. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Meredith, O. Lucile. Frederick A. Stokes & Bro. $1.50.
Miller, S. A. North American Geology and Palæontology, for the Use of Amateurs, Students, and Scientists. Cincinnati: Samuel A. Miller.
Skrine, J. H. A Memory of Edward Thring. Macmillan & Co. $2.
The Green Bag. Vol. I. Boston Book Co.

Fine Arts.

THE BARYE EXHIBITION.—II.

LANDSCAPES BY COROT, ROUSSEAU, AND DAUBIGNY.

WHEN we look at the landscapes in the Exhibition of the works of friends and contemporaries of Barye, we are convinced that there is little profit in praising the work of one master as being better than that of all other masters, and we are reminded of the truth that in art it is often unjust to compare one man's work with another's to the advantage of either when their characteristics and methods are different. For though, in the Retrospective Exhibition at Paris last summer, there could be no doubt of the superiority of Corot, who was admirably represented by some forty pictures, and one of his landscapes there, "Biblis," yields to no other that has ever been painted by anybody in pure poetry and simplicity in the depiction of nature, though no painter ever painted a better landscape, it would be unjust to say that none ever painted one as good. In the Retrospective Exhibition there was not as good a one, but some of the other great landscape-painters were not there seen at their best; and it is because one or two of them are to be seen at their best in the Barye Exhibition that the pictures here are so interesting to those who have seen both exhibitions. There is no work in the New York galleries by Corot that equals the "Biblis," nor is there one that is quite as fine as "La Charette" or the "Crossing the Ford," two of the other notable Corots at Paris; but, on the other hand, there are at least three pictures by Rousseau and an equal number by Daubigny that surpass any works by these painters shown at the Retrospective Exhibition. With "Le Givre," No. 539; "Morning on the Oise," No. 567, and "The Valley of Tiffauges," No. 599, before us, we are safe in asserting that Rousseau may be seen at his best; and in the case of Daubigny, though the three pictures, "Landscape," No. 561; "On the River Oise," No. 579; and "Sunset on the Coast of France," No. 544, are not all among the most important of his works, yet we find in them so many of Daubigny's finest qualities, they one and all reveal so much of that direct, simple painting of nature which characterizes his best work, along with such refined and beautiful sentiment in the conception and such variety of motive, that it is fair to form a definite judgment from them as to the place of Daubigny among his contemporaries and the value of his work in the development of modern landscape-painting.

Among the eleven canvases by Corot in the exhibition, "The Martyrdom of St. Sebastian," No. 528, is perhaps the most widely known, and it is generally counted in the list of the most important of the painter's works. But it is not in this picture, nor in such grandiose compositions as the "Orpheus," exhibited in New York a few years ago at the Bartholdi Loan Collection, that we find the finest of his qualities. Nor shall we find them in that other much-praised picture, "The Evening Star," No. 529, which is dry in *facture* and cheaper in color quality than Corot's better work is wont to be, nor in the "Fauns and Nymphs," No. 594, though this picture in some ways comes up to his highest standard, and, were it not for the rigid straight line of the tree trunk in the middle that mars the composition, and a certain harsh brownness in the general tone of the big rocks above the pool in the foreground, it might be ranked very high. The great masses of foliage are admirably treated, and the sky is one of marvellous purity and depth. With the celebrated "Lake Nemi," No. 584, there is still less fault to find. It is a trifle theatrical in composition (it is avowedly a made-up composition, but it is just a little bit exaggerated in the effort to escape the prosaic), and it is not quite so pure in color nor quite so free from paintiness in the lightest part of the sky, as Corot's very best work is usually. Otherwise, in the rendering of a delicate atmospheric effect, in poetic beauty, and in the harmony of the ensemble, it is admirable, and will bear comparison with the best things from the master's brush. But the best Corot in this exhibition is "La Danse des Amours," No. 616. Here is a picture in which we find the most wonderful atmosphere, the most delightful color harmonies, and the most unobtrusive painting. That enchanting purity and simplicity which we saw in the "Biblis" are echoed here. These noble groups of dark trees, this vibrating, luminous sky, these tender tones of gray and green and warm white—white that is colored, so to speak, by a hundred tints that are reflected in it; these broad, simple masses which balance each other and hold each its indispensable value in the harmony of the whole—these things mark a master work, and here, if we do not find quite all that Corot has said in such a landscape as "Biblis," where nothing seems to be wanting, we do find some of his very finest qualities, and such truth and beauty of expression as belong only to the best of his pictures.

Of all the great painters of landscape the world has known, Corot is incontestably the most purely poetical. Truth is the foundation upon which all his art is based; and, with all his breadth in painting and his synthetical interpretation of nature's moods, he never forgets that fidelity to the facts is all-important, and never substitutes for the real beauty of Nature herself some fancied charm of color or effect of his own, as the English Turner did. Yet actual facts form his basis only, and other painters whose fame is as great as his have insisted more on these facts and made more of them in detail than did Corot. Rousseau appears as such a painter in one of the pictures here, "The Valley of Tiffauges." There are landscape drawings by Rousseau in existence, preparations for pictures on canvas in thin washes of color, with fine lines drawn with a pen or the point of a small brush, in which almost every leaf on a tree is outlined, almost every stalk is shown in a field of grain, hundreds of little blades and stems are exactly indicated in a foreground of grass and herbage. With such a groundwork for a picture, Rousseau has sometimes carried out this fidelity to the smallest detail in painting it, and "The Valley of Tiffauges" is a notable example of the successful treatment of a landscape in this manner. The foreground is a tangle of bushes, weeds, and grass; in the middle distance are close-growing trees encircling the little valley, and beyond are wooded hills. On the left is a cottage half hidden by the foliage; and the pale sunlight which falls gently on a poplar tree in the middle of the picture is not strong enough to light up the sky, which hangs behind the hills with warm gray and black clouds that serve to intensify the effect of the sunlight, and to concentrate the interest in the centre of the composition. The picture is conceived on large lines, and, in spite of the presence of an amount of detail that would be utterly bewildering if it were not painted by a great master, it is exceedingly broad and grand in general effect. It will bear an infinite amount of study, and not an inch of painting on the canvas will be found to vary in treatment from the standard of careful painting of detail that marks that part of it where the interest is concentrated. Everything is given, and yet nothing obtrudes, and, what is perhaps more remarkable still, the artist, while neglecting not even the smallest touch to bring out the leaves on every branch of the trees and every blade of grass, has painted his picture throughout with a splendid scheme of color—a strong, rich, deep ensemble of sombre tints that make of this landscape one of the finest tone studies in the exhibition.

But if we wish to see what Rousseau could do when he did not attempt such a *tour de force* as he has accomplished in the "Valley of Tiffauges," we may look at the "Morning on the Oise," No. 567. This is a picture in which a

poem is suggested, in which the warm morning sun of midsummer on a pleasant valley, with a river gliding through its fertile meadows, is made to play on trees and field and water in a harmony of golden light. The sky is dusky blue at the horizon, and there are masses of grayish clouds above. In the middle of the picture, the water, reflecting the blue of the sky and the grassy banks of the river, gleams in the sun, and an idle boat with a white sail shines gently in the light. Everything else in the composition is subordinated to this central mass—not that the foreground is slurred over, or that the trees and hills that hem in the sunny valley are not painted with proper fulness; but they are not insisted upon. We feel that they are there, but we look only at the boat on the river, and the smiling sunshine that makes the flowers bloom in the meadows and warms the water where the children are playing on the banks. Doubtless Rousseau has painted pictures that show more robust strength, more power to deal with difficult problems in nature, than this; but it is certain that he never signed a more beautiful little canvas, and that if he, too, is to be called a poet-painter, as Corot is, his best claim to the title is in this enchanting "Morning on the Oise."

In the Louvre there is a magnificent landscape by Rousseau, the celebrated "Sunset," that we call to mind whenever we hear his name mentioned, for his fame might rest on this one picture, and he would not lose the high place he holds among modern painters of landscape. There is another picture at the Barye Exhibition which is its rival among the masterpieces, a picture that could only have been painted by a very great artist, and which ranks among the finest landscapes in the world. We have seen Rousseau as an analyst and a master of technical expression in the "Valley of Tiffauges," and as a synthesist and poet in the "Morning on the Oise." In "Le Givre," he is both, and he reveals in this wonderful picture such a noble strength and such power in the interpretation of nature that we are almost ready to say that nothing could be better than this. Indeed, it would not be too high praise, and it may be justly given. As has been said before, comparisons do not prove much; and if we think that Rousseau and that other landscape painter who, at times, rises to a very high level, Diaz, should properly be placed a little below Corot, we may say that even if this be true, considering the sum of each man's achievements, it is not just to rank such a picture as "Le Givre" with any but the very best. And when we come to consider Daubigny, whose work is the most recent of all of them, and on which we have had less time to wait for the judgment that comes finally when we can appreciate at a distance what a painter's life and work are worth, we may again be embarrassed; for is not Daubigny often the peer of any landscape-painter? Is he not, indeed, sometimes the best of them all? And then Corot seems to be the one who must definitively have the highest place until we see the "Sunset" in the Louvre and "Le Givre," and then we are sure that Rousseau, in these pictures, at least, yields the palm to nobody.

The foreground in "Le Givre" slopes irregularly down away from the front of the picture, and the hoar-frost which gives the picture its title lies on the chilly rocks and dead grass of the hillside. In the valley beyond there are groups of trees that stand up dark and grim against the line of blue hills and the stretch of country that lies cold and cheerless under the heavy clouded sky. At the horizon, the burning red glow of the sun breaks through, and its light gilds the edges of the cloud curtains higher up with yellow and red and crimson. The air has a frosty breath, and the earth is wrapped in gloomy silence. That is the subject-motive of the picture. It is not a merry one, nor yet is it forbidding. It is simply grim and grand. "Le Givre" is magnificently painted; it is broad and strong, but not forced, and there is dignity and power in every brush-stroke. In composition it is natural and unaffected. It is admirably drawn and constructed; in color it is puissant, sober, and rich.

Daubigny lived and studied so much out of doors that he has tried in his pictures, more than any of the great landscape-painters of his day, to preserve the actual look of nature. He was not content to use facts for a basis and paint his remembered impressions. Perhaps it was a matter of temperament with him, or possibly he found the results of such work as he may have attempted if he followed the methods of Corot and others who preceded him less satisfactory than those he achieved when he adhered more closely to his studies from nature. Be that as it may, there is in his work more of the impression of what we fancy we have seen ourselves than there is in the creations of the other great artists, and we are apt to think that Daubigny's landscapes contain more actual truth than is to be found in any others. We shall have to compare him with the painters at work to-day, such as Monet, or Harpignies, or Cazin, to find any one who resembles him in this respect. But while this ever-present fidelity to nature's looks is a conspicuous quality in Daubigny's painting, it by no means overshadows others that are essential in the highest fields of landscape. In the present exhibition, indeed, we have three pictures which show most clearly that Daubigny felt the poetry and the tenderest beauties of nature as much as any man, and, moreover, we are persuaded that in their expression he equals if he does not excel some of those whose reputation is based principally on the presence of such qualities in their painted works. In the little landscape called "On the River Oise," a delightful picture, in which the afternoon sun pours over a pleasant bit of country with a river flowing between green banks, and cows are coming down to the water's edge from the cool shade cast by the trees that grow high on the sloping meadow, there is expressed all the quiet beauty of a pastoral scene. It is as refined and sweet in sentiment as any landscape could well be, and there is no trace of the workman who sees only superficial beauty or striking effects. The sky is wonderfully brilliant, and harmonizes delicately with the subtle tints of the distant hills and more positive hues of the foreground, and the canvas is bathed in a gentle golden light. It is very beautiful, this little picture, and we shall hardly find anywhere a more delicious piece of tender color.

But in another picture by the same hand near by, which is catalogued simply as "Landscape," we may find even more charm than in this one. It represents a wide river which fills all the foreground except where the shore frames it in at the left; and beyond a bank with tall poplar trees and a mill that juts out into the stream lies a town with innumerable roofs and gables, and a church spire that points up to the gray clouds which roll in the sky and are reflected in the broad current that flows past the town. There is infinite truth of observation in this picture, and we marvel at the skill of the painter who has put the scene so admirably on canvas, who has given to each thing its proper value—the trees that grow across the river enveloped in the atmosphere, and the tall poplars nearer to us darker against the sky, the town with its gray and white walls reflected in the water, the shadows broken by the ripples, and the great open sky with its clouds of pearly gray—who has painted all this with such justness of vision and without a single discordant note. This is such a picture as a painter loves, and Daubigny is appreciated best by the painters. They like his honest, direct method, his evident sincerity, and they admire his winning, tender way of depicting Nature, copying her many moods with a loving hand that fears to add or take away lest her fair beauty be marred.

If to such charming qualities as are shown in these two admirable landscapes by Daubigny we add vigor and strength and a breadth of conception that marks the great master, and should wish to find them all in one picture, we may turn to a third canvas, "Sunset on the Coast of France." The green sea fills the middle of the picture, and a low headland juts out at the horizon on the right. In the foreground is the rocky beach, with seaweed and wet drift, and, enclosed in rugged walls of rock and sloping ledges, the water in a pool lies still and calm. The upper part of the sky, where it is blue and pale, is reflected in the pool; outside the beach, the sea, with its rolling waves, shows only its own deep, dark green. All this is nobly painted, with a firm, steady swing of the brush, and the wide expanse of the sea is majestic; but the glorious sunset sky is what gives the picture its grandeur. The sun is low down and disappearing at the horizon in a magnificent glow of light—a light so intense that the floating clouds are almost burnt out by it. It is no flaming mass of red and crimson, and there are no crude blotches of flaring yellow, as there would be if a weaker hand had tried to paint it. There is no exaggeration, there is no falsifying, no toning down here to make it more forceful there. It seems to be as absolutely truthful in effect as paint can make it, and its grand beauty cannot be adequately described in words. When we look at it and it grows upon us, when we feel all its splendor and note with what simple means the painter has put before us such a noble and beautiful effect in nature, we cannot hesitate, if we are asked who are the greatest painters of landscape, to reply that Daubigny is one of them, and of the very best.

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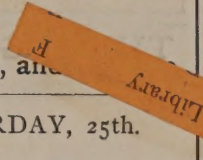

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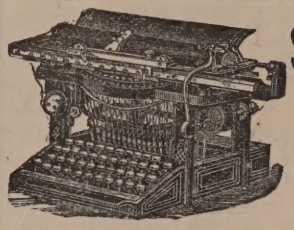

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 23, 1890.

The Week.

SECRETARY WINDOM'S Silver Bill is at variance with all the laws of sound finance, and the only excuse that can be found for it is that the present coinage law, which it proposes to repeal, is still more at variance with them. The upshot of the bill, if it should pass, would be to stop the present arbitrary coinage of two millions per month, and make it discretionary with the Secretary to receive silver bullion and issue certificates therefor, or not, and to change his policy in that regard from time to time; the approval of the President being necessary to a suspension of the ordinary operation of the law. This is so totally opposed to all conceptions of currency and money that have ever received the sanction of thinkers, that in any other country it would be set in the pillory as a warning to the rising generation, but for the fact that it is intended to supersede something even more anomalous. The discretion of the Secretary of the Treasury is certainly better than the two-million-per-month law. Moreover, since the silver certificates are not to be legal tender, and since the banks are not required to receive them, the possible mischief would be within determinable bounds.

Senator Sherman having taken it upon himself to introduce the Knox bill to continue the existence of the national-banking system after the national bonds shall have been paid off (for that is the *raison d'être* of the bill), we may assume that the measure is to be seriously taken up and pressed to a vote, although a conclusion may not be reached upon it during the present session or in the present Congress. We have already expressed the opinion that the principle of the bill is sound. In its amended form, an additional security to note-holders is given by a provision that the redemption of the circulating notes of failed banks shall constitute a first lien on the assets and on the individual liability of the shareholders of the banks, taking precedence of all claims except the expenses of the receivership. This is also a sound provision. Meanwhile a counter proposition has been put forward, that first-class bonds issued by States and flourishing municipalities may be received in lieu of United States bonds as security for bank circulation. This plan we consider wholly inadmissible, for a variety of reasons. First-class State bonds are not obtainable in any amount worth considering, all the States whose securities would be regarded as good beyond peradventure being nearly or quite out of debt. The duty would be imposed upon the Treasury Department, at all events, of inquiring into the financial standing of both States and municipalities in order to determine what are first-class, and also what description of bonds have been lawfully issued under the respective Constitutions of the States. Here lobby influence would certainly come in to the assistance and confusion of the Treasury officials, and if any mistakes were made resulting in loss, conflicts between Federal and State authority would ensue which might lead to greater evils than the measure is intended to cure.

The convention of the Afro-American League at Chicago last week appears to have been a failure, so far as any benefit to the negroes is concerned. The colored bishops, the chief educators, and the other more promising leaders of the race were almost entirely absent, and the men who did most of the talking contributed nothing of value to the discussion of the questions involved. Indeed, the idea of accomplishing anything through the League was all wrong. That idea grew out of the notion that the wrongs from which the negro suffers can be righted in short order by the action of a convention, or of a political party, or of the Government. Those wrongs grow out of a prejudice among whites against blacks, which prejudice in turn grows out of the fact that the blacks were long slaves, and are still as a race generations behind the whites in civilization. To overcome this prejudice must be the work of time, and a long time at the shortest. The best way to hasten the result is for the blacks to devote themselves to the acquisition of education and of property, rather than to holding conventions and demanding legislation which would probably be adjudged unconstitutional by the Supreme Court, and would be annulled by the people if it were not by the judiciary. The most hopeful sign for the future of the race is not the holding of Afro-American League conventions, but the fact, cited by Gen. S. C. Armstrong in *Frank Leslie's*, that "the race is steadily accumulating property in land," and that "where the total taxable landed property of Georgia has increased in ten years 53 per cent., the taxable landed property of the negro has increased 83 per cent.—a state of things whose significance needs no comment, especially as it exists, according to the best evidence we can get, throughout the South."

Gov. Abbett of New Jersey has given Gov. Hill the hardest blow which he has received as the leading opponent of ballot reform. Great hopes have been entertained by the Hill-Dana-Butler-Foraker-Gorman-Boutelle-Tanner-Halstead combination that Gov. Abbett would join them in opposing the Australian system, and especially the exclusive official-ballot requirement of it. It is said, on apparently good authority, that Gov. Hill wrote several letters to Gov. Abbett earnestly requesting him to take such a stand. But the latter was too sagacious a politician to put his political future in peril by any such alliance. He has placed himself on record in his message as being squarely in favor of the official ballot, saying that among the "essential features" of a ballot-reform law, which he cordially recommends, should be the following:

> "There should be an exclusively official ballot, printed and distributed by the State, so that one ballot cannot be distinguished from another when it is folded and ready for voting. The law should prohibit the use of any ballot except the official ballot."

He goes on to say that he believes personally that official ballots could safely be distributed elsewhere than in the polling-places, but that he recognizes the fact that ballot-reformers do not agree with him on that point, and that he is willing to waive it if the Legislature so decree. Gov. Abbett's declaration, taken in connection with that of Gov. Campbell of Ohio and Gov. Wilson of West Virginia, all Democrats, leaves Gov. Hill more than ever solitary in his party as the opponent of the reform. He is, in fact, the beginning and end of organized opposition in this country. But for him and his specious objections, which a handful of professional anti-reformers have echoed, nearly every State in the Union would have had by this date a genuine ballot-reform law on its statute-books.

The speech made by the Honble. Calvin S. Brice, who has just been elected to the United States Senate, in acknowledging his nomination by the Democratic caucus, traced out in broad and striking lines the great features of the legislative policy which he would support in the august body in which he now takes his seat. He spoke as follows:

> "I desire that there shall be freedom of action, freedom of speech—as much of each as is consistent with every one in the commonwealth. This is the sum of my Democracy—not more legislation than is required to accomplish this. Whether the issue be a temporary one or a protracted one, by it I know I can test and determine the place where I will stand and where the Democratic party ought to be. Whether it is a question relating to money laws, as we had between 1869 and 1876 and 1878, I say that no more legislation should be enacted than is required to give to each individual free action, free thought and deed. I say, gentlemen, that the principles of Democracy have been the same from the times of Jefferson and Washington down to the present, whether it was the tariff or the money that demanded the attention of the legislators. This is my Democracy, and by it I propose to live and die."

The Brooklyn *Eagle* makes on this the criticism, which if jestingly made is very unseemly, that "there has been nothing equal to it since the construction of Noah's Ark." In a certain sense this is undoubtedly true. The Ark was not made without much thought and many plans and specifications. Neither, we may be sure, was this striking but compact sketch of the Democratic policy in Federal affairs. Like all things worth examination, its full meaning cannot be grasped without prolonged study, but it will well repay the investigator, if in no other way, as a mental exercise.

The Vermont "Commissioner of Agricultural and Manufacturing Interests" has published (in Swedish as well as in English, which seems very odd and adventurous for a staid New England commonwealth) his advertised map of the State, "showing the locations of towns in which are unoccupied farms, and lands occupied which can be bought at about the same price as those unoccupied." These towns are printed on the map in deep colors, so as to make a striking picture to the eye, and at first glance appear to include about one-half the whole State. In reality their number is but sixty, or somewhat less than one-third the whole number of Vermont towns. It is to be observed, however, that the map includes only towns from which official intelligence has been received, and there are many others than those here delineated in which, as a matter of fact, to use the Commissioner's language, "Good farms, with fair buildings and maple-sugar orchards, can be purchased at from $3 to $5 per acre, while others, with better buildings, and near railroad or village, can be bought for from $5 to $10 per acre." Our own observation and information point to the conclusion that the number of Vermont towns in which these conditions actually exist (more or less widely) may be double the number officially notified to the Commissioner, and therefore appearing on his map.

Confining observation strictly to the map, it is interesting to note that the desolate regions are in a longitudinal strip comprising, roughly, the eastern half, and, as the State widens towards the north, still bearing to the east and leaning, as it were, on the Connecticut River. Indeed, upon the western border but a single town is marked upon the map, that of Sandgate, next to the favorite summer resort of Manchester, while no less than fourteen of the marked townships are either directly upon the eastern border or are but one remove from it, the thriving neighborhoods of Brattleboro and Bellows Falls maintaining a narrow fringe of prosperity along the river for a considerable space. And all the remaining desolate towns are packed together almost without break against this eastern limit. It is not altogether easy to account for the strong line of demarcation between the eastern and western halves of Vermont, thus laid down on the Commissioner's map, but it seems probable that the great Champlain waterway may have influenced the prosperity of the western half of the State as far south as the latitude of Rutland, while from Rutland south the mineral resources of the western portion must have contributed something. Still, it must be remembered that, as we have remarked, the map is but a compilation of official reports, and that a showing of actual fact might present a distribution somewhat different from the one under review. The whole southern border of Vermont, save the extreme easterly and westerly townships, is marked as belonging to the desolate region, thus carrying out the conditions of the adjoining Berkshire (Mass.) country; and from the southern border the portions thus marked rise contiguous through the space of nine townships (more than one-third the length of the State) before a break is reached at Woodstock. After this they stretch again almost unbroken to the northern boundary.

We are glad to see that the Grand Jury has indicted Major Clark of the Southern Club, who treated us the other day to an exhibition of a Southern "shooting affray," or "street fight," or "personal difficulty," between two gentlemen in Twenty-fourth Street, just outside of the Club. A most disgusting exhibition it was, but a faithful reproduction of the original article. First there was the quarrel in the club hall, a trumpery, childish affair, about the proper manner of returning a borrowed book. Then there was the usual altercation, containing words that no gentleman could submit to without trying to murder somebody. Then there was the adjournment to the sidewalk and the production of a pistol by the injured man. The other, being unarmed, then took refuge behind a common friend, and tried to interpose him between himself and the possible balls, but had to receive the fire over the friend's shoulder. Then there was the running of both parties round a cart, one firing and the other dodging; then the mad flight of the defender into a hotel to borrow a weapon from the clerk, so that he might have it out with the aggressor. The performance could not have been more perfect or more ruffianly if it had taken place in the streets of Jackson, Miss., or Sylvania, Ga. Neither Barnum nor Buffalo Bill could have got it as well done in his circus, and we trust a New York jury and a faithful Recorder or City Judge will express their appreciation of it.

In a recent review of the Tenth Census report upon the "Social Statistics of Cities," we commented upon the excessive rate of taxation in Hartford, Conn., and professed our inability to explain it. The Board of Trade of that city has now furnished us an official explanation, which is that the statement in the census report was a gross error. The tax per capita in Hartford for 1880 was not $30, but $20.15. Since we have, although innocently, disseminated an evil report concerning our neighbor, we shall endeavor to make reparation by quoting some of the figures given by the Board of Trade in the annual report of its Secretary. It seems that, estimating the population by the registered vote in the years of Presidential elections, it increased from about 42,500 in 1880 to about 51,500 in 1888, while the individual tax averaged for the nine years $19.66, and was for 1888 only $18.67. During this period the city has expended, in reduction of debt and in extraordinary disbursements, more than $1,100,000, the result being shown in a new railroad station and other public buildings, city parks and water-works, and other improvements of a permanent character. It is thought that no more expensive improvements will be necessary for some time to come, and that the rate of taxation will be still further reduced. The report presents many other particulars concerning the growth of the city.

The Duke of Marlborough has entered the lists in behalf of bimetallism, and has essayed to break a lance with Mr. Robert Giffen in the columns of the London *Times*. Mr. Giffen had written a smashing letter to support the thesis that neither one country, nor any group of countries, nor the whole world, could maintain by legislation a par of exchange between silver and gold on any basis whatever in the face of varying conditions of supply and demand. This is the contention of economists with a very few exceptions, and is sustained by Mr. Giffen with great vigor. The Duke, in his reply, falls into more errors than we have space to enumerate, but one of them deserves special notice. He points to America as a bright and shining example of sound principles of finance carried into practice, and assumes that all the kinds of currency in circulation here, greenbacks, bank-notes, gold certificates, and silver certificates, are legal tender. "Here," he says,

> " is one of the wealthiest nations of the world, with the most unlimitable resources, establishing a system of legal tender on a basis which is at complete variance with Mr. Giffen's opinions, and all Mr. Giffen has to say is that their theory is rotten. The fact is, we are completely behind America in our conceptions of currency and legal tenders. If we cannot arrive at the millennium of bimetallism, is there any reason why we are to remain in a species of patriarchal condition provided for us by Lord Liverpool and Sir Robert Peel, and refuse to stir an inch from the conditions of currency which were suitable to England when her trade was a tithe of what it is at the end of this century?"

The Duke has good reasons, no doubt, for admiring American finance, but his expression of them in the *Times* is misleading. The only legal tenders in this country are greenbacks and gold and silver *coin* of full weight. All the other things circulate by virtue of their redeemableness. In fact, the system of Lord Liverpool and Sir Robert Peel, which the Duke considers so much behind the age, is, in its essence, the American system to-day. The greenbacks and bank-notes correspond to the uncovered issue of the Bank of England notes, which are really secured by the Government's debt of fifteen millions to the bank. The gold and silver certificates are like the excess of Bank of England notes over and above the fifteen, million issue, *i. e.*, they represent coin in the Treasury dollar for dollar. The greenbacks are themselves a Government debt protected by a gold reserve equal to 30 per cent. of their face. The latter are slightly different from anything in the English system, but the difference is scarcely material in the aggregate of the currency afloat.

The so-called "Grace Contract" which the Government of Peru has signed with its English bondholders is probably the most remarkable document of the kind ever executed. It is called, in the resolution authorizing it which the Peruvian Congress passed in October last, "A contract cancelling the foreign

debt of Peru." Under its provisions the bondholders release the Government, "fully, absolutely, and irrevocably, from all responsibility for the loans of 1869, 1870, and 1872," and in return the Government cedes to the bondholders "all the railways of the State for the term of sixty-six years," and the product of its guano beds for an indefinite period. During five years from the delivery of each railway the bondholders shall have exclusive right to build extensions, and they bind themselves to maintain the lines and their rolling-stock in good condition and to construct such stations as good service and public convenience require. The Government cedes to the bondholders, without remuneration, all available State lands which may be necessary for railways, stations, shops, and other buildings, and pledges its assistance in acquiring possession of private lands needed for such purposes. Free use of the quays is also ceded, and the admission free of duty of locomotives, steam and electric motors for the lines and factories, rolling stock of all kinds, sleepers, coal, and all material used in construction and repairs. The Government reserves the right to regulate passenger tariffs upon the lines, below a specified maximum, and freights are to be settled by agreement between the Government and the bondholders. The rates for the transfer of troops and war material of the Government are specified in the contract. The lease of the railways carries with it the telegraph and telephone lines established in connection with them. The bondholders promise to build certain extensions and make certain repairs within specified periods, under penalty of fines and of final forfeiture of the lines to the Government in case of failure.

In addition to the cession of its railways the Government cedes the entire product of its guano beds up to the amount of 3,000,000 English tons, and the admission, free of duty, of machinery and material required for working them; and if the 3,000,000 limit cannot be reached, the Government shall not be held responsible for the difference. When the limit has been reached, the beds are to revert to the Government. At the end of the sixty-six years' lease the railways are to be returned to the Government free of all liabilities, with all their rolling-stock, and all in good condition. During the lease of the mines and railways the Government shall pay to the bondholders thirty-three annuities of £80,000 each. The contract is hedged about with conditions and penalties in all directions, and all differences as to its interpretation must be settled by the courts of the country. The Government appears to have given over to its creditors its chief sources of income, to be used by them not merely for their benefit, but for that of the country itself. The bondholders cannot carry out their agreements and not vastly benefit the country by extending its railway lines, enlarging the working capacity of its guano beds, and opening up large tracts of agricultural country which are now lying idle. Both sides to the contract appear to be well protected, and to have combined for mutual benefit.

Great expectations seem to have been aroused among the inhabitants of the Isthmus of Panama by the arrival there of the commission of French engineers appointed to investigate and report upon the abandoned canal. This is natural, but the reports sent out by correspondents of the opinions and prophecies of the commissioners should not be taken too seriously. The commission are actually in the employ of the "provisional administrator" (receiver) of the bankrupt canal company, their fees and expenses being provided for by something analogous to an issue of receiver's certificates, and they will naturally be disposed to do and say what they can to justify their employment. The state of public opinion and the condition of financial affairs in France are more important factors in this problem than the after-dinner speeches of M. Germain, the head of the commission. Here is what the Paris correspondent of the London *Times* has to report upon that subject, in a review of the French money market, published on December 30. M. Blowitz, (the correspondent), it should be remembered, was one of M. de Lesseps's thick-and-thin supporters down to the day of the final catastrophe:

"The collapse of the Panama Canal Company, which became an acknowledged fact in the first days of the year, has cost the French savings a sum of nearly seventy-four millions sterling ($370,000,000), and as by far the largest part of the colossal amount has been sent out of the country, it will never return in the shape of dividends or otherwise. It may be considered as irretrievably lost. A commission has now been constituted to investigate the merits of the enterprise and the possibility of carrying it out with a capital reasonable enough to be got afresh from the public; but it is generally felt that this commission is simply to act as pallbearers to a scheme which had not been sufficiently studied at the outset, and in the management of which enthusiasm and sentimentalism stood in place of sober calculation and business-like appreciation of possibilities."

There was nothing in the known deliberations of the "Reconciliation Conference" which met early this month in Vienna, and adjourned after a brief sitting, to foreshadow the sanguine cable announcement that the object of the Conference had been fully attained, and all the differences between the Czechs and the Germans settled. As the party leaders had assembled in obedience to the direct wish of the Emperor, who probably became alarmed at the threatened withdrawal of all the German Deputies from the Vienna Reichsrath—an act which would have rendered constitutional government in Cisleithania practically impossible—it was to be expected that some sort of truce would follow the strife between Germans and Czechs, which has gained in bitterness since Count Taaffe first instituted his "reconciliation policy," ten years ago. Undoubtedly the Governor of Bohemia, Count Thun, who had become obnoxious alike to the Germans and the ultra-radical Young Czechs, will be withdrawn; the German Deputies who had withdrawn from the Diet at Prague will reënter it; and, very likely, the German element in Count Taaffe's Cabinet will be reinforced by the appointment of two or more Liberal Germans in place of the most pronounced pro-Slavic members. The Conference considered the German demands for the establishment of purely German local courts in those districts of Bohemia where only that language is spoken, for the division of the Appellate Court at Prague into a German and Czech Senate, and the provision of other double administrative machinery; and the very fact that the German cause appears to have been generally successful, argues against the stability of a peace obtained through concessions on the Czech side only.

The differences between the two nationalities date back to the troubles of the Reformation. The opposition of the Czechs to the present political order of things in the Empire is based on the claim that the lands of the "crown of St. Wenceslas"—Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia — never surrendered their rights of autonomy, and that while in 1526 they elected a prince of the Hapsburg dynasty King of Bohemia, the Emperor of Austria is not legally King of Bohemia unless crowned as such at Prague. The demand for the coronation of Francis Joseph having recently been unequivocally refused by Count Taaffe in his reply to the interpellation of Herr Plener, the leader of the German Opposition in the Reichsrath, and the Germans having carried their point at the conference, it would appear that the Czech part in the "settlement of all differences" consisted simply in the recognition of the force of circumstances, and the submission to the will of the Emperor, whose personal popularity is as great in Prague as it is in Vienna. Nor must it be forgotten that the dissensions within the ranks of the Czechs themselves—that is to say, between the Old Czechs and the Young Czechs—are only less radical and acrimonious than the national differences between Slavs and Germans. It was only a few weeks ago that the proposal of the Municipal Council of Prague to erect a memorial tablet to John Huss in the new museum building caused the most violent division of sentiment between those who glorified Huss as a Bohemian patriot and those who execrated him as a heretic. The Young Czechs, under the leadership of Dr. Gregr and through their mouthpiece, the *Narodni Listy*, attacked the clerico-feudal opposition of the Schönborns and Schwarzenbergs to the erection of the tablet with a vehemence generally reserved for their German opponents. It is safe to say that, so long as Count Taaffe remains Premier, whatever advantages the Germans have gained are but temporary; that the Czechs are quite willing to bide their time, and that, if Taaffe attempts to rally to his support the Liberal Germans, it is only because he cannot, without endangering the very existence of the monarchy, rely any longer on his allies up to the present time—that curious conglomerate of Czechs, Poles, Dalmatians, Slovenes, reinforced by the Roman Catholic clergy and the feudal nobility.

THE NEGRO PROBLEM.

THERE is a bill before the Senate providing for Government aid "to persons of color" in emigrating from the Southern States to Africa. There was an interesting debate on it on Thursday, in which Senator Butler of South Carolina made an extremely able, but entirely philosophic, speech, which was answered by Senator Hoar of Massachusetts. Mr. Butler treated the presence in the Southern States of some 8,000,000 of colored people in a condition of discontented and, as far as human eye can see, of permanent, political and social inferiority, as by far the most serious question of the day. He proposes, therefore, that they should be encouraged to emigrate, with Government aid, to the great African Continent from which their ancestors came, and which is now being opened up to civilization exactly as the American Continent was in the sixteenth century, and in which the right men can found, if they please, a considerable number of powerful States. The English have already founded one at the Cape of Good Hope. The Dutch have founded two further north. The "Congo Free State," which has been sketched out rather than established, is not yet a political community, but its charter offers splendid opportunities to energetic colonists for whom the climate has no terrors, to found an empire. It contains everything that an empire needs except civilized and acclimated settlers.

Senator Butler's contention that if the Southern negroes are fit to participate on equal terms in the political and social life of the Southern States, they are *à fortiori* fit to undertake the great work of reclaiming and regenerating Africa, or at all events to establish prosperous communities in the portions of it which European enterprise has now opened, is, therefore, not an unreasonable one. In fact, if there be such a thing as appointed destiny for great bodies of men, it would seem as if it ought to be the destiny of the blacks who have been brought here, and to a certain extent trained in civilization, to go back to the cradle of their race and spread over the Dark Continent the blessings they have purchased at so fearful a price. A more splendid opportunity has never been offered to any people.

But, of course, the negroes cannot be forced to emigrate. Nor could transportation be provided for them, if they declared their willingness to go to-morrow. All the great emigrations of history have been voluntary emigrations—the movements of bold and enterprising men who sought, "under new skies and amid a strange vegetation," better conditions of living than they had at home. The great movements of population which overthrew the Roman Empire, whether undertaken for colonization or conquest, were voluntary. All the really successful colonies of the modern world have been founded in the same way. The two greatest emigrations the world has seen, those of the Irish and Germans to this country, have been made willingly, and the expense, which has been enormous, has been borne by the emigrants themselves, generally poor people. In fact, it is useless to think of emigration on a scale so great as to produce important social and political results unless it is undertaken with zeal and hopefulness by the emigrants themselves. Unwilling, faint-hearted exiles have never founded a State yet, or added to the strength of one already founded.

Consequently, until we see some sign among the leading colored men of a desire to lead their people to Africa, and of a desire among considerable bodies of their people to follow them, it is useless to expend much thought on African colonization as a solution of the negro problem. There is in our mind no question that, if they were really as worthy of American citizenship as some of their friends think they are, they would be glad to avail themselves of the African opening to get away from degrading social conditions, and realize such dreams of race greatness and capacity as their best men doubtless cherish. But greatness cannot be thrust on white men: why should we suppose it can be thrust on black men? The very reasons which make their presence here obnoxious to white people operate to prevent their departure.

There is, however, it is proper to observe, a rapidly growing sympathy at the North with Southern perplexity over the negro problem, and a growing disposition to listen even to such heroic solutions of it as that proposed by Senator Butler. Even those who were not shocked by the carpet-bag experiment, and have been since then disposed to make light of the Southerner's troubles with his colored brother, are beginning to "view with alarm" the political prospect created by the increase of the negro population, and by the continued inability of Southern society to absorb or assimilate them in any sense, physical, social, or political.

What is doing most to intensify this alarm is the extraordinary nature of the measures devised by the friends of the negro for his elevation to an equality with the white man. These measures are of such a character that tens of thousands of philanthropic and conscientious men at the North are beginning to ask themselves to-day whether the highest interests of the American commonwealth do not call for a resolute and peremptory resistance to any further political sacrifices for the negro's benefit. The first, and the greatest that any civilized community has ever made, was the sudden admission to the suffrage of a million of recently emancipated slaves belonging to the least civilized race in the world, and this in a State avowedly founded on the intelligence and political experience of the voter. No nation has ever done this, or anything like this, for the benefit of aliens of any race or creed. It was a great leap in the dark, the ultimate consequences of which no man now living can foresee. It involved greater risks than war on the largest scale with any civilized Power. The mistake of going to war can always be cured by making peace, but the mistake of bestowing the suffrage on a large body of people unfit for it is one for which there is no remedy. A very large portion of the Northern public is asking to-day: "Was not this enough? Ought we not to stop here, and let the negro work out his own salvation? Who or what is he, that we should put the interests of the 55,000,000 whites of this continent in peril for his sake? Is it not to be feared that the venal and easily intimidated and cajoled vote which we now allow him to cast, may exert a profoundly deteriorating influence on our whole system of government, without doing him any perceptible good?"

So far from answering this question satisfactorily, his friends are preparing and urging on the community for his benefit changes of the most serious character in the working of the Government. The most valuable and successful feature of the Constitution, the one which has excited most admiration and is producing most imitation in other countries, is the relegation to State jurisdiction of all local concerns, and especially of police and education. This is really the corner-stone of our system. Well, we have been witnessing, during the past few years, two attacks on it, of the most insidious character, and both for the benefit of the negro. One proposes to put the national Government in charge of education in the States where negroes abound, and relieve the local taxpayers of all responsibility for his intellectual condition, and create a bureau in Washington like that in Paris, which enables the Minister of Public Instruction, according to M. Duruy's boast, to tell any visitor what page of what book any class of any school in France is reading at any given moment.

The second sacrifice which the country is asked to make for the negro is also a great one, namely, the centralization at Washington of the control of State elections, and the concession to the General Government of as much local police power as may enable it to guarantee the colored population complete security, both of person, property, and political rights. These measures have not passed. They are not likely to pass. But they are renewed year after year, and pushed, under one form or another, with a tenacity which is naturally and properly alarming people. If the Northern public were to witness such attempts with indifference, it would show that a complete modification of the Government in the direction of a centralized Cæsarism was not far off. And they are humiliating as well as alarming, because they propose to adapt a political structure, specially created for the benefit of valor, foresight, industry, and intelligence, to the special needs of the ignorant, the weak, the lazy, and incompetent. It is somewhat like a proposal to make such alterations in the house of a decent and prosperous mechanic that tramps may feel at home in it. Until these attempts are abandoned, the negro problem will continue to agitate the nation in ways not propitious for the negro's future.

HOW TO CHOOSE A SMOKE INSPECTOR.

THERE are a great many droll incidents in the testimony taken by the Committee on the

Ballot-Box Forgery. One such is the statement of R. G. Wood that, after he had put the forged paper in Gov. Foraker's hands, and Foraker had used it "for what it was worth," he (Wood) recommended him to retract it as soon as possible, because Murray was about to make an affidavit that it was a forgery. "You had better be lively about it," said Wood to Foraker, "because Murray told me if I did not get the paper back, he would make an affidavit. I told Murray that if I could not get it, *I would make an affidavit with him*"—*i. e.*, an affidavit that the paper which he had put into Foraker's hands in exchange for the latter's recommendation of him for an office was a forgery. Forgers are generally very liberal with affidavits. There is no kind of coin which they dispense more freely, but it is seldom that they proclaim an intention to expose themselves under oath, as Wood says he did in this case. Probably he lied when he told the Committee that he told Foraker that he had such an intention. Probably all his testimony is false, except where it is confirmed by others.

There is one important part of it, however, that *is* confirmed by Foraker himself. It is that part which relates to the dicker between himself and the Governor for the office of Smoke Inspector of Cincinnati. This is an office in the gift of the Mayor of the city. Wood was a candidate for the place. There was another candidate, perhaps more than one. Wood testifies that he asked the Governor for his influence; that the Governor replied he could get the office for him if it was not pledged, but that he wanted Wood "to do a little hustling for him." This was to "hustle around" and get a paper showing that Campbell, the Democratic candidate for Governor, had entered into a certain corrupt contract.

Foraker's testimony as to his bargain with Wood is even more explicit. He told Wood first that as he was willing to recommend him to the Mayor, he (Wood) "should be willing to do a favor for him, and that he wanted that paper," meaning the ballot-box paper signed by Campbell. Wood promised to get it. This was on the 15th of August. Two days later he received a letter from Wood saying that the Mayor thought favorably of his application, and that a letter from the Governor would be a great help, and that as soon as the Smoke Inspectorship was settled he would go to Washington and get the paper. This was very sharp on Wood's part, but the Governor was sharper. The latter wrote in reply (August 19) "that he (Wood) would get the letter of recommendation from him as he had promised when he (Foraker) got the information Wood had promised, *and not before.*" But although he would not give Wood the letter to the Mayor before getting the ballot-box paper, he did give him one to President Harrison recommending him "as an old soldier and an inventor of merit."

Wood went to Washington and "hustled" there and along the road until the 9th of September, when he returned to Cincinnati and telegraphed to Foraker that he had procured the paper. Meanwhile Foraker had had a conversation with the Mayor on the cars about the Smoke Inspectorship, and had obtained from him a promise to defer action a few days. On the 11th, Wood appeared at Columbus with the paper, which he delivered to the Governor. Thereupon the latter wrote the letter he had promised recommending Wood for the office of Smoke Inspector. The bargain had been fulfilled on both sides, with the trifling exception that the paper which Foraker received was fraudulent, while that which he gave was genuine.

In one sense, however, the paper that Foraker gave was as false and fraudulent as the one he received. The office of Smoke Inspector may or may not be one requiring much scientific knowledge, but it certainly requires some, and it also requires an honest man. Under the rules of a good civil service, the process of filling the office would have been something like this: Wood and all the other candidates would have been put through a competitive examination. Their eyesight would have been tested first, to ascertain whether they could see smoke distinctly at the height of tall chimneys. Then they would have been asked what kinds of coal produce the most smoke, and what kinds the least, and also required to identify the kinds used in Cincinnati, and tell how the firing should be done in order to make the least smoke, and what kinds of apparatus for smoke-consuming produce the best results. Then all the candidates would have been required to furnish certificates of good moral character from persons of known standing in the community. Nobody would have been interrogated as to the shortest route from Cincinnati to Paraguay, or the height of the great wall of China, or the use of the Greek digamma, or the age of the obelisk of Luxor, or any of the facetiæ which the Johnnys and Mikes and Charlies of high and low degree put into the mouths of the civil-service examining boards. After the examination had been completed on these lines, the candidate showing the most knowledge and the best character would have got the appointment, and that would have been the *democratic* method of filling the office, because all the candidates would have been served alike. Nobody would have had any extraneous advantage, or any "pull" from the Barnacle family, or recommendation from a distant Governor, to enable him to get something above his deserts in a contest with his fellow-citizens.

Contrast this method with the one actually followed. It is almost certain that if Wood had been appointed Smoke Inspector, he would have known nothing whatever about the duties of the office. It is entirely certain that his hand would have been behind his back to receive any fees that smoke-producers were willing to pay rather than be disturbed. It is most probable that he would have found too much smoke in places where fees were not forthcoming, and would have systematically blackmailed the owners. If there were any way to make private gain at the expense of public interests, he would have found it out and put it into practice, and in the course of time would have become a local "boss" of distinction and a person to be reckoned with at all county and State conventions. That these things have not happened is due to luck altogether. The Governor did all that he had agreed to do, and all that he could do. The paper turned out to be a forgery, and the forgery was discovered. It might have been a forgery, and yet not have been proved such to the satisfaction of the Governor and the Mayor, in which case pride and consistency would have required that Wood should be appointed and retained in office to spite the Democrats. It turned out that before the Mayor had acted upon Foraker's recommendation, an ugly "record" was produced against Wood. He had been "run in" by the police on some former occasion, and the facts had been published in the newspapers. But this was only another streak of luck in favor of the public and against Wood and Foraker.

The case is a typical example of the spoils system, so far as methods go. Not all the people who get office by means of dirty bargains like this are forgers and perjurers, or capable of becoming such. But then there is no reasonable guarantee that they may not be. What Foraker wanted was not a good Smoke Inspector, but a club to beat Campbell with, and instead of paying for it out of his own pocket, or out of the Committee funds, as he might properly have done, he tried to saddle the expense on the taxpayers of Cincinnati. He says that he wanted all the time to have a competent man appointed, but the only evidence of competency he required was the ballot-box paper with Campbell's signature attached to it. He never stipulated that Wood should know how to doctor a smoky chimney, or even know smoke when he saw it, but only that he should produce the desired evidence against Campbell. This is the way the spoils system works always. It does not necessarily yield us Woods, but it provides no safeguards against them.

AN AMERICAN MYSTERY.

A RECEIVER'S report of the *Star* newspaper company of this city has been filed which shows obligations aggregating nearly $761,000, besides interest, with less than $20,000 of assets. The largest creditor is Collis P. Huntington, who has a personal claim of over $610,000 against the company, and another one of nearly $80,000, which stands in the name of one of his employees. Among other claims is one of $1,007.56 from the Grant Monument Association, the amount raised by the newspaper by means of appeals for popular subscriptions, but never turned over to the Association. According to the receiver's showing, Mr. Huntington has invested in the newspaper nearly $700,000 since he took possession of it in September, 1885, with little or no chance of ever getting a cent of it back again.

There is in the foregoing plain statement of facts a mystery which becomes even more inexplicable when further details are given. Mr. Huntington has been spending all that money upon a lifeless enterprise, for the

Star newspaper was dead when he bought it, and it cannot be said to have been alive for a second since that time. John Kelly, as Boss of Tammany Hall, came into possession of it in 1877, when it had little more than a name, and a disreputable one at that, for its total assets. He built up a circulation for it by requiring every applicant for a liquor license to subscribe annually for two copies, and by compelling every Tammany office-holder and dependent to take it. He gave it further sustenance by means of official advertising and that of contractors and other people who desired his "pull" in getting contracts and offices from the city. But when he fell, after his futile effort to defeat Cleveland in the Presidential election of 1884, it went down with him, and in February, 1885, it suspended publication as a daily, keeping up a precarious and feeble existence as a Sunday paper. It remained practically dead till September of that year, when it was revived, and William Dorsheimer became its editor, resigning a few months later the office of United States District Attorney, in order to retain the position. Under Mr. Dorsheimer's direction it reappeared to the public eye as a daily newspaper with eight pages and all the outward forms of actual life. It was soon afterwards moved into capacious and expensive quarters on Broadway, but the vital breath refused to enter into it. Nobody was ever seen reading it; it gave no indications of remunerative advertising support, and if it had a bona-fide circulation anywhere, the outward signs of it could not be detected. Yet it went on day by day, coming out with the same regularity as a genuine and living newspaper, and is, we believe, still doing so. For a time there were occasional pretences that it was actually gaining a circulation, but these were usually made after the city had been freely sprinkled with "sample copies," and were consequently not convincing.

Nearly two years ago Mr. Dorsheimer died, and it was generally supposed that he would take the paper with him, so to speak, but this proved not to be the case. Its daily ghostly appearance continued, and the mystery was greater than ever. His course in regard to it was always puzzling. He had no training as an editor, but was a lawyer of recognized ability and a political speaker and leader whose merits had won for him high public office. When President Cleveland appointed him United States Attorney for this district, the selection commanded the approval of men of all parties. That he should resign an office so honorable and so obviously congenial, to enter, at his advanced time of life, upon a calling of which he was ignorant, was surprising, but not inexplicable. He was not the first man, nor will he be the last, to reach the profound conviction that his talents fitted him to do something else much better than what he had spent his life in doing, especially if that something else were the editing of a newspaper. He might have deluded himself by thinking that there was a great future for the *Star;* but if he had that delusion at the outset, it must have been dispelled long before the end of the first year. After that, life must have been a daily torture to him. He was a man of education, of scholarly tastes, and considerable literary attainments; yet every morning he was confronted at his own breakfast table with a newspaper, of his own editing, which must have offended every taste which he most desired to gratify. It was, in the first place, a fraud; for it pretended to be a newspaper, published and sold like other newspapers, and it was nothing of the kind. In the second place, the exigencies of its fraudulent existence compelled that it should be filled every day with "sensational matter" of the worst description, in the desperate hope of attracting attention. The failure to command respectable support drove it to seek the other kind, and it became more and more every day the champion of men and causes which other newspapers refused to champion. To see all this spread before his eyes each morning, to know that he was personally responsible for it, and to know also that the degradation involved in it was all in vain, since its only object, the bringing in of money, had not been attained, must have been a tax upon human endurance which few men would be able long to sustain.

But if Mr. Dorsheimer's course was mystifying, what shall be said in explanation of Mr. Huntington's? Why has he gone on sustaining a bogus newspaper until he has thrown away, as completely as if he had burned bank-notes for the amount, $700,000? He is one of the most successful men of his day, one of the practical men of affairs who have made vast fortunes by their indomitable energy, shrewdness, and perseverance. In an ordinary business transaction he would bring to bear all his experience and sagacity to secure for himself as large a return as possible for every dollar which he invested in it. Yet he has put a fortune into a spurious publication which was and is absolutely hopeless, which can in no manner do him service or aid him in any cause, and which brings him nothing but discredit. When he stops paying for its publication, it will die and leave no trace.

The $700,000 which he has thus wasted would have founded a great museum, or a great library, or even a great university, which would have been an honor to his name for all time. The endowment fund which Ezra Cornell gave for the establishment of Cornell University was only $500,000. The Astor Library was founded with $400,000, and the Boston Public Library with $50,000, and all its property in buildings and land to-day is worth less than $400,000. The beautiful and valuable collection and equipment of the new Slater Museum at Norwich, Conn., cost less than $30,000. The sum squandered would have been of immeasurable service also in carrying out Mr. Huntington's own ideas about barring Central Africa to the slave-trader. In any of these directions the money would have been devoted to the enlightenment and happiness of the human race, and such a use of it, one would suppose, would most have commended itself to the possessor of millions.

THE UNION PACIFIC-NORTHWESTERN AGREEMENT.

The decision of Chairman Walker upon the Union Pacific-Northwestern contract is moderate in its language and convincing in its conclusion. It states that the contract is "hostile to the spirit and intent with which the Association was organized," and that the "presidents' agreement was violated by the making of the contract in question." The point at issue may be stated thus: The American policy has always been to encourage railroad building without any restrictions as to the needs for new lines or the effects upon the older roads. Pooling was an attempt at regulation, by the roads themselves, of the excessive competition thus induced. For the reason that pooling was partly successful in doing this, it was opposed by the people of the Western States and forbidden by the law of 1887. Since it is especially true that no railroad lives to itself alone, the lack of unity among the railways west of Chicago led in 1888 to the grossest abuses known to our transportation history. The case seemed growing worse, and the loss of revenue gave rise to great alarm. Then followed the bankers' and presidents' meeting a year ago, from which sprang the Inter-State Railway Association as a basis for harmony of action among the competing lines.

The principle of the Association is simple. It is that reasonably remunerative tariffs can best be maintained, not by attempts at stifling all rivalry, which under our national policy is impossible, but by agreements defining the conditions under which the competition shall be carried on. Among the agreed conditions we find these: that changes in rates embracing competitive territory shall be subject to the Association, and shall not be made by any line independently; that divisions of revenue between roads interchanging competitive traffic shall also be subject to Association rules, because otherwise changes might be made as secret inducements for the diversion of traffic; and that the Association shall have some oversight of the apportionment of competitive business. If the rates agreed to in the Union Pacific-Northwestern contract had really been put in force in certain parts of the territory covered, says Mr. Walker, there would at once have been a rate war. If the Union Pacific can permanently give better terms to one line at Omaha than to another, the competitors of the favored line must make concessions to travellers and shippers, else the traffic will all seek the favored route. This presents the exact condition of affairs which the Inter-State Railway Association was organized to terminate, and which proved so disastrous in 1888. In like manner, if the Union Pacific gives to the Northwestern all its unconsigned freight (freight not marked for a special road east of Omaha), the Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul, for example, must either build westward to get another Pacific connection, suffer loss of traffic, or spend large sums in expenses and inducements to shippers west of the Missouri River to consign

their freight by that particular road—the latter alternative being always doubtful of success without a cut in rates. Such a cut would be met by retaliation, and this by other cuts indefinitely. In short, the Union Pacific-Northwestern contract would apparently substitute an individual benefit for a general one.

The Walker report can hardly prove pleasant reading for the presidents of the two roads concerned. President Adams of the Union Pacific a year ago was one of the foremost in urging the great need of an association for the correction of existing evils. He was chairman of the committee which drew up the original draft of the plan for organization, and, in presenting it to the presidents, spoke in favor of some action of the kind. In subsequent addresses the same line of reasoning was followed. Now, if Chairman Walker's conclusions be accepted, Mr. Adams and Mr. Hughitt appear to have been the first presidents who, without consultation with their colleagues, have, by a ten years' contract, formally violated the agreement which one of them at least did so much to form. To this charge of a breach of faith the evident reply is, that the railroad situation has changed during the year. This is true, although the change has come almost entirely from extensions of existing lines. It should be remembered that there is a clear difference between individual roads and a system of roads. Changes in the existing order by reason of consolidation or through ownership or lease are legitimate so far as associations are concerned, and the policies so formed, as to the former lines thus combined, are outside the province of Association control. Had the Union Pacific and the Northwestern been amalgamated, no decision of the Chairman would have been asked for: such centralization brings its own problems. But, on the other hand, the Inter-State Railway Association was formed to preserve harmony between individual competitors, and in the case in question the two roads preserve their independence and retain separate membership. Whether they can be both a virtual combination and at the same time separate companies, is the question. The contracting roads think that the Association will be remodelled to allow this. At all events, it is certainly to be hoped that the violation of the terms of the Association agreement will not give rise to disputes which might bring back again upon the Western lines the disasters of 1888.

IBSEN AND HIS TRANSLATORS.

AMERICA has lagged a long way behind Europe in realizing that the Norwegian dramatist Ibsen is a genius. But, having at last discovered that the rest of the world considers him a great writer, we seem to have determined to make up for being belated by now talking a great deal about him. Unhappily, the quality of what is said or written is by no means equal to the quantity. It is hardly reasonable, perhaps, to expect this country to produce a critic who has studied Ibsen's books in their original language. The Ibsen enthusiasm is not yet so serious with us that any one seems willing to learn Danish for the sake of reading that author's productions as he wrote them. Yet this has been done, we are told, repeatedly in England. All his published books (except his first drama) are available in German translations, but no American seems disposed to undertake their study in that language either, and as yet so few of the poet's books have been translated into English that entirely sound conclusions as to his philosophy based upon a study of these alone are impossible; while the works which so far have been put into English illustrate only one phase of his authorship, and that is not the side, perhaps, which will have most weight in finally determining his position as an *artist*. The result is, that the notices of Ibsen which have appeared in American journals are, for the most part, either ignorant and valueless, or simply reproductions—disgraceful plagiarisms many of them—of English critical articles.

A reader, therefore, who has a serious interest in the poet's life and views had best content himself, in addition to reading such of the dramas as are obtainable in his mother tongue, with a perusal of the one thoroughly good critical article available to those who read English only, namely, Dr. Georg Brandes's masterly analysis, to be found in the volume entitled, in the American translation, 'Eminent Authors of the Nineteenth Century.' This one article is worth everything else that has been written in English concerning Ibsen. For a lighter treatment, Mr. Edmund Gosse's articles contributed to the *Fortnightly Review* will be found pleasant and not unprofitable reading. The first of these was published in the number for January, 1873, and was reprinted, after revision, as a chapter of his 'Studies in the Literature of Northern Europe,' while the second article, which deals with Ibsen's social dramas, appeared in January, 1889. Mr. Philip H. Wicksteed's study of "Peer Gynt," printed in the *Contemporary Review* for August, 1889, is worthy of mention as affording some idea of one of Ibsen's works which, perhaps, there is small likelihood of our ever having the opportunity to read in English.

Out of Ibsen's eighteen published works, seven have now been translated into English, three of these having been produced by several hands. The earliest translation was that of his bulkiest book—an adjective which can be applied to it, however, only by comparison with his other works, for it contains in all little more than five hundred small duodecimo pages. It is in reality two volumes in one, two related dramas under one common title, "Kejser og Galilæer" ("Emperor and Galilean: a world-historic Drama"), the first part being called "Cæsar's Apostasy," and the second "The Emperor Julian." It was published on October 16, 1873, a second edition appearing near the end of the same year, and the translation into English, by Catherine Ray, was issued in 1876. Miss Ray's book, which contained a brief introductory notice, does not seem to have circulated in the United States, and is now out of print.

The next translation, taking them in chronological order, was that of the drama best known in America because of recent stage representations in Boston and New York, and commonly called "Nora," or "A Doll's House." The first translator, Mr. T. Weber, instead of retaining the author's title, named his book—which was published in Copenhagen in 1880—"Nora," after its heroine. It is not likely that many copies of it reached this country. A second English translation, by Henrietta Frances Lord, was published in London in 1882. Miss Lord also chose to call her translation "Nora," and she prefixed to it a preliminary notice, of some twenty pages, which she called a "Life" of Henrik Ibsen, but which is not so much a biographical sketch as a critical notice, of considerable interest, of the work which she had translated. It is this translation which D. Appleton & Co. have just published in a beautiful little volume which they have entitled "The Doll's House."

The text seems to be entirely identical in the two prints; but while the misstatement that the work is translated from the *Norwegian* (it should be Danish) is allowed to stand, and the misprint of the original title of the book which occurs in Miss Lord's edition remains uncorrected, superfluous care has been exercised to remove from the pages of the introductory notice all trace of the previous publication of the volume, and the date which was subscribed to it, "November, 1882," has been erased—a proceeding which does not commend itself. The change of title, also, is not entirely felicitous. Doubtless a retention of the author's title is better than the coining of a new one; but in the former case the title should be strictly translated, and care should be taken that the meaning which the author may have intended to convey by it is not lost. The original work was called "Et Dukkehjem"—*A Doll Home* (not A Doll's Home nor A Doll's House); and readers familiar with Ibsen's original works, who realize that every word used by that author has distinct weight, may reasonably believe that he intended to intimate by this title that the heroine's environment was that of a doll, but not that she herself was necessarily so devoid of character as that term implies; and her action in the last scene of the play would seem to sustain this inference.

Still a third translation of "Et Dukkehjem," this time from the competent hand of Mr. William Archer, who is an enthusiastic admirer and very intelligent student of the poet, appeared during this last year. This translation was prepared for use in presenting the drama at the Novelty Theatre in London last June, and has been published in an edition limited to 115 copies, with a portrait of Ibsen and photographs of the actors in the various characters of the play. It has also been reprinted in volume one of the 'Prose Dramas of Henrik Ibsen,' which has just been issued by the John W. Lovell Company, as number two of "Lovell's Series of Foreign Literature," with an introduction, written for this edition, by Mr. Gosse. The volume contains three other plays, noticed below. The portrait of Ibsen which faces the title-page is from a good photograph taken in Munich about three years ago, but it is a reproduction by some cheap process, and the fine lines about the eyes and lips are lost, which seriously detracts from the value of the picture.

Miss Lord followed up her first translation by a version of one of Ibsen's strongest social dramas, "Gengangere" ("Ghosts"), which was printed in the pages of the socialistic journal *To-day*, where it was pretty much lost to the general reading public. Her translation was afterwards revised by Mr. Archer, and was one of three plays published under the editorship of Mr. Havelock Ellis in 1888 as one of the volumes of the "Camelot Series." The other two were "Samfundets Stötter" ("Pillars of Society"), published in 1878 and translated by Mr. Archer, and "En Folkefiende" ("An Enemy of Society"), originally published in 1882, and translated by Mrs. Eleanor Marx-Aveling. "Gengangere" had appeared originally in Copenhagen in December, 1881. This little volume, which is entitled "The Pillars of Society, and Other Plays," and which contains an introductory notice by Mr. Ellis, may be warmly commended. Mr. Arch-

er's versions of "Ghosts" and "Pillars of Society" are also included in the Lovell Company reprint.

Ibsen's last two books, "Rosmersholm" (the name of a country estate), and "Fruen fra Havet" ("The Lady from the Sea"), were published in November, 1886, and November, 1888. Of the former no adequate translation has yet appeared, but the new Boston journal, the *Transatlantic*, is printing, in meagre weekly instalments, an attempt at a translation, which cannot, however, be considered a satisfactory performance. It bears the marks of ordinary hack work, and is far from conveying a proper conception of Ibsen's remarkable language. Another translation, by M. Carmichael, is printed in "Lovell's Series of Foreign Literature," but it is too free a rendering to be entirely satisfactory. 'The Lady from the Sea' was published in Berlin, by previous arrangement with the author, a week after the publication of the original in Copenhagen, the German translation being by Prof. Julius Hoffory, than whom no one could be more competent for the task. This German version Mr. G. R. Carpenter has retranslated into English, with fair success, and printed in the *Harvard Monthly* for November and December, 1889. Another translation of the book, direct from the original, has been prepared by Mrs. Marx-Aveling, and just published, with a brief introduction by Mr. Edmund Gosse, as one of the volumes of the "Cameo series," in London. No serious fault can be found with this translation, which places in the hands of American readers a readable version of one of Ibsen's most delightful works, and Mr. Gosse's note is excellent.

THE WHIGS OF 1832.—II.

LONDON, December 30, 1889.

ON the elections which in 1832 followed the passage of the Reform Act, the Whigs swept the country. The new constituencies, it was said, "remembered their political creators in the days of their youth." The Tories, it was thought, were not only routed but destroyed; supremacy had passed from one party to the other, and the authority of the Whigs was secured for at least half a century. Before the end of 1833 their popularity was on the wane. In 1834 Peel returned to office and almost held his own against the Opposition. The accession of the Queen did something to stave off the ruin of an enfeebled and discredited party. In 1839 the Whig leaders consented to hold office at the sacrifice both of reputation and of power; in 1841 the victors of 1832 were a defeated and unpopular minority.

Nor can it be said that the disasters of the Whigs were transitory. The whole set of English politics for the last sixty years has been in the direction of democracy; but democratic progress or development has not fostered the influence or the prestige of the Whigs. Peel, Palmerston, Beaconsfield, Gladstone, have each, in different ways and in different degrees, excited the enthusiasm of their followers; but Lord Grey lost his hold on popular feeling almost from the moment when the Reform Act became law. Lord Melbourne, who, though he was the head of a Whig Ministry, was never in truth a Whig, was never popular at all. Lord Russell, who embodied all the virtues, and, let it be added, all the weaknesses, proper to the last inheritor of the great Whig tradition, inspired confidence among his Parliamentary following, and commanded respect among all candid opponents, but he never, except for a very short period at the crisis of the Reform struggle, won the affection of the people or the trust of the public. In 1852 he was the admitted leader of the Liberals, but his Ministry was tottering to its fall, and (what, for the present purpose, is of more consequence) the achievements of 1832 were as much matters of mere history as the Revolution of 1689. Yet, and this is well worth noting, the period of time which separated 1832 from 1852 is exactly the same as that which separates 1870 from 1890. The dubious successes of 1870 have secured for Gladstone more popularity than the permanent victory of 1832 conferred upon the statesman whose pride it was to have introduced the Reform Act. The Whigs "had their hour." Why had they "their hour" only? The question is historically curious. The answer to it contains some permanent political instruction. But this instruction will be gained only by those inquirers who are content to explain the results of human conduct or feeling not by "a cause," but by the influence of combined causes.

The first and most obvious explanation of the fall of the Whigs was the want of a great Whig leader. The crisis of 1832 brought forward, happily for England, a group of estimable and honest politicians. It did not produce, among the Whigs at least, a single man of genius or a statesman of anything like first-rate ability. A critic may object that this statement overlooks the existence of Brougham. The alleged exception proves the soundness of the general assertion. Brougham's extraordinary talents and still more astounding energy are not open to question. His ability as a statesman is more than dubious; but, whatever be our estimate of his talents, no sane critic can count him among the Whigs. Had he remained a member of the House of Commons he might, it is likely enough, have become for a time the leader of the nation. That he would have continued in alliance with Melbourne and John Russell is, to any observer of character, incredible. Not only were the Whig leaders not statesmen, but (and this is a matter which deserves more attention than it has received) they were not trained officials, and they were forced to carry out a Liberal policy through a body of civil servants every one of whom inherited Tory traditions. The consequences were curious, and to the Whigs disastrous. Followers of Canning, like Palmerston, who had no real sympathy with reform, and Lord Melbourne, who seems to have thought the Reform Act at the best a regrettable necessity, obtained, and rightly obtained, in the Cabinet an influence out of proportion to any services they rendered as reformers, while subordinates who looked upon the rule of the Whigs as an unwarrantable usurpation of an authority which Providence had, so to speak, morally vested in the Tories, gave, it may be suspected, but half-hearted help in the designing of Liberal measures or the preparation of Whig budgets. Every line of the life of Lord John Russell deepens, it must in fairness to the English people be added, the conviction that his Lordship, if heir to all the hereditary virtues, was also the inheritor of the special fault of the Whigs—the incapacity to look beyond the ideas of the Whig connection to the interest and the feelings of the great public. Russell resigned to Peel the fame of repealing the Corn Laws solely because Lord Grey refused a seat in a Cabinet in which Palmerston should be Foreign Secretary. Let any one realize what this fact means, and he will understand why the leader of the Whigs never became the leader of the nation, and the Whigs of 1832 failed to guide the democratic movement of the last half century.

Another cause of weakness to the Whigs which was patent to every man in 1834 and 1835, is apt not to be estimated at its due importance by critics of to-day. The Tories possessed throughout Great Britain, and as Orangemen in Ireland, an amount both of power and of popular favor which resembled in kind the influence which Bismarck and his supporters now exert in Germany. The Tories, whatever their faults, had carried the country with triumph through the most desperate struggle in which England was ever engaged. At their head was the most competent administrator whom England had produced since the time of Pitt, and the most successful general of whom she could boast since the days of Marlborough. The great war, Waterloo, and Napoleon are to us traditions of the past. To the men of 1835 or even of 1840 they were living memories. From the generation who rallied round Peel and Wellington, the campaign of 1815 was less distant, both in time and in sentiment, than the war of secession is to the Americans of 1890. The triumphs of the war were almost as much the reproach of the Whigs as the glory of the Tories; for popular sentiment, at any rate, credited the Whig leaders with very dubious zeal in the contest with France. To all this must be added that the patriotism which popular delusion or gratitude attributes to Peel, did not prevent him from using with the utmost dexterity all the arms of opposition warfare. The Minister who is supposed to have given cheap bread to the people, took full advantage of the hostility of squires and farmers to free trade in corn, and gained full credit to himself for the partial failure of the efforts made by the Whigs to do justice to Catholics in Ireland, though the failure arose in great part from Tory indignation at every attempt to conciliate O'Connell, and from the systematic mutilation by a Tory House of Lords of legislation which carried out the principles of religious and civil equality formally recognized by the passing of the Catholic Emancipation Act. To the skill with which Peel transformed Toryism into Conservatism, and brought to the aid of the Conservative Opposition every possible source of party strength, no historian can refuse the admiration which is due to supreme ability. But the acknowledgment of Peel's surpassing genius as a parliamentary strategist is hardly consistent with honest recognition of his claim to high patriotism.

But the fall of the Whigs is at bottom due to a cause far more subtle than any matter of personal character or of political partisanship. Neither the deficiencies of Russell nor the talents of Peel, considerable as they both were, would, we may be sure, have been sufficient of themselves to bring about the permanent collapse of a great political party. The Revolution families who, for between fifty and sixty years, controlled the destinies of England, committed grave errors. Walpole, Pelham, Newcastle, for that matter, Chatham himself, were men who never committed faults, or who invariably preferred the welfare of the nation to their own or their party's interest. It were no rash assertion that the reformers of 1832 were, both in patriotism and in foresight, superior to the Whigs who followed Walpole. But it is impossible not to see, or rather to feel, that Walpole, and leaders far inferior to Walpole, represented the living forces of the nation. The spirit of the time (to use a vague expression which, though it may mislead, is almost the best term we have at hand for summing up the aggregate effect of a large number of indefinite causes) did, during a great part of the eighteenth century, favor the rule of the

Revolution families. It did not in 1832 favor the rule of the Whigs. If this vague statement be brought down to a more definite form, it amounts to the assertion that, by one of the odd paradoxes of which history is full, the authors of the Reform Act represented rather the convictions of a past time than the sentiment of the day or the aspirations of the immediate future.

Mr. Leslie Stephen has somewhere said happily that we must not be deluded by the artificial division into centuries, but must remember that the "eighteenth century" stretched on in England to 1832. The observation is, if its meaning be fully appreciated, full of instruction. The French Revolution had in England temporarily arrested or diverted the course of progress. In 1832 there were lots of abuses, some great, some small, which, in the natural course of things, ought to have been swept away forty or fifty years earlier. The best of the Whig leaders had been trained by circumstances and position to take up the reforms natural to say 1790. The sweeping away of rotten boroughs, the establishment of civil and religious liberty, the emancipation of the Catholics, which ought, in accordance with Whig doctrine and very possibly in accordance with sound statesmanship, to have been combined with endowment of the Catholic priesthood, were all innovations or reforms exactly in accordance with the enlightenment of the eighteenth century. In carrying out these kinds of reforms, as in their great reform of the poor-law, the Whigs were giving effect to a traditional policy handed down to them by the wisest and best of their predecessors. But it was a policy of the past. Some portions of it had already become impossible through changes in public opinion. To Lord Melbourne, who shared the religious scepticism, or to Lord John Russell, who had imbibed the rational piety, of a past age, the endowment of the Roman Catholic priesthood might appear both a matter of reasonableness and of justice; but the religious movement, which was still evangelical, though just on the point of beginning its transformation into High Church ecclesiasticism, made impossible even the proposing of schemes which the days of Burke might, without opposition, have embodied in acts of Parliament.

Of the commercial reforms more or less surreptitiously favored by Peel, and soon openly to be claimed by the whole Manchester school, of the benevolent State interference patronized by Lord Shaftesbury, the Whigs knew nothing. With the religious sentiment of the day they had little sympathy; with the beliefs or emotions which gave strength to the High-Church movement in England, or to the Free-Church movement in Scotland, they had no sympathy whatever. They, no doubt, like all friends of good government in England, wished to support the efforts of foreign constitutionalists. Lord Russell, in his old age, could boast with truth that he had always been the friend of Italy; but it was Palmerston, and not the genuine Whigs, who tried to give moral and occasionally material support to the cause of popular freedom on the Continent; and the constitutionalism of the Whigs, even as represented by Palmerston, was somewhat out of date. They were zealous for good government, they believed in the possibility of extending throughout Europe the blessings of English constitutional freedom, and thought bona fide that any people might be happy who enjoyed a government of which the forms imitated or parodied the Constitution of England. They hardly understood the influence of nationality, and were utterly opposed to every movement which partook, or seemed to partake, of socialism.

The best of the Whigs were good men and just men, but they were men of the past, they were not in any sense men of their time. To assert this is not to assert that the Whig view of life or politics was erroneous. In many respects the rational enlightenment of the eighteenth century will, it may be suspected, prove to have been wiser than the faith, enthusiasm, or sentimentality of the nineteenth. A leader may fail to be the man of his age not only because he has not perceived new truths, but also because he clings with tenacity to established dogmas, which seem to be truisms or platitudes only because a particular generation have ceased to practise maxims which it is impossible to confute. What is certain is, that leaders who are not men of their age will soon cease to lead. The Whigs were in one point of view the Conservatives of their time: they believed in the aristocratic ideal (and a very high ideal it is) of freedom, of justice, and of good government. But they came into office at the very time when Whig ideals were ceasing to influence the world. In their case not for the first (and we may safely assume not for the last) time in English history, a great party has achieved a nominal triumph at the very moment which, owing to the changed spirit of the age, preceded the party's real fall. X.

A POETESS OF THE WEIMAR SCHOOL.

BERLIN, December 19, 1889.

To those who wander in the by-paths of German literature, the name of Amalie von Imhoff is well known; contemporaries make frequent mention of the "celebrated authoress of the 'Sisters of Lesbos,'" and Goethe students are familiar with the figure of a beautiful and gifted girl who charmed the court and private circles of Weimar in the golden days. Her poetical works, at best but a feeble reflection of the literary splendor of her time, have long since faded from the memory of the reading public, and of her life after leaving Weimar little was heretofore known. But it is precisely the experiences of her life that commend Amalie von Imhoff to our appreciative attention to-day. Amalie's letters and journals, etc., with connective text, have been edited by her niece, the Baroness von Bissing. It is an excellent biography and delightful reading.

Amalie was the niece of Frau von Stein. Her father had been in the English service in India; divorced from his first wife, who subsequently married Warren Hastings, her husband's former friend, Imhoff returned to Germany. In Weimar he married the younger sister of Frau von Stein, Fräulein von Schardt. This was Amalie's mother. A portrait of her by Goethe is still extant. Amalie was born in Weimar in 1776, and was named after the mother of Carl August. Goethe had come the year before, and Amalie's childhood thus fell in the "ten years" of gayety, squandered talent, and discontent prior to the Italian journey.

As a young girl Amalie stood under the direct personal influence of Goethe and Schiller. In Herder she found a fatherly friend; Jacobi was her instructor in Greek. Amalie had a talent for painting, too, and Heinrich Meyer, Goethe's valued counsellor in matters of art, watched over its development, and, as he watched, fell hopelessly in love. Amalie exercised a strong personal charm, to which some private journals of that time bear witness. Goethe and Schiller speak of her with real affection. She was eighteen years of age when Schiller was first attracted to her talent for verse, and both he and Goethe soon came to regard her as their special charge. "Continue to cherish our Agnes* and Amalie," writes Goethe to Schiller; "one does not appreciate what a treasure such natures are till one comes to look about the wide world for similar ones. You, my friend, have the faculty of making your influence tell as teacher which I have not. These two pupils of ours are certain one day to do much good work." In the Goethe-Schiller correspondence are frequent allusions to "our poetesses, our pupils, and friends." One of Schiller's letters contains a striking criticism; Goethe's considerate tact omitted it in the edition of the correspondence which he published in 1828–'29, when Amalie was still alive. "Amalie Imhoff," writes Schiller, "has been led to poetry, not by the heart, but only by the imagination, and will lightly trifle with it her life long. But since, to my mind, the truly æsthetic consists in a union of seriousness and lightness, whereby the seriousness lies in the contents and the lightness in the form, Amalie will always fall short of the highest by lack of 'contents.'"

Schiller was an excellent critic, and these words characterize with great precision the quality of Amalie's poetic work. Under Schiller's direction, however, Amalie began her first ambitious poem, the "Sisters of Lesbos." Schiller disapproved of the choice of subject: "It is strange," he writes to Goethe, "that these good souls cannot comprehend of how much importance it is whether a subject allow of poetic treatment or not." But the poem gave him great pleasure after all: "It is developed with tenderness, clearness, simplicity, and uncommon grace. When you come we'll talk it over together." And Goethe came and read and severely criticised the poem. He felt inclined to abandon the patronage of all dilettante versemakers whatsoever, as so much labor lost. Schiller persuaded him to be patient; he must regard the help given to striving young talent as a "sectionem cadaveris" for the application of theoretic principles. With an air of good-natured impatience, Goethe began to suggest, correct, and improve. Finding Amalie by no means discouraged by the severity of his strictures, but cheerfully ready to follow his advice, Goethe took heart. A few questions revealed, to his amused surprise, that Amalie had no knowledge of the structure of the hexameter in which she had written her poem. "I see," he said, "the child makes her verses as the rosebush bears roses." In Goethe's diary stands the entry: "I took an interest in the 'Sisters of Lesbos' and gave advice. I was attracted to the authoress as an extremely beautiful child and in after times as a woman of rare talent." Of those hours with Goethe, Amalie herself writes: "They contained for me so rich a treasure of instruction, and were in all their associations and accompaniments so inspiring, so poetic, that these moments alone outweigh a whole lifetime of ordinary experience."

'The Sisters of Lesbos' appeared in 1799, and soon reached a third edition; upon this poem rested Amalie's literary fame. The reader of to-day will be unable to understand its former popularity. It is wholly lacking in fervor, something too, in interest; the characters are of eighteenth-century sensibility, represented under social and ethical conditions which render such characters and such psychological problems incongruous. A subject requiring dramatic lapidary treatment has been delicately executed in wax. "The execution remains far behind what it should be," was Goethe's last word.

Amalie was maid of honor at the court.

* Caroline von Wolzogen, Schiller's sister-in-law, author of the novel 'Agnes von Lilien.'

The full life of Weimar at the height of its glory was hers to enjoy and appropriate to her needs. A new century had dawned, the exhilaration of great expectations was in the air. It was the last glow of the light before it went out. That Herder had but a few months to live and that Schiller was so soon to follow, that the gloom of the battle of Jena was about to darken all the land, lay concealed behind the kindly curtains of the future. There was brilliant gayety at the court and boundless enthusiasm at the theatre, and conversations took place of whose every word that chance or good will has preserved to us, we are justly jealous. In the winter of 1803 came Mme. de Staël, and all that Weimar harbored of genius and learning gathered about her. Amalie enjoyed her special favor, and a letter of Amalie's contains an interesting passage:

"Goethe was quite as eager," she writes, "to make the acquaintance of Mme. de Staël as she was to make his. After the meeting, Goethe reported to his friends: 'It was an interesting hour. I found no opportunity to speak: she talks well, but much—very much!' The ladies, in the meantime, were eager to learn what impression our Apollo had made upon the stranger, and Mme. de Staël likewise confessed that she had found no opportunity to speak. 'But,' she is said to have sighed, 'when a man talks so well, one is content to listen.' Who spoke? Who was silent?"

We are reminded of Mme. de Staël's remark concerning Coleridge, that though great in monologue, he had no notion of dialogue.

In the meantime, a traveller of more importance in Amalie's life had visited Weimar, and had gone away with a tacit understanding that Amalie should become his wife. This stranger was Carl Helvig, who, in the service of Gustav IV. of Sweden, had visited Weimar in the winter of 1802. The career of this self-made man is remarkable. Helvig was born in Schleswig-Holstein. His parents were unable to give him even a common-school education, but unwearying diligence made him an accomplished linguist, fitted for important foreign missions; unceasing study, regardless of health, made him a successful engineer; ambition and indomitable energy, combined with true nobility of character, raised him from a position in the army little better than that of a day laborer to the side of his sovereign and the highest rank attainable in the career he had chosen. For Greek, too, he had found time, and his embassy to Constantinople had led him to the site of ancient Troy; his Homeric studies found favor with Herder and with Voss. Chance had brought Helvig into Napoleon's presence in 1796, and he was present at the battle of Rivoli. Napoleon was lacking in frankness and straightforwardness, remarks Helvig, and even at that time could not have spoken in a tone more absolute had he already been Emperor. Helvig's efforts had been directed especially to the reform of the clumsy artillery system. The public trial resulted in his favor; his reforms were adopted. Helvig himself was ennobled and received the highest commission in the gift of the King—he was made Master-General of the Ordnance.

At the time of his engagement to Amalie, however, his success was still doubtful, and his presence in Sweden necessary. The care of an invalid mother kept Amalie in Weimar. This year of separation has given us the most interesting chapter in the book before me. It is the correspondence in which Helvig unassumingly relates the story of his life. The moral qualities that made such a career possible commanded Amalie's respect. Here was a man who could demand much of others, because he made the highest demands upon himself. Amalie's diary reveals even a certain enthusiasm of admiration, but Schiller's criticism recurs to us here—it is her imagination that is kindled, and she does not feel that triumphant love which silences all apprehensions. She has a dim presentiment that they are not related natures, the energetic man of action and the contemplative, poetic soul. While he is casting cannon, she is coining fancy into verse. But, with a characteristic act of will, Halvig resolves to make her happy despite every discrepancy of birth, education, and taste. In the spring of 1803 they were married, and Amalie entered upon a new era of her life.

The beginning of the new era was marked by a violent severing of the old ties. Amalie's mother and only brother died; Herder, too, and her old friend Schiller, who lived to stand godfather to her first child, died soon after. In 1804 Amalie entered a wholly different intellectual atmosphere with the new duties of wife and mother. The simple greatness of Weimar life was exchanged in the Swedish capital for a feeble imitation of Parisian forms. "The higher culture of women," she says, "is still contraband in Stockholm." Through all her letters runs a vein of discontent, evident only in the tone of one who, in the fulfilment of a clearly recognized duty, is obliged to leave unsatisfied the aspirations of a higher nature. Her health suffered, her family increased; for her own and her children's sake, a visit to her native land was planned. She spent a winter in Heidelberg. Here she found herself once more in her proper element of literature and art. Here lived Voss of Homeric fame, the author of 'Luise.' The Boisserées, too, in the midst of their great work for old Dutch and German art, were there with the beginnings of their epoch-making collections. It seemed that a new life had opened for Amalie here, but misfortunes came.

Her husband's career, hitherto a series of triumphs over all obstacles, was suddenly checked. Gustav IV. had been dethroned by a military revolution in 1809, the King was arrested in his palace by night and carried into banishment. His first question was of his favorite, "Is Helvig among the revolutionists?" and with melancholy satisfaction he received the assurance that Helvig was ignorant of the undertaking. A different spirit began to prevail in Sweden. Bernadotte took charge of the military affairs, and Helvig was suspected of disaffection towards the new King Charles XIII. His enemies, whom Gustav IV. had dismissed, returned to positions of influence. When war broke out, Helvig was not called into service. This was a severe blow to his ambition; he sought dismissal and withdrew to Berlin to await it; his request was disregarded, and he could not enter foreign service. He had neglected his private affairs and had not husbanded his means. His wife was obliged for a time in Heidelberg to earn money with her pen. Her correspondence with authors and publishers, however, offended her husband. His reverses had told upon his health and disposition. He felt himself shut out from his wife's innermost interests, and his irritation found harsh expression. These were days of trial for Amalie darker than her prophecy had foretold, but she displayed a heroism of resolution that put Helvig to shame. Months of uncomplaining labor and alone she devoted to the regulation of his affairs in Stockholm. Helvig remained in Berlin, and, having at last secured his dismissal from Sweden, received title and rank from Frederick William III., but nothing was given him to do. To this ineffectual close his career of brilliant promise had now come. Condemned to inactivity and impatiently burning for action, he passed down into old age, broken in spirit and embittered. Common sorrow bound him still more closely to his wife. With their eldest child, now their only one, the stricken parents took up their residence in Berlin.

In poetry Amalie had found her chief comfort. In Heidelberg she had published a number of poems, Voss assisting her with some Greek idyls. There appeared also, in dramatic form, 'The Sisters in Corcyra,' a strange production of cold fancy. Amalie's Norse studies bore fruit in the legend of the 'Wolfsbrunnen,' and in the collection of 'Sagen und Legenden,' to which Fouqué gave his blessing and the young Cornelius eight illustrations. But it was in Berlin that her most important work was begun—the translation of 'Frithiof's Saga.' In Sweden Amalie had enjoyed the friendship of Tegnér. The poet was still engaged on this poem when Amalie began the translation. He sent her canto by canto as they were finished. In 1824 appeared her translation of the first five cantos with a dedicatory poem to Goethe. Her translation has a freshness of feeling and perfection of form that entitle it to the praise which it received in 'Kunst und Alterthum' of that year. This work of Amalie's lay in the direction of Goethe's ideal of a *Weltliteratur*—it was another shuttle in the loom where national literatures were being woven into a universal. With Goethe's favorable review the work had received the highest sanction; in literary Germany Goethe's sovereignty was absolute. "This recognition is perhaps a matter of little moment to you," writes Amalie to Tegnér, "but if you are not indifferent to the spread of your fame as poet over all Germany, then I may tell you that through this testimony of Goethe your renown with us is assured, for we regard Goethe's judgment as most competent." And Tegnér, otherwise so little susceptible to eulogy, was flattered by Goethe's warmth of praise. It is to be regretted that Amalie did not devote her talents more exclusively to translation, for which they especially fitted her. I refer to Schiller's criticism once again: the poet furnished the "contents," and Amalie's imagination grasped and reconstructed the original in the correct and graceful forms of which her native gifts, a long practice, and the advantages of her early Weimar training, had made her master.

Of her original poems I have avoided saying much. The interest that Amalie von Imhoff awakens to-day is in the main biographical, but yet her fame rests upon the title I have ventured to give this letter, and among her poems is one series that renders her laurels secure even in this generation of changed tastes and standards. I mean twelve lyrics, unfortunately difficult to obtain at present, which in 1826 Amalie published for the relief of the widows and orphans in Greece. Bettina von Arnim set some of these poems to music. This is Amalie's best original work. Brought up in an atmosphere of enthusiasm for antiquity and of homage and gratitude towards Greece, Amalie was deeply stirred by the struggle of the enslaved Greeks for freedom, to which Lord Byron lent the nimbus of his name. Amalie's glowing sympathy found warm expression in these earnest and beautiful songs. Her heart was in the cause, and Helvig's position of cold criticism pained her. His standpoint was military; he understood the feebleness of the Grecian cause, and despised the character of the modern Greeks. Again Amalie found herself inwardly estranged from him to whom outwardly she stood nearest.

Amalie's life had been one long contrast of this sort; she had not been made happy. She

was, indeed, a popular and beloved member of Berlin society, and in the social sense Berlin had become the intellectual centre of North Germany. Aged survivors of that time speak of the social life in Berlin with ever young enthusiasm; Varnhagen, Schleiermacher, Fouqué, Gneisenau—above all Achim and Bettina von Arnim—these were Amalie's friends, and the "old charm of our own home made itself felt," writes poor Helvig, whose occupation was gone. But from the time Amalie had left her girlhood's home, she had never found the sympathy which her nature dumbly sought, dimly discerned at times, but lost again. Bettina was, during these years, her nearest friend, and the link that bound her spiritually still to Weimar, upon which they both looked back as upon a paradise lost. Weimar was the bright ground-texture of Amalie's life, upon which later experiences were embroidered in darker colors and the sorrowful shapes of military revolutions, losses, material reverses, and spiritual loneliness. There is something tragic in this eternal contrast of two such natures as Helvig's and Amalie's. His ambition lay in the field, where he might display his energy. Her life effort had been to make herself "an immortal part of the great whole." These are her own words. Among her papers were found the lines:

"Schreibt wenn mich Grabesruh umschlossen
Im Stein der meinen Hügel schmückt:
Sie hat geliebt, doch nie genossen,
Sie ward geliebt, doch nie beglückt."

Amalie von Imhoff died in December, 1831. Her master had not yet finished 'Faust.'

C. H. G.

Correspondence.

THE LOST WASHINGTON WILLS: THEIR POSSIBLE RECOVERY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Noticing that the will of John Washington is now missing, I would call attention to the fact that George Washington, in his letter to Sir Isaac Heard (Sparks's 'Writings,' i., 547), says: "Lawrence Washington, from whose will you enclosed an abstract, was my grandfather. The other abstracts which you sent do not, I believe, relate to the family of Washington in Virginia; but of this I cannot speak positively." He also says: "Lawrence died in 1697, and was interred in the family vault at Bridge's Creek." The inference is strong that as Lawrence seems to have died in Virginia, his will was probably recorded in England on account of property held there. The date, about 1697, of such will, is probably later than investigators have hitherto had in mind. I suggest that search be now made in the will offices of England for a document of that date, and it may be well to see if any copy can be found in Sir Isaac Heard's collections at Heralds' College or elsewhere.

In connection with this matter, the Washington pedigree, Mr. Frederick D. Stone, the Librarian of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania, has called my attention to the following footnote on p. 31, vol. i., of Lodge's recently published Life of Washington; it is as follows:

"The well-known account of the Baconian troubles, written by Mrs. Ann Cotton in 1676 (Force's Hist. Tracts, i.), is addressed 'to Mr. C. H., at Yardly, in Northamptonshire,' probably Yardly-Hastings, about eight miles from Northampton, and consequently very near Sulgrave Manor. At the beginning (p. 1) the writer refers to the commander of the Virginians in the first campaign against the Indians as 'one Colonel Washington, him whom you have sometimes seen at your house.' This suggests very strongly that John Washington, the first Virginian of the name, was of Northamptonshire, and that he came from or lived in the neighborhood of Sulgrave Manor, and that he belonged to that family."

Here we have contemporaneous evidence connecting George Washington's great-grandfather with Sulgrave, or at least its immediate vicinity, which, of course, strengthens Mr. Waters's pedigree.

In this pedigree he states the mother of the said John Washington to have been a Roades. It may be worth while mentioning that the records in London of the families of this name throughout England were examined and collected by Col. Chester in the year 1867, as he then informed me by letter. This collection must still be among his papers; if searched, it might throw some light on the Washington ancestry, at least in its connection with the family of Roades. I will add that Col. Chester likewise informed me that, in his opinion, the "Col. Washington" who is mentioned as having served in Ireland in the seventeenth century, was the same person as Henry Washington of Worcester fame. It may be so, and yet there were more Washingtons than one in Ireland, I think, just as is the case with the Netherlands and the West Indies.

C.

Care of The Historical Society of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.

BONDAGE TO PARTY NAMES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your comment on the communication from "W: M. G." in No. 1279 sufficiently exhausts the subject, but perhaps a few words more in detail may be useful. The trouble with many who think with your Cambridge correspondent is, that they do not throw off their prejudice against the name Democratic. This prejudice is a natural one, but as a mere prejudice it is out of place here.

By Mr. Cleveland's courageous message of December, 1888, our political parties, after existing many years for the spoils alone, were again given a real principle upon which to divide. In national politics this difference ought to give to every citizen a good reason for voting with that party which stands for what he believes to be the right of that great question. Here the policy of each party is clearly defined and unmistakable. No mere sentiment in favor of one party because of its good deeds, or against the other because of its bad record, ought to govern his action. Neither party is now controlled by those who made the glorious history of the one or the mistakes of the other, nor do the intelligent masses of the Republican party or the "Residuum" of the Democratic party shape the policy of either.

It is true, as your correspondent says, that whatever is good in our political future must come from such men as made the Whig party and now make the Republican party; it is because they are such men that the Republican party is losing their support, perhaps will perish, its great work finished, unless, by such bait as the appointment of Pat Egan, enough of the "Residuum" to give it new life can be induced to take their places.

Why should any increase in the power of the Democratic party be deprecated if that party will carry out a policy which shall benefit the whole country? All good citizens might rejoice if the Democratic party, returning to power presently, should abolish those war taxes which, during the life of a generation, have stood in violation of the pledges under which they were enacted.

When a citizen of Cambridge sees the Democratic party of his town increased by hundreds of men in intelligence and patriotism like Charles W. Eliot or T. W. Higginson, he need have no fear that such increase is a misfortune to his town; nor is the political atmosphere of that town bad, even though it elect a Democratic Mayor. It is the mere name which is the bugaboo, and yet that name, which meant one thing yesterday, means quite another thing to-day. Once it stood for the extension of slavery; again, it meant sympathy with rebellion, then fiat money; but now it means tariff reform. Some people believe it means also civil-service reform and other good things, but of these there may be doubts. That it means tariff reform, however, there can be no doubt, and that the Republican party is in the hands of those who will oppose to the end any reform of the tariff is equally certain. As parties are but means to an end, if your correspondent favors free wool, iron, and coal for Massachusetts, he need not lament any increase in Democratic strength.

C. B. W.

Cincinnati, January 9, 1890

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you permit me to add to what was written by your correspondent "W: M. G." in the *Nation* for January 2 on "Parties and Young Voters" the following?

(1.) It so happened, some years since, that the writer, together with some others, conducted a canvass of this county, with the suppression of the grog-shop as the issue. In doing so he found one township which cast 280 votes at the election that year, with a Democratic majority of 162. There was but one small village, of about 150 inhabitants, in the township; but there were seven grog-shops and not a single organized church or religious society. There were two church buildings, one frame and one brick, but each without doors, windows, or floors.

The next day we went into another township of the same soil, timber, and natural advantages every way, and found that it cast 289 votes, which were very nearly equally divided; and, singularly enough, there were seven organized and active churches and not a grog-shop.

(2.) I went into a business-room in the south part of this city a few days since, and the owner said to me he bought there because he found he could do so at a much lower rate than in the north or east part of the city. The south is the Democratic portion of the city and as attractive naturally as any other part.

(3.) Some years since a prominent Democrat in one of our principal cities called upon the principal of the High School to consult him about sending his son to college. Upon the son's return after his first year's study, the father called upon the principal, and the following colloquy took place:

"If I had known that college I sent my boy to was such a hot-bed of radicalism, I would not have sent him there."

"Well, where would you have sent him?"

"Oh! I would have sent him somewhere else. The colleges are not all as bad as that one."

"You would not have sent him South, would you?"

"No; there is no school there I would send him to. But there must be some of the colleges that are not such hot-beds of radical notions as that one."

"Well, I don't know about that. I am pretty well acquainted with the colleges and the professors North and West, and my information is that fully 90 per cent. of the professors and 75 per cent. of the students are Republicans."

"Well, Mr. ———, I'll tell you. Whenever I meet a teacher or a preacher who is a Democrat, I confess I am always afraid of him."

(4.) The Minneapolis *Times*, an independent newspaper, says, in relation to Iowa politics, that "it must be conceded Republicanism represents the highest intelligence and best character of the State." Is not that true of every State in the Union, except possibly the old slave States?

(5.) Bryce (in his 'American Commonwealth,' vol. ii., p. 2) says:

"During the war it [the Republican party] drew to itself nearly all the earnestness, patriotism, religious and moral fervor which the North and West contained. It is still, in those regions, the party in whose ranks respectable, steady, pious, well-conducted men are to be looked for. If you find yourself dining with one of the best people in any New England city, or in Philadelphia, or in Cincinnati, Cleveland, Chicago, or Minneapolis, you assume that the guest sitting next you is a Republican almost as confidently as in English county society you would assume your neighbor to be a Tory; that is to say, you may be wrong, but in four cases out of five you would be right."

It may be true that the trend of young men is towards the Democratic party, but it is not so among my acquaintances. I can give the names of three Democratic fathers whose sons came home from school Republicans.

J. J. J.

Columbus, O., January 15, 1890.

CABINET OR COMMITTEE?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If I ask leave to comment upon Mr. Hudson's letter, it is for the sake of promoting discussion on a subject which ought to be, if it is not, of general interest. In the first place, Mr. Hudson misquotes Mr. Bryce. After a careful reëxamination of his book, I affirm, and challenge contradiction, that Mr. Bryce nowhere says, of himself, that the admission of the Cabinet officers to Congress would be "an inadequate remedy." What he does in this direction is simply to quote (as in chap. xv., p. 150, of the English two-volume edition) the opinions of Americans as given to him. On the other hand, the first half of the first volume is almost a continuous disquisition upon the advantages of the English system of having the Ministry in Parliament, and the disastrous consequences of the want of that system here. He does not even say, like his countryman Mr. Bagehot, that it is an excellent thing, which the Americans have not and cannot have. On p. 82 he refers to the Senate report of February 4, 1881, providing for the admission of the Cabinet to seats in both houses, with the necessary changes of the rules, and merely adds, "Nothing has so far been done to carry out this report." And this view is confirmed by a remark on p. 279:

"These observations may suffice to show why the fathers of the Constitution did not adopt the English Parliamentary or Cabinet system. They could not adopt it because they did not know of its existence. They did not know of it because it was still immature, because Englishmen themselves had not understood it, because the recognized authorities did not mention it. As the idea never presented itself, we cannot say that it was rejected, nor cite the course they took as an expression of their judgment against the system under which England and her colonies have so far prospered."

He does not even say, as Mr. Hudson puts it, that the measure might have results other than those "desired." The remark referred to is on p. 284: "I have no space to discuss the merits of this proposal, but must observe that it might lead to changes more extensive than its advocates seem to contemplate." Well, suppose it does. If the Cabinet ever have seats in Congress, it will be because the houses vote them in. If the result is not satisfactory to the country, which would have more to say about the matter than it has about anything now, it would be perfectly easy to vote them out again. The experiment is the simplest thing in the world.

So much for Mr. Bryce. What is the alternative proposed by Mr. Hudson? "A single Governing Committee, chosen from the members of the majority, having the sole power of originating revenue and appropriation bills, and given the control and direction of important measures."

In what would this committee differ in principle (though it might be a degree simpler) from those existing now? It would be composed wholly of local representatives having no national authority. Its members must either be appointed by the Speaker or elected by the members, and in either case be bound hand and foot to party and local interests. It might, and therefore would, conduct its real deliberations in secret. It would be in no way responsible for executive administration. As it happens, we are not left to conjecture. The French Budget Committee is the chief of its kind, and has control of all the finances, both as to revenue and expenditure, but it cannot get its budgets closed from year to year, it cannot control expenditure or regulate taxation; and so the finances, with a large annual deficit, are rushing on towards bankruptcy.

Mr. Hudson proposes that the contact with the Executive should be by sessions of the Governing Committee with the President and Cabinet. Could there be a more pitiable spectacle? It is bad enough that single members of the Cabinet should be obliged, in order to carry any measure of public interest, to lobby and intrigue with the committees, like any private speculator. But here would be the President and his Cabinet, the representatives collectively of the whole nation, in the position of suppliants and intriguers before an all-powerful committee, whose interests would be entirely local, who would be bound first of all to satisfy the claims of the private interests which had placed them in power, and who would officially care nothing whatever for the national interest. Suppose that the Governing Committee (made up, observe, from the majority of the House) should be of the opposite party from the President. Pleasant sessions those would be!

Mr. Hudson's main reason for substituting a Governing Committee for the Cabinet seems to be that the former could resign when defeated, while the Cabinet could not. Why need we imitate so slavishly the English methods? An English Ministry must resign at the bidding of Parliament because it must obey its creator and master. Congress, thanks to the framers of the Constitution, is neither the creator nor the master of our Executive. Why need the Cabinet resign in the face of an adverse majority any more than now? They could modify or postpone burning questions, and leave the people to decide at the next elections. In the face of those elections, Congress would be very wary of factious opposition to the Executive. Fancy that body, from party motives, refusing troops and money to Lincoln's Cabinet during the war!

What is needed is that which Mr. Bryce insists upon, public contact between the Legislature and the Executive. The Senate report above referred to, which deserves, and is perhaps destined to obtain, immortality, says that the advantages of the change proposed are so obvious as not to need discussion, which means that they were not prepared to take the burden of discussing it. There is one great objection, greater than the difficulty about resignation, greater than the fear of other extensive changes—so great that it makes one almost despair of seeing it brought about—and that is that the *lobby* does not want it, and this Government to-day is a government of the lobby.

G. B.

Boston, January 18, 1890.

THE FISHERIES QUESTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I think you are somewhat in error as to the facts stated by you in a short article upon the Canadian Fishery Question, in the *Nation* of January 9. Bait and ice were largely purchased by American fishermen all along the coasts of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia during the fishing season until the Canadian Act prohibiting the sale was passed. Bait is also largely procured in Newfoundland, but the trade in bait, ice, and other supplies was a lucrative one in the maritime provinces of the Dominion, and some of our Opposition newspapers contend that the inhibition of this trade by the Dominion authorities was unneighborly and also impolitic. Fishing within a marine league of the shore of Canada has, of course, always been prohibited, when not otherwise regulated by treaty; but allowing American fishermen to purchase bait and supplies from Canadians does not necessarily give the former the right to take fish in Canadian waters.

As we understand the question here, the American fishermen wrongly claim that under the Treaty of 1818 they are entitled to purchase bait, etc., in our ports, in the same way that one of our vessels can now go to an American port and purchase the like, or any other article of commerce, there. We have the right to prohibit your fishermen from purchasing these supplies in our territory, but the whole question could and should be disposed of by a common-sense arrangement between the two countries, whereby their productions could be exchanged without restriction, fiscal or otherwise. Each country has something to sell which the other wants and is willing to buy, and if the politicians who purposely, it seems, muddle the question, would stand aside, the business men of the two countries could speedily settle the matter.

I entirely agree with you in your opinion as to Mr. Babson's conduct, but he, I presume, is endeavoring to make himself "solid" with the Gloucester fishing people, many of whom, by the way, are Nova Scotians born and bred, and British citizens to this day. On our side the good Tories make themselves "solid" with their constituents by expressing their anxiety to die in the defence of Canadian liberty. Do you think your Mr. Babson could be induced to meet our Gen. Laurie of Nova Scotia, not at San Francisco, but on some nearer neutral ground, where the whole question could be decided in the lists? We can get along without the General if you can spare Mr. Babson.

W. B. C.

New Brunswick, January 14, 1890.

DÉGRAS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The article in No. 1280 of the *Nation*, under "The Week," in which you mention the raising of the tariff on dégras by a Chicago appraiser, and refer to the nature of dégras itself, contains a slight technical error to which I beg to call your attention.

Dégras is a grease obtained as a by-product in the process of oil tanning of skins and hides. In this method of tanning, fish or train-oil is

used, and also the grease obtained in cleaning and preparing wool for spinning. Oil-tanned leather, after going through the process and the manipulations of tanning, takes up more grease than it can hold and is necessary for tanning. The excess of grease is removed by pressing and washing, and the grease so obtained is called dégras.

In the process of oil tanning, the fatty matter used undergoes certain chemical alterations which make it peculiarly adapted for dressing regularly tanned leather; and the demand for dégras for the latter purpose is greater than can be supplied from the by-product of oil tanning. Dégras is therefore regularly manufactured by subjecting the same skins over and over to the oil-tanning process simply with the object of obtaining dégras.

I do not know whether this will help the Chicago amender of the tariff any in his view that dégras is an expressed oil in the sense of the law. Yours very truly,

A. V. WEISE.

SARCOXIE, Mo., January 14, 1890.

MILLIONAIRES AND SINNERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your recent article on "Millionaires" reminds me that a young minister, not long since, supplied a pulpit for one Sabbath in a thriving manufacturing town east of the Hudson. He was the guest of a deacon, and as they walked together after the morning service the deacon said, "Perhaps you do not know that you preached to Eighteen Millions of dollars today?" "No," said the minister, "I did not; but you will go to h—ll all the same unless you repent."

Would you call him "an angel unawares"?

Very truly, S. N.

PHILADELPHIA, January 13, 1890.

MASONIC RITUAL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The recent deplorable accident at Huntington prompts me to put a question which I dare say is in the minds of many:

Is it not high time that the great and beneficent order of Masons had raised itself to a higher intellectual plane, and purged its ritual of fables of the Kabbala, properties of the pantomime, and terrors of the nursery?

I am, sir, etc., WM. HAND BROWNE.

AVITUS AND MILTON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If my article on "A Precursor of Milton," in the January *Atlantic*, fails to make it certain that Milton knew Avitus, the fault is in my translation of the passages quoted. They should have been (and in the first instance were) given in the original, parallel with the corresponding passages from 'Paradise Lost,' but the exigencies of magazine-printing forbade that form. No English translation can convey the resemblance between the Latin poet and Milton; it comes out curiously in the Italian version of 'Paradise Lost' by Guido Sorelli. But only a careful comparison of the two poems can give the argument full force, and whoever is interested in it will go to them and accept nobody's dictum.

I must dispute the expression used in the last number of the *Nation*, which implies that Avitus was a "much more obscure person" than Milton. Every student of early European history under our era, especially of ecclesiastical history, knows better than that. It is only as a writer that the great statesman-bishop's fame has been lost.—Yours respectfully,

S. B. W.

JANUARY 13, 1890.

'FUGITIVE FACTS.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the review of 'Fugitive Facts' appearing in your issue of this week, there are statements and implications not of *opinion*, but of *facts*, which are totally incorrect, and can have no other foundation than the hasty surmise of your reviewer.

The volume is *not* in any sense a mere collection of "clippings." The variety and scope of the titles are due, in large part, to the scrap-book method, but there is not a single article of any length in the book, except such as are mere enumerations of numbers or names, which is taken directly from any source whatever. The Greenbush *News* may have furnished a suggestion for a title, but the information given on that subject is the best that our great libraries render available. The articles are, almost without exception, original composition, and are designed to give, in clear, concise form, the pith of the matter obtained from many sources. Hence, any "credit" is impracticable beyond the general statement in my preface, that "all statements are supported by the best authorities."

I feel much aggrieved by the impression conveyed by your notice, as many single articles represent days of diligent search and reading in the library, and the effort to catch and present to the readers the *gist* of diffuse and exhaustive articles found in other works. That suggestive "scrap" from the Greenbush *News* entailed much labor in the ascertaining of reliable information on that subject.

I beg that you will correct the mistaken impression conveyed by your notice by publishing this letter, or in such other way as you prefer.—Very truly, ROBERT THORNE.

37 GRAMERCY PARK, N. Y., January 11, 1890.

[In view of the limitations of individual knowledge, we *did* assume that Mr. Thorne could not have written at first hand, or have personally verified, statements on so multifarious themes as his book contains. The manner of compilation which we attributed to him was inferrible from the heterogeneity of the contents. It seemed impossible that any one should deliberately have made out such a list of subjects for investigation; and that Mr. Thorne did not do this, but merely printed extracts and scrap-books made on no definite principle of selection, was further indicated by the unintelligent way in which the articles were arranged. We did not undertake to test the truth of his statements, but if their uniform accuracy were demonstrated, our criticism would still hold good. As to giving credit, we are unable to admit the impossibility which Mr. Thorne urges, especially as this is common in similar compilations. It is customary for scholars, even the most eminent, to cite the authority for their statements. When an author fails to do this, there is no means of estimating his accuracy except by personal investigation.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

HARPER & BROS. have in press the second volume of Justin McCarthy's 'History of the Four Georges,' and a new edition of Quackenbos's 'Illustrated History of Ancient Literature, Oriental and Classical.'

A work on 'Civil Government,' by John Fiske, is announced by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Cassell & Co. announce that they will publish a memorial of the late Henry W. Grady, editor of the Atlanta *Constitution*. His coworkers on that journal have prepared it, and it will be edited by Joel Chandler Harris. It will contain a complete life of Mr. Grady, and representative selections from his writings and speeches.

Roberts Bros., Boston, will publish next month 'Albrecht,' an historical novel, by Arlo Bates, and George Sand's 'The Bagpipers,' translated by Miss Wormeley.

Mr. W. W. Pasko, 19 Park Place, invites subscriptions to a 'History of Printing in the City of New York, from its Beginning to the Present Time,' with illustrative, historical and biographical notes. It will make two quarto volumes with numerous cuts, maps, etc. Five hundred copies only will be printed.

Mr. J. M. Place, publisher of the Harrisburg *Telegram*, has, in connection with Mr. J. J. McLaurin, undertaken the preparation of a history of the Johnstown disaster, the net proceeds of the sale of which will go to the relief of printers' orphans and aged persons who suffered by the flood.

'A Study of Ben Jonson,' by Algernon Charles Swinburne, will be brought out by Worthington Co.

Ginn & Co.'s latest list of announcements include 'A Brief History of the Roman People,' by the late Prof. Wm. F. Allen, and 'The Annals of Tacitus,' edited by the same hand; a revised and enlarged edition of Prof. Goodwin's 'Moods and Tenses of the Greek Verb'; and 'Open, Sesame' (Part I.), a collection of prose and verse for schools and homes.

F. W. Christern sends us the prospectus of the 'Obras Completas' of Lope de Vega, to be published by the Spanish Royal Academy. The rate of publication will be three or four volumes a year. The editing of the text will be scrupulous as to its purity, and critical and historical notices will accompany each piece by this prolific writer.

A wide reading of 'The Story of Emin's Rescue as Told in Stanley's Letters' can confidently be predicted. The letters, to which have been added a few from members of his staff, have been edited by Mr. J. Scott Keltie, librarian of the Royal Geographical Society, who furnishes a needed introduction touching Emin's situation which Stanley was invoked to relieve, and giving the particulars of the expedition down to the time of its arrival on the Congo. A map shows the route traversed, and there are portraits of Emin and his rescuer. The American publishers are Harper & Bros. The little volume can be quickly read, but not quickly forgotten.

The Clarendon Press has made a fine volume (the first) of a reissue of Anthony Wood's 'Survey of the Antiquities of Oxford,' edited devotedly enough by Andrew Clark, who nevertheless seems to be aware of the want of interest of this veritable sawdust heap of local antiquities. The critic (on this side of the water at least) can hardly take hold of it. This instalment deals with the city and its suburbs.

For the fourth time M. Jules Lemaitre has collected into a volume his dramatic criticisms contributed every Monday to the *Journal des Débats*, and this fourth series of his 'Impressions de Théâtre' (Paris: Lecène & Oudin; New York: F. W. Christern) does not yield in piquancy to its predecessors. Especially to be noted is his frank criticism of his own play,

"Révoltée," acted last year at the Odéon, and his biting analysis of the late Théodore Barrière's "Filles de Marbre," recently revived in Paris for the first time in thirty years, and most unsuccessfully, though it still lingers in American theatres, where it is known as the "Marble Heart."

M. Ernest Bertin has collected from the same journal a volume of book-reviews, 'Études sur la Société Française' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern), in which he considers, in the light of recent works, Mme. de Sévigné's grandson, Racine, La Rochefoucauld, Saint-Simon, Voltaire, and other representatives of French society of the past. Perhaps the chapters of most interest to Americans, who were once asked, "Have we a Bourbon among us?" are those on Louis XVII. and on the many pretenders to his rank.

The prison statistics of the United States for 1888 form the subject of a monograph by R. P. Falkner, Ph.D., which is published by the University of Pennsylvania. The reports of prisons upon which it is based are defective and arranged upon different plans, so that the material is refractory. We observe that in the year 1886 there was among the 552 convicts in Philadelphia only one intemperate person, or the intemperate numbered only one-fifth of one per cent. During the same year one-third of the convicts at Joliet, Ill., were classed as intemperate. Data of this character can afford few valuable results, and we find nothing in this paper that calls for particular mention. It may, however, as the author suggests, serve as the basis for future studies.

The absurdity and injustice of double taxation in Massachusetts are well shown in a small pamphlet by Mr. J. P. Quincy (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). He does not consider the subject with reference to the ultimate incidence of taxes, but points out in a spirited way the inequalities in the assessments of neighboring towns, and the propriety of the migrations of the "tax-dodger." But we doubt the wisdom of invoking the aid of "all Nationalists, Christian Socialists, and Single-Tax men." Appeal might better be made to the saner portion of the community.

State Boards of Health are disseminating sanitary information so copiously that, before long, preventable disease in a community should be disgraceful as well as hurtful, and should equally reflect upon the intelligence of the people and the honesty of the officials, and warn off intending settlers. The report of the State Board of Michigan (Dr. Henry B. Baker, Secretary) for 1888, the sixteenth of the annual series, is the last we have seen. Considering the amount and character of its yearly work, conspicuously the circulation of tracts of instruction, the essentials of public hygiene must soon be common among the citizens of the peninsular State. The matters of most general interest in this report are the cumulative evidence of the spread of typhoid fever by an infected water-supply, charts showing the restraining influence of isolation and disinfection upon the spread of diphtheria and scarlet fever, and a discussion of the relation of temperature to respiratory diseases. In diphtheria, where isolation and disinfection were neglected, the proportion of both cases and deaths was about four-and-a-half times as many as where they were enforced, and in scarlet fever it was about five times as many. The estimate is made that in the two diseases combined, in 1886–7, 11,800 cases were prevented and 1,685 lives were saved in Michigan by these measures.

There is reprinted a paper read by Dr. Baker before the last International Medical Congress, showing the increase of diseases of the respiratory organs as the external temperature declines (which is generally recognized), and explaining it by supposing that the albuminous parts of the blood pass into the air passages whenever the want of moisture in the air leads the salts to be in those passages in excess. In this albuminous layer the presumed bacterial causes find a favorable seat for development. We cannot say that this satisfies all the conditions.

The Jacksonville (Fla.) Auxiliary Sanitary Association has published a report, voluminous in detail, but not in convenient form for analysis, covering its yellow-fever work in 1888. Nearly $350,000, independently of Government aid, was received as donations and used on account of the public health.

The *New England Magazine* is now among the best that come to our table. The January number is the fifth of the vigorous new series, and has half-a-dozen articles which may be read profitably and with interest even by those not to the New England manner born. Such is Mr. A. R. Willard's well-informed and freely illustrated paper on "The New England Meeting-house and the Wren Church," for have not New Yorkers also evidence of Wren's influence on their earlier church buildings? Such is Dr. Jameson's historical inquiry, "Did the Fathers Vote?" He shows that in Massachusetts at least they were chargeable, like their posterity, with indifference to the exercise of the suffrage, but to an even greater extent. We can barely mention "Boston Musical Composers," with portraits; "The Behring Sea Controversy," "Thomas Jefferson and the Louisiana Purchase," and two papers on Browning.

In the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for January, Gen. Sir Lewis Pelly gives an account of what has been done by the British East Africa Company in the exploration and development of its territory. Stations have been planted in the interior. The port of Mombasa is being improved by the construction of a pier and a lighthouse. Forty miles of railroad are being laid, which is eventually intended to connect the Victoria Nyanza with the coast at this point. A road and telegraph are being built along the coast. All this has been accomplished without opposition from the natives, whose good will has been won by the tact shown by the company's officers in dealing with the various chiefs and tribes. Gen. Pelly also briefly sketches the history of the South African and Royal Niger Companies, showing what is to be expected from each. Capt. A. Hovgaard of the Danish Navy describes the movement of the ice in the Kara Sea. He believes that the navigation of this "inland" sea, for so he regards it, will become "a very simple matter," and that "sooner or later a regular trade will be established by this route with Siberia." He also advocates an attempt to reach the North Pole by this sea, the only route still left untried. At the annual meeting of the Society in November, M. Élisée Reclus and Maj. J. W. Powell were elected honorary members.

Mr. Eugene Schuyler, Consul-General of the United States in Egypt, has been unanimously elected an honorary member of the Khedivial Geographical Society at Cairo.

In his last letters to the London *Times*, Mr. Geo. Curzon, M. P., describes the political and commercial conditions of Khorasan, at whose capital, the sacred city of Meshed, both Russia and Great Britain now maintain consul-generals. He argues that Russia desires to possess this Persian province, not only because of its superior wealth "in fruit, in minerals, in produce of every kind, above all in grain," to her Transcaspian possessions, but because of its being essential to her gaining an outlet, by way of Seistan, to the Indian Ocean. As regards the feeling of the people towards Russia, he says: "My impression is that Meshed, if it is destined to fall, will fall without a blow, and that a change of ownership in Khorasan might be effected without the loss of a drop of blood." This is owing to a variety of causes, chief among which are the "utter rottenness of Persian administration," the liberation of great numbers of Persian slaves in Khiva, and the repression of the Turcoman raids. Mr. Curzon asserts that, notwithstanding all the efforts of the Russians to obtain a commercial supremacy in this province, and in spite of the fact that the "volume of trade" is "indisputably Russian, the value is still on the side of the English." The cheaper goods in the retail shops come from Russia, but the tea, indigo, drugs, medicines, and spices, as well as other articles of British manufacture, come from India. "It can be demonstrated," he says, "that Meshed at this moment does a larger trade with Bombay than it does with the whole of Russia." His last letter is descriptive of his journey from Meshed to Teheran, with some account of the latter city, in which there are now nearly five hundred Europeans.

The bibliographical periodicals for December do not offer a great variety in their contents. In the *Centralblatt für Bibliothekswesen* the two principal articles are the bibliography of the writings of Michael Bapst, and an interesting historical sketch of Jesuit bibliography by Professor Arndt; while the fifth *Beiheft* is devoted to a third supplement to Weller's 'Deutsche Zeitungen,' by A. Heyer, and a bibliographical essay on Arabic translations from the Greek, by M. Steinschneider. In the *Library* for December worthy of note is the paper, by the Chief Librarian of the British Museum, entitled "Some Hints on the Future of Free Libraries"; interesting, too, is the paper by W. Blades on chained libraries, describing more particularly the chained library of Wimborne Minster.

The petition to the members of the French Academy on behalf of a simplified orthography is still in circulation. It was launched in May last, and M. Louis Havet came to its support in the *Revue Bleue* of November 23. The most of the changes proposed would seem to be little shocking to the native sense. The mute letters are of course attacked (as *l* in *fils*, *o* in *faon*, etc.), and the quasi-mute in doubling (as *n* in *honneur*.) But also the mute accents are to be abolished (as in *où*, *là*, *gîte*, *fût*). The French, both in writing and in printing, are so careless in this matter that here again no feelings ought to be wounded. Still, unless French printers refuse to give to foreign words such of the obnoxious accents as belong to them, we do not see the force of the argument that they can economize in *â*, *û*, *î*, *û* in every font.

Not a few Americans genealogically curious will be glad to have their attention called to the beginning of a publication, in the *Lincolnshire Notes and Queries* for January, of a list of the gentry of Lincolnshire, carefully copied from the Herald's visitation of the County of Lincoln of 1634. It embraces the Disclaimers also, *i. e.*, people socially qualified to bear arms, but having no right to do so. These often obtained the right from the crown after the visitation, and became "visitation families."

—The American Society for Psychical Research, after existing for five years, with its headquarters in Boston, and publishing some

600 pages of "Proceedings," at last, for pecuniary reasons, terminated its corporate existence on January 14. The English Society of the same name is heir to its documentary possessions, and is to keep Dr. Richard Hodgson, late Secretary of the American Society, as its own secretary in America. A majority of the associates of the American Society have joined the English Society, forming the nucleus of an American branch. Professors S. P. Langley of Washington, H. P. Bowditch of Boston, and W. James of Cambridge are appointed vice-presidents of the S. P. R. in America; but apart from their advisory functions there is no "organization" here, a circumstance which will doubtless contribute to economy and efficiency of work. The English Society's Proceedings keep up with wonderful vigor, and have become indispensable to students of psychology. It is to be hoped that a solid moral and pecuniary support to the Society may be extended from this country. The annual assessment of American associates is $3.00. They receive for this the published "Proceedings," which appear quarterly, and the monthly "Journal" printed for circulation in the Society only. American work will henceforward appear in these publications. Those who wish may become full "members" of the English Society, with voting and other privileges, by the annual payment of $10. Meetings of the Branch will be held periodically for the reading of papers and discussion. Those who desire to join the Society or to obtain information should address the Secretary, R. Hodgson, No. 5 Boylston Place, Boston.

—The first number of the new English Liberal weekly, the *Speaker*, bears date of January 4. It contains the usual apology for journalistic commencements, and only time can supply one department which we hope is contemplated, that of Letters to the Editor, for these are a sign at once of the vitality of the paper itself, and of an active public sentiment glad of a medium through which to make itself heard. In fact, the title of the paper seems to call for this. The *Speaker* presents a quarto form both narrower and shorter than the *Nation's*, but likewise in three columns; and the scheme is of forty-eight pages, the advertising pages being numbered continuously with the reading matter. The type chosen is large, but, being "unleaded," has too condensed an appearance to suit our taste, and, being the same in size throughout, with the exception of book-titles and poetical extracts, still further daunts the eager reader. The leading articles are both signed and unsigned. There is special foreign correspondence; a department of "First Impressions" (or brief, informal notices which do not preclude longer reviews by-and-by); and, at the close, a business article. A buff paper cover envelopes the paper. It will be interesting to observe if England can support *three* politico-literary journals of this order. Significant is the action of the *Saturday Review*, at the beginning of the present year, in introducing a department of news chronicle and comment; and of the *Spectator* in experimenting with a column of causerie on social topics and literary intelligence.

— *Le Livre* closes not ingloriously the first phase of its existence with the December number. One misses the customary full-page plate, but there is a generous supply of curious facsimiles (?) of title-pages and vignettes drawn from the works of the obscurer Romanticists, bearing such extraordinary alternative titles as 'Les Gondoles du Cœur, ou les Bercements de l'Amour,' 'La Fille d'Ophélie, ou le Fantôme d'Elseneur,' 'Les Frissons du Tombeau, ou les Résurrections,' 'Les Amours d'un Squelette,' 'Edgard le Taciturne, ou l'Étrangleur,' etc., etc. In fact, the thirty titles scrupulously recorded and the illustrations make the impression of a clever mystification—"contes pour les bibliophiles." Among the reviews we remark that of 'Sous-Offs' (*sous-officiers*), a romance of military life designed to expose the petty tyranny of the system, by Lucien Descaves, who seems to have used the darkest colors freely; and that of the third volume of Georges Bengesco's Voltaire Bibliography, which has to do with the correspondence. Altogether, this indefatigable searcher records about 10,500 notes and letters for the sixty-seven years 1711–1778, which he numbers in accord with the Moland edition. But Moland's omissions are made good not only by mention of them, but by printing the text of more than a hundred letters which have never appeared in any 'Complete Works' of Voltaire. More than this, M. Bengesco improves upon Moland by a more correct indication of the sources of the letters, the place of their first appearance in print, etc. M. Octave Uzanne, in laying aside one editorial rôle for another, presents a specimen of the new serial, successor to *Le Livre*, *Le Livre Moderne*, a dainty octavo of which the "expression typographique" and the "format" are all that can be judged in advance of publication, and these will be favorably judged.

— It is a distinct offence against good taste for one writer to attempt to continue a story which has been finished by another. A story, and still more a play, is a work of art, and it cannot be followed out to a possible end any more than a picture can have other bits of canvas tacked on to it. This offence against good taste has been committed by Mr. Walter Besant in the January number of the *English Illustrated Magazine*. If Mr. Besant thought the moral of "A Doll's House" a bad one, it was open to him to say so in plain English. He gains nothing by drawing a crude picture of the ruin into which the Helmer family has fallen twenty years after the end of the play. Moreover, he shows a fatal lack of power to grasp the meaning of the "Doll's House." Nora's leaving her family at the end is a mere incident, and not the main point of the play. So violent a measure as this would only occasionally be necessitated by the discovery on the part of a woman that she is a distinct human being, with accountabilities of her own. The discovery is the great thing, and the following it up by some action, whatever the particular circumstances may require. That it is not in foreign countries only that there is necessity for preaching this doctrine, may appear from the following sentence, taken from the circular for 1889 of one of the best girls' schools in Virginia: "A woman's province in life is to throw herself heartily into the pursuits of others rather than to have pursuits of her own."

—The only important article in this number of the *English Illustrated Magazine* is that on "Competition and Coöperation Among Women," by Mrs. Jeune and by Wm. James Walker. Mrs. Jeune points out how nearly impossible it is for combination to take place among women who are mothers and who are already working at starvation wages. The only remedies which she can suggest for the heart-rending state of things that prevails among the women in the east of London—for the worst features of which the sweating system is responsible—are (1) to induce boys and girls of seventeen and eighteen to refrain from marrying and having families, utterly regardless of their ability to provide for them; (2) to restrict immigration; (3) to educate the cleverest of the workers so that they can enter the ranks of the skilled laborers; (4) coöperation; (5) to make domestic service more attractive by restricting its hours of labor and diminishing its restraints. She points out that all these means are nearly hopeless when one considers the immense mass of the misery to be relieved. One thing, however, could be done: better dwellings could be secured if volunteer workers could be found who would devote themselves to enforcing regulations which are already in existence. It is a fact, she says, that in parts of London some of the most disgracefully kept property belongs to members of the vestries, and that the sanitary inspectors appointed to see that their hygienic conditions are satisfactory are relatives of the people to whom the dwellings belong.

— The great French Exposition of last summer included an "exposition of social science," and the eminent economist A. de Foville, in a letter on the economic situation in France in the January issue of the Harvard *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, appeals to his brethren in this country that they secure for the social subjects a similar place in our Exposition of 1892. One wonders a little what an exposition of social economy is like. At first blush a collection of books and other printed matter would seem to be about all that could "expose" the subject; but in the same issue of the Harvard *Journal* is an account of the French enterprise, by Mr. E. Cummings, which shows that the spectacular genius of that people grappled even this unpromising task with a good degree of success. Of course the solid part of the exposition of last summer consisted of the books, reports, pamphlets, figures, which showed the history and state of the various social questions. The exhibition was divided into fifteen sections, each devoted to some one subject, such as Profit-Sharing, Coöperation, Apprenticeship, Laborers' Dwellings, Trade Organizations, Mutual Aid Societies, and what not; and on all of these there seems to have been brought out, or at least collected, a great mass of interesting and valuable information. But, as Mr. Cummings puts it, "The administration wisely recognized that, for the most part, Exposition-goers are bereft of all senses but one—sight. Therefore, the abstractions of economic science, the beauties of profit-sharing, the blessings of sobriety and *prévoyance* must be rendered visible." Every endeavor was made to stimulate pictorial representations—by charts, diagrams, mottoes, photographs, votive temples, full-sized models of workmen's dwellings, and all sorts of decorative details. There was a pavilion devoted to the famous profit-sharing enterprise of the Maison Le Claire, daintily decorated by that house-painting establishment; busts of M. and Mme. Boucicault were placed in a little shrine to their philanthropic Bon Marché; a descriptive monument illustrated the growth of coöperation in England; and there was an exhibit of our Knights of Labor, in which decoration and mottoes predominated decidedly over facts.

—All this brought a danger that the exposition might degenerate into an "economic kindergarten," and Mr. Cummings hints plainly enough that it did not always prove possible to avoid some approach to the ludicrous. But the pictorial touches seem to have added immensely to the general educational value of the exposition; and this benefit was combined with the more solid results achieved for serious students. Congresses of specialists were held for each of

the sections, in which there was thorough and valuable discussion, and, as we have already noted, the exposition brought out a quantity of new literature and new information on the social subjects. On the whole, it seems to have been a success; and if we do not dally so long with the preliminary questions of site and scale as to make adequate preparation out of the question, the French example may well be imitated when our turn comes in 1892.

—The death of Champfleury (whose real name was Jules Fleury Husson, born at Laon, September 10, 1821, died at Sèvres, December 6, 1889) removes one whose chief hold upon the interest of people of a later generation than his who are separated from the literary life of Paris by the Atlantic Ocean and various other things, lies in his having been a survivor of the small knot of "Bohemians" whose chief was Henry Mürger, and in his having been the reputed father, or rather godfather, of modern realism. His reputation in both these points is misleading. He was the friend of Mürger, and of others of his set, such as Baudelaire, Bonvin, Courbet; but he himself was but a *bourgeois* in Bohemia. He not only worked hard, but he lived without debts, and even saved money. Realism he disdained, both word and thing, and he was particularly offended at the report that it was he who invented the name. The Goncourts he assailed with amusing virulence. Thus, to quote from the *Figaro* of December 7, 1889:

"Ces cocodès de lettres qu'on appelle les Goncourt, qu'ils soient deux ou un. Ce sont des animaux à sang-froid qui ne sentent ni ne ressentent aucune émotion. . . . Descriptions à la façon d'un clerc d'huissier se piquant de style; royalistes en histoire, ce qui les empêche de voir clair; compilateurs achevés d'almanachs qui n'ont jamais passé pour ouvrir de vastes horizons intellectuels; disciples ou plutôt valets de chambre de Gavarni, pleins de mots cherchés au détriment de son crayon d'un *chic* dont on se moque déjà. . . ."

Champfleury will, however, most likely be remembered on account of his 'Souvenirs,' which are memories of the *vie de Bohême*, rather than from any other of his hundred books and pamphlets. From that book, too, it may come to be doubted whether the Bohemia of tradition ever really existed, after all; whether Mürger did not represent as essential and characteristic what was in truth no more than accidental in the life of which he wrote. One knows how much make-believe there was in the New York Bohemia; perhaps the Bohemia of Paris was just as unreal a country. M. Jules Levallois, who writes of Champfleury in the *Revue Bleue* of December 14, is distinctly of the opinion that it was.

— No very remarkable number of the extinct East India Company's military officers have distinguished themselves by their learning; and of these but a mere handful still survive. Of those that have passed away, several might be named as having earned a title to high praise for their achievements in letters; but conspicuously prominent among them all, if not, on the whole, preëminent, stood Col. Sir Henry Yule, whose death took place on the 30th of last December. Col. Yule, C.B., K.C.S.I., the youngest son of the late Maj. William Yule of the Bengal Army, was born at Inveresk in May, 1820. After graduating at the Military School at Addiscombe, he was commissioned in the Royal Bengal Engineers, and reached Calcutta n 1840. In 1862, partly owing to impaired health, he retired from the army, with the honorary rank of Colonel, and from that time spent many years in Italy. On returning to England, he was, from 1875 till a few months ago, a life-member of the India Council. Of his professional services, which were neither few nor unimportant, this is not the place to enter into details. In 1858 he made his first noteworthy effort in literature, as author of a quarto volume, 'Narrative of the Mission sent by the Governor-General of India to the Court of Ava in 1855.' As adding to the knowledge previously possessed of Burma, it is a work of substantial value, while its admirable pictorial illustrations afford evidence that its author's talent was wider than that exhibited by his letter-press. His next publication, in two volumes, dated in 1866, was 'Cathay and the Way Thither.' It consists of mediæval notices of China, accompanied by comments evincing immense research and erudition. In 1871 followed his new translation, with notes, also in two volumes, of Marco Polo's 'Book Concerning the Kingdoms of the East,' which, as 'The Book of Ser Marco Polo,' reached a second and enlarged impression in 1875. Eminent as was the reputation which Col. Yule acquired by his 'Cathay,' it was not only supported but enhanced by the varied merits of his reproduction and rehabilitation of the old Venetian traveller, who had been so long and so unjustly a subject of scoffing and derision. Renewed proof of Col. Yule's matchless ability as an Oriental geographer and ethnographer was furnished by his "Essay on the Geography of the Valley of the Oxus," incorporated in the second edition of Capt. John Wood's 'Journey to the Source of the Oxus,' which came out in 1872; and his memoir of its author, prefixed to the abridged edition of Capt. W. Gill's 'River of Golden Sand' (1883), has the value which attaches to everything that he produced.

— His scattered essays and criticisms embedded in the *Edinburgh Review* and elsewhere being passed by, we now come to the laborious compilation whimsically named 'Hobson-Jobson' (1886), of which, in conjunction with the late Mr. A. C. Burnell of the Madras Civil Service, he was the author. This, as its alternative title denotes, is "A Glossary of Anglo-Indian Colloquial Words and Phrases." One has only to consult at random this unique contribution to lexicography, in order to be satisfied that its execution would have been impossible but for the indefatigable exploration of countless obscure nooks and corners; a good share of its materials having been gleaned from forgotten books and pamphlets and from unprinted documents not easily accessible. Nor, on his last appearance as an elucidator of distant regions in bygone times, did Colonel Yule in the least deteriorate from the thoroughness of treatment and the wealth of recondite information which had characterized all his literary workmanship from the outset. We refer to his edition, in three volumes, of the 'Diary of William Hedges,' which had never before been published. This Diary, which dates about two centuries back, supplies a curious and interesting picture of Bengal at a period when Calcutta, even as a name, was still to emerge into existence. In addition to numerous honors conferred on him by foreign learned institutions, Col. Yule had been President of the Royal Asiatic Society, and also President of the Hakluyt Society. In requital of what he accomplished, his contemporaries acknowledged his deserts to the full. As to the future, such are the exhaustiveness and the critical exactness of his scholarship, and so nicely guarded are his conclusions, that his fame is firmly secured against depreciation, however sedulously the subjects with which he occupied himself may be investigated by his successors.

ARTHUR YOUNG'S TRAVELS IN FRANCE.

Travels in France by Arthur Young during the Years 1787, 1788, 1789. With an Introduction, Biographical Sketch, and Notes by M. Betham-Edwards. 16mo. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1889. (Bohn series.)

At last, after nearly a hundred years, there is a new edition of Arthur Young's 'Travels in France.' There was certainly a demand, eager if limited, for such an edition, for the old ones were much sought after and brought high prices. The book was originally published at Bury St. Edmund's in 1792, in one volume, quarto, of viii. and 566 pages. An ill-printed edition, in two volumes octavo, appeared in the following year in Dublin. In 1794 the author published a second volume at Bury St. Edmund's, and in the same year in London a second edition of the first volume, enlarged by the insertion of the journal of a short tour in Spain and somewhat altered. These two volumes, although differing in their places of publication, form one complete work. They were sent by Arthur Young to Gen. Washington, as we know by the words "From the Author" in a large, bold handwriting, apparently that of the recipient, on the fly-leaf of each volume of his copy. This edition of 1794 was the original of the last complete English edition, which forms a part of the fourth volume of Pinkerton's 'Voyages and Travels,' published in 1809. In the British Museum there are, moreover, three editions in French and one in German.

The work in its final shape, as left by the author, consists of two parts, the first of which is a diary of his journeys in France, Spain, and Italy, the second a collection of thirty essays, or chapters, on French agriculture, commerce, manufactures, and kindred subjects, with one on the Revolution. A series of notes on agriculture in Italy and in Spain is added. Miss Betham-Edwards has ruthlessly sacrificed all the second part, with the exception of the chapter on the Revolution. She has also cut out the parts of the diary which relate to the Italian and Spanish trips of the author. By these excisions she has reduced the bulk of the book by more than two-thirds. She has retained, perhaps, what is most interesting to the general reader, but has omitted much that is very valuable to the student of the period.

Arthur Young's book is precious in two ways. Its author was an intelligent, observant traveller, and a man of the world, moving in the best company at a most interesting time. As an account of French society and manners, and of the general aspect of the country, his book is comparable to those of Dr. Rigby and of Swinburne, to the 'Tableau de Paris' of Mercier, and to the memoirs of many contemporary writers. It is the part of the book which resembles all these that we get in Miss Betham-Edwards's edition. As a scientific student of agriculture, Young was eminent in his day, and his studies of the condition of France in this respect are very valuable. As a writer on the details of administration, he is worthy of attention, for he was very knowing and painstaking. As for his general views, they were those of his age. He was fully impressed with the idea that the Government makes the people what they are, instead of holding, as we are more inclined to do to-day, that the people make the Government what it is. The truth would appear to lie somewhere between these two theories. Young's opinions on these important matters recur constantly in the diary, but are more elaborately worked out

in the second part, which Miss Betham-Edwards has omitted.

It is by singular good fortune that the 'Travels in France' has taken a prominent place in general history. A book, however excellent, on the subject of agriculture must have seemed to be destined to lie awhile on the squire's study-table, and find its way in due course from the upper shelf to the paper-mill. Most books of travel meet with a fate but little more distinguished; and such has, indeed, been the history of most of the many volumes written by Arthur Young. He travelled in England as well as in France, and published the results of his "tours" at great length; but the historian of the last century seldom pores over these. He spent something like three years in Ireland, and the account he wrote of that island is, as Miss Betham-Edwards rightly affirms, "invaluable to this day"; but it is not so constantly quoted as the book before us. Young's journeys to France, however, were made just as some of the most momentous events in modern history were approaching and taking place in that country. These events were not a little connected with the tenure and cultivation of land, and Young is, on the whole, the most competent and disinterested observer who has left an account of that cultivation.

Miss Betham-Edwards has prefixed to her edition a valuable introduction and an interesting biographical sketch. In the former she has undertaken a comparison of the state of France to-day with that which was seen by Arthur Young a hundred years ago. The progress in prosperity and happiness achieved during the century seems truly marvellous. We fear that a part of this advance is illusory. There has undoubtedly been improvement, but something must be allowed for the personality of the writers. Miss Betham-Edwards, who has been much in France, is a most kindly and genial observer. Arthur Young, on the other hand, was not over-indulgent. His book gives us the impression of its author as a self-assertive and rather combative man, interesting undoubtedly from his information and intelligence; courteous, perhaps, when on his good behavior, but not very conciliatory in his manner to strangers—the grumbling Englishman with whom all travellers on the Continent are familiar. Should we compare the France of 1789 described by Dr. Rigby with the France of our own time pictured by Lady Verney, the result would hardly be so cheering.

Arthur Young travelled a great deal on his own horse, thus seeing the various parts of France in the best possible way. He was everywhere struck with the excellence of the roads, but also with the small number of vehicles upon them, even near Paris. In the provinces this was still more remarkable. At Carcassonne, a town of fifteen thousand inhabitants, the traveller could not get any carriage at all, when the heat of the weather made riding uncomfortable. He says he believes there is in England no town of fifteen hundred people where postchaises and able horses may not be had at a moment's warning. French stables, he remarks, are covered dunghills. On the subject of the inns he is as minute as a guide-book, and much more free in his expressions of disapproval, although he likes the food better than that furnished for the same price in England.

Young's eyes are ever open to the sights of the road. In the south of France he notices many of the country girls and women without shoes or stockings, and throughout the country "women picking weeds into their aprons for their cows, another sign of poverty." "But if their feet are poorly clad, they have the *superb* consolation of walking upon magnificent causeways." Now and then we have a charming picture of rural plenty:

"The vintage itself can hardly be such a scene of activity and animation as this universal one of treading out the corn, with which all the towns and villages in Languedoc are now alive. The corn is all roughly stacked around a dry, firm spot, where great numbers of mules and horses are driven on a trot round a centre, a woman holding the reins, and another, or a girl or two, with whips drive; the men supply and clear the floor; other parties are dressing, by throwing the corn into the air for the wind to blow away the chaff. Every soul is employed, and with such an air of cheerfulness that the people seem as well pleased with their labors as the farmer himself with his great heaps of wheat. The scene is uncommonly animated and joyous. I stopped and alighted often to see their method; I was always very civilly treated, and my wishes for a good price for the farmer, and not too good a one for the poor, well received."

But the other side of the rural picture is more prominent. Young boils with indignation at the sight of waste lands in places where the proximity of markets would have made the soil worth cultivating:

"Thus it is," he cries, "whenever you stumble on a Grand Seigneur, even one that is worth millions, you are sure to find his property desert. The Duke of Bouillon's, and this Prince's, are two of the greatest properties in France; and all the signs I have yet seen of their greatness are wastes, *landes*, deserts, fern, ling. Go to their residence, wherever it may be, and you would probably find them in the midst of a forest, very well peopled with deer, wild boars, and wolves. Oh! if I was the legislator of France for a day, I would make such great lords skip again."

And the game-preserving lords were but imitating their sovereign. It is difficult to conceive of the hardships occasioned by the great preserves of the royal family, the *capitaineries*, as they were called. That of Chantilly, traversed by Young, was said to be above a hundred miles in circumference, and the inhabitants for that extent of country were pestered with game, without permission to destroy it, in order to give diversion to one man and his friends. The regulations maintained in these regions, often in the neighborhood of populous towns, or of Paris itself, were minute and oppressive. No new walls or fences might be erected, lest the game should be hindered in its attacks on the farmer's crops. Barley could not be cut before midsummer, nor the fields weeded until after the nesting season. The result was an enormous amount of game. About Montgeron, within a day's ride of Paris, there was a covey of partridges on every two acres, besides favorite spots where they abounded much more. Even deer were not uncommon; on the eve of the Revolution one was chased by the hounds of one of the princes and killed in the Rue Royale, at that time one of the outer streets of Paris.

The years of Young's travels were full of political excitement; the last of them were years of revolution. Our traveller associated constantly with people who were taking a great part in public events, dining frequently, when in Paris, at the Duke of Liancourt's table, where many deputies to the National Assembly used to meet twice a week. He attended the sittings of that body and noticed the disorder of the proceedings, the frequent interruptions by members, and the yet more dangerous interference of the spectators in the galleries, who were even known to hiss—"an indecorum," as he well remarks, "which is utterly destructive of freedom of debate." He also paid much attention to the *cahiers*, or lists of grievances, which the nobility, clergy, and people of the various provinces, towns, and villages sent to the Assembly by their deputies, and which have ever since furnished a rich store of information as to the abuses of old France and the desires of the different orders of its inhabitants. In his journeys, besides being subjected to some personal annoyances, caused by the troubled state of the times, he was thrown among many noblemen who had fled from their houses for fear of outrage, and he passed at least one burnt château. His story of confusion in Paris, of want of news, and of absence of the most elementary political training or intelligence in the country, is familiar to many readers by the quotations which historians have given from his book. Many persons will be glad to enlarge their acquaintance with it, in the little volume before us.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

Possession, it is well known, has been for centuries one of the great battle-fields of the Roman law. The Continental treatises on this topic would make a small library. In the English and American legal bibliographies, on the other hand, one finds no mention of the title "Possession." The learning on the subject must be sought piecemeal in the treatises on Torts and Limitations, or in the books of practice. Some of the philosophical and historical aspects of this branch of the law were discussed by Mr. Justice Holmes in a chapter of 'The Common Law.' But to Pollock and Wright's treatise on 'Possession' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) belongs the distinction of being the first and only English book devoted exclusively to this topic. This fact of itself raises a strong presumption that the English law differs widely from the Roman law in the matter of possession. An examination of the book confirms this presumption.

Mr. Pollock writes the introduction and the first half of the book, which, like all this author's writings, is eminently readable. The discussion of the "Nature of Possession" is an admirable piece of work. The chapter on the "Transfer of Possession" leaves a certain impression of scrappiness, perhaps unavoidable when so much ground is covered in so few pages. Much of value is to be found in the remaining chapter on "Possession and Title." There is, for instance, great confusion in the books generally as to the effect of the statute of limitations where B has disseised A, and, having held adversely for ten years, is in turn disseised by C, who occupies for another ten years. Mr. Pollock's solution of the difficulty is at once simple and satisfactory. C can defend successfully against A, but not against B; for A's right of entry is more, while B's right of entry is less, than twenty years old.

Mr. Wright's contribution to this composite work is a very careful examination of possession and trespass in relation to theft. The historical method has been applied, and in particular the Year Books have been exploited with great thoroughness and with substantial results. Now and then the learned author mistakes the import of the ancient sources, as on page 174, where he finds in Littleton's remark the origin of Trover. The "new found Haliday," which excited Littleton's criticism, was simply an innovation in the mode of declaring in Detinue. Again, on page 152, Mr. Wright takes exception to the doctrine that one who steals from a thief may be indicted for stealing the goods of him from whom they were first stolen. But the victim of a theft might maintain an appeal of larceny against either the first taker or any subsequent taker caught in possession of the goods. The same

rule was naturally extended to indictments, for the criminality of the alleged thief could not depend upon the nature of the prosecutor. The rule that one who steals in one county and carries the goods into another county, may be indicted in either, has a similar historical explanation, namely, that the appeal of larceny could be brought where the thief was taken with the "mainour" as well as where the chattels were stolen. The reason commonly given, that there is a fresh taking in every county, is a fiction of modern lawyers.

Now that this new field of Possession has been opened, we may hope for further explorations, the necessity for which the authors of this pioneer book would be the first to recognize. In the meantime we recommend this treatise to our readers as one of the most interesting and profitable of recent law books.

A book so generally useful as to call for a fourth edition deserved a more careful revision than 'Perry on Trusts' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) has received at the hands of the present editor. For, although "the results of about one thousand new cases have been embodied in the text of this edition," the omissions are many and serious. A few illustrations must suffice. The erroneous statement, in §706, that a bequest to keep a tomb in repair is a charitable trust, and therefore valid, remains without comment, although contradicted by some twenty decisions, no one of which is cited, showing that such a bequest is not charitable and therefore void as a perpetuity. The effect of a bequest "upon trust," the terms of the trust not being expressed in the will, but communicated to the trustee, is a controverted question, the trust being effectual in England, Ireland, and Illinois, but inoperative in Massachusetts. The existence of this controversy has escaped our editor. It is a common opinion that a trust for other than charitable purposes must necessarily fail if there is no defined beneficiary who can compel its performance. There seems to be no reason in the nature of things why a court of equity should prevent a willing trustee from effectuating his testator's intentions; and in several recent cases where property was given to trustees upon trust to build a monument, to purchase an advowson for such person as the trustees should designate, to maintain the horses and dogs of the testator, or to apply in masses for his soul, the courts have declined to interfere with the trustee. These cases may be thought to have an important bearing upon the pending litigation in regard to the "Tilden trust." But the reader will seek in vain for them in the book before us, although, it is fair to say, one late New York decision looking the other way is cited.

The scheme of Mr. Buswell's treatise on the 'Statute of Limitations' (Little, Brown & Co.) is an improvement upon its predecessors. If the execution is somewhat disappointing, especially in the chapters dealing with equitable claims, one must take into account the great difficulty of the subject. Indeed, so wide is the field to be covered that it is well-nigh impossible that any practising lawyer should find time to write a first-class work on limitations. This new book will doubtless prove a useful supplement to the treatises of Angell and Wood.

We have two books before us on the subject of Administration from the house of Little, Brown & Co.—'The American Law of Administration,' by J. G. Woerner, Judge of the Probate Court of the city of St. Louis, and 'The Law of Executors and Administrators,' by Simon G. Croswell of the Boston bar. Judge Woerner's work is in two volumes, and the citation by him of 15,000 cases indicates the reading he has done in the preparation of it. One must regret that he has not cited more English cases, even though their citation had led to his dropping the word "American" in his title. It would, again, probably be considered ungracious to criticise an author for giving you more than the title of his book leads you to expect, but one may well question whether some of the topics treated by Judge Woerner would not more appropriately be found in books on Property. The work is a thoroughly valuable one for both the practising lawyer and the student of law.

Mr. Croswell has managed, by using a very concise but clear style, to compress his work into a volume of 793 pages. Because of his experience in writing and editing law books, the profession would naturally expect a useful book from his hands, and that he has written such a one will not admit of question.

The founder of the Whewell Professorship of International Law in the University of Cambridge, England, desired the occupant of the chair to deal particularly with that branch of the subject having for its objects the amelioration of the hardships of war and its final extermination. In accordance with these wishes, the late Sir Henry Maine dealt with the subject of war in eight of the twelve lectures delivered by him at Cambridge on International Law, the remaining four chapters dealing with the general character of the subject. These lectures are now published by his executors (London: John Murray). As elsewhere, when not advancing a new idea, he presents his theme in such an attractive and striking way as always to interest and hold the reader. Of this character is what he has to say as to the distinction between positive law and international law. "International law," he says, "has but slender connection with it [positive law], and . . . has less analogy to the laws which are the commands of sovereigns than to rules of conduct which, whatever might be their origin, are to a very great extent enforced by the disapprobation which attends their neglect." He fully admits that international law, as the word law is used in positive law, is not law at all.

In 'Notes on the Revised Statutes of the United States' (Little, Brown & Co.), Messrs. John M. Gould and George F. Tucker give to the profession the result of labors begun in 1878. Their plan is to indicate the changes that were made in the previous law by the revision of 1874 and all statutory changes and additions since that time, and then, in connection with each section, to give the decisions relating thereto. The book is an indispensable companion to the Revised Statutes, and no lawyer can afford to be without it.

Two volumes of Mr. John D. Lawson's 'Rights, Remedies, and Practice' (San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Company) are now published. The work when completed will consist of seven volumes. If the remaining five are executed as well as those now published (and we do not doubt they will be), Mr. Lawson will have edited one of the most important practical works of recent times. The author designs to cover the field of American case law. His plan, as we understand it, is not to deal so much with the rationale of the law as to state briefly the results reached and to give illustrations thereof. This Mr. Lawson has done very successfully in dealing with the subjects of principal and agent, attorney and client, auctioneers, brokers and factors, master and servant, corporations, banks, railroad companies, gas companies, building and loan associations, voluntary associations, religious societies, charitable associations, partnerships, husband and wife, parent and child, guardian and ward, and executors and administrators, in the two volumes now before us.

Chaucer: The Legend of Good Women. Edited by the Rev. Walter W. Skeat, Litt.D. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1889.

THE valuable edition of the Minor Poems of Chaucer, which was brought out a short time ago by Prof. Skeat, has been speedily followed by an edition of the 'Legend of Good Women' at the hands of the same scholar. It is almost needless to say that the work is well done. It is amply supplied with explanatory notes which shirk no difficulties; with a glossary that omits no word that needs to be defined; and with an introduction of fifty-four pages which discusses fully the most important points connected with the poem. All the qualities, indeed, that we have learned to expect in Prof. Skeat's editing—wide general knowledge of early English literature, coupled with special knowledge of the subject upon which he is engaged, and these reinforced by the utmost care and industry—are as conspicuous in the preparation of this beautifully printed volume as in any one of the many excellent works which owe their existence to his scholarship and zeal.

In some respects the preparation of the work has been comparatively easy. In the multitude of manuscripts, as in the multitude of counsellors, there is safety; and of the 'Legend of Good Women' nine manuscripts are accessible, if we count as one the text which appears in the folio of 1532. There are therefore no such perplexing questions in connection with various readings as there would be were the authorities few, as, for instance, they are in 'The House of Fame.' The variations, in fact, between these manuscripts are on the whole so slight that it is possible to present a text of this poem which may be deemed to represent with a fair degree of certainty Chaucer's exact words.

This task has been so successfully accomplished that there can be no question that this edition will supersede all others that have been produced. Room, however, must always be given the critic to cavil, and our first objection to this text is, that it is an expurgated one and in most instances an unnecessarily expurgated one. This is something that the 'Legend of Good Women' does not require. Much has been said in the past about the distressing delicacy of Americans; but if we are to judge from the text-books of English literature prepared in England, the mother country is developing this feeling to a degree which leaves us far behind. There is nothing in this volume quite equal to the famous change made in a line of the Prologue to the 'Canterbury Tales' in the Clarendon Press edition, where "wikked sin" was carefully substituted for "concubyn." But there are some alterations and omissions that approach dangerously near it. There are signs, indeed, from these various text-books that it will soon be regarded as soiling the bloom of manly or maidenly purity to speak of a person as having been born.

But, outside of this, the excellence of the text is so great that it comes upon the reader with a sense of surprise to find so experienced an editor as Professor Skeat stumbling over and actually corrupting the following line:

"Yet hath he mad lewed folk delyte."

This he declares he cannot scan; and, to remedy the defect partially, he inserts a *the* before *lewed* without any authority whatever, but giving as an additional reason that it is helpful to the sense. On the contrary, this emendation perverts the sense. Chaucer does not

mean to say that he has made all "lewed" (that is, all ignorant) people delight—which is the meaning imposed upon the line by the introduction of the definite article—but only that he has made some of them delight. Surely, all difficulty with the scansion can be obviated by substituting for the monosyllabic form of the past participle of *make* the dissyllabic form *maked*. This is not only found frequently in the poet's writings, but occurs in this very work, and, in the original version of the Prologue, occurs in this very line.

Rarely can any exception be taken to the explanations, and it seems, therefore, a somewhat invidious task to point out the one or two places where there has been failure. The source of the word *radevore* remains as much a problem as ever, and Prof. Skeat's suggestion that it might properly be spelled *radenore*, in consequence of a possible derivation from the Greek, is entitled to one of the exclamation points with which he is wont to punctuate the views of others he cannot away with. *Arrest*, too, is very unsatisfactorily explained in the line,

"In noble corage oghte been areste."

It is the more unnecessary as it has been defined rightly by previous editors. The sense of "restraint" which the context requires, is rejected by Prof. Skeat because, he says, it does not exactly appear in Murray's Dictionary. But it has that precise meaning in the passage quoted in that work from the 'Summoner's Tale,' though it is most singularly defined there as "remaining, abiding, continuance."

Let us end up our fault-finding with an expression of dissent from some of the views expressed in the introductory part. There is a good deal said there that would meet with more consideration were it not said so positively. There is displayed at times altogether too much of the knowledge that nobody knows or ever can know. We have had conjecture advanced to the dignity of established fact in times past in discussing the life of Chaucer. Now that it has been pretty effectually cleared away in that quarter, let us refrain from applying the same methods to either the form of his works or to the time of his composition of them.

We should be sorry if anything said in dissent on particular points should be construed into a denial of the great merits of this edition, and in general of its thorough accuracy and excellence. That it will remain the standard one of the 'Legend of Good Women' there is no reason to doubt. That it will attract numerous readers to the poem itself is a result particularly to be hoped. The stories contained in it are not, indeed, representative of Chaucer at his best. He himself plainly grew tired of the work before he had half finished it, and he takes pains to let us know that he had done so. But the Prologue will always remain one of the most interesting and characteristic of his productions. In its two forms it is here presented to the reader, who can have thereby an opportunity to study the varying treatment by the author of the same subject at different times. Now that we have it, through the careful and conscientious editing of Prof. Skeat, essentially if not precisely as it came from the hands of the poet himself, and with all difficulties in the way of its fullest comprehension removed, it may well become a source of constant pleasure to even a far wider circle of readers than it has hitherto been its fortune to have.

Aspects of the Earth. By N. S. Shaler, Professor of Geology in Harvard University. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1889.

THERE is probably no American geologist at the present day who is more successful in presenting the facts of geology in a popularly comprehensible and attractive form, and at the same time keeping himself within the bounds of scientific accuracy, than Prof. Shaler. As a rule, the men who write most readily on popular science are those who have a somewhat superficial knowledge of their subject. They are not troubled with doubts as to the soundness of any particular theory or explanation of natural phenomena, but accept those found in current scientific literature without a question, provided they suit the course of reasoning they are following. Among those, however, who have so completely mastered what is known about a science that they are unwilling to accept the explanations given in text-books until they have personally tested their truth—that is, among what may be called original investigators—the number is now very small, and will constantly become smaller, of those who are qualified to write upon their own specialties for a popular audience. In the first place, it is extremely difficult for them to put themselves on the same intellectual plane with their audience—to gauge it correctly; and, secondly, in a science like geology, in which investigation is constantly modifying and controverting currently accepted theories, they are unwilling to present their explanations in the calm tone of unqualified conviction which is necessary to hold the attention of that audience, and are too apt to weary them with subtle doubts and alternative views beyond their comprehension.

To those who are familiar with the multiplicity of Prof. Shaler's scientific occupations, as Professor of Geology at Harvard College and as member of the United States Geological Survey, it is a matter of wonder that he is able to write *ex cathedra* upon such a variety of scientific subjects and at the same time make so few mistakes. It is rare that the self-confidence and versatility of mind which are necessary qualifications for such work do not, sooner or later, lead its author into some serious scientific error.

In his title to the present work Prof. Shaler was more happy than original. It is an almost literal translation of 'Der Anlitz der Erde,' by Prof. Ed. Suess of Vienna, a monumental work, giving a fundamental and exhaustive discussion of the geological structure of the earth, which, after the German method, has been appearing in parts since 1885, and is not yet completed. The American volume consists of a series of essays upon what might be considered physical geography, rather than geology in the stricter sense of the term, and is well described by the sub-title—"A popular account of some familiar geological phenomena." The greater part of it has already appeared in the form of illustrated articles in *Scribner's Magazine*. To Prof. Shaler's charming style has been added the beauty of large, clear type, heavy paper, and abundant and excellent illustrations. Among them may be recognized many of Bourne & Shepherd's remarkable photographic views of the Himalayas, probably the most perfect mountain pictures the world has ever seen, though they must have been taken over twenty years since. They are not always given a distinct local title, but are used to illustrate some process of nature which the author is describing.

Prof. Shaler's presentation of facts is always interesting, and his manner of accounting for them not infrequently possesses an originality and boldness of conception that would startle a geologist of the more cautious and plodding type. For instance, in his first chapter, on the "Stability of the Earth," he discusses the relative susceptibility to earthquake shocks of various portions of our continent, and, reasoning that since perched boulders or pinnacled rocks would probably have been thrown from their pedestals by a violent shock, their presence in any region must afford evidence that that region has been free from them in the past and may hence be assumed to be without danger from them in the future, he proceeds on this basis to define geographically those regions that may be considered exempt from danger of serious earthquakes. While some might question the stability of his premises, the practical conclusions which he draws, as to the necessity of greater care in guarding against the dangers which the character of much of our modern architecture subjects us to, are most pertinent and forcible. It is beyond the power of the imagination to conceive of the horrors that would be produced in New York city, for instance, by an earthquake shock, even of the comparatively moderate type that recently affected the region round Charleston, S. C.

One of the most interesting chapters is that on "Caverns and Cavern Life," and of the great limestone caverns of the States east of the Mississippi his experience enables Prof. Shaler to speak with great authority; but his views with regard to the probable existence in the Rocky Mountain region of great deposits of ore in caves that have been hollowed out of limestone, will hardly meet with universal acceptance among those who have carefully studied that region. In recounting the remarkable caverns that are left in lava flows by the congealing of the outer crust while the fused interior still flows on, he has neglected to mention the singular caves of this nature on the north side of the Columbia River, near Mount Adams, which serve as natural ice reservoirs, and from which, years ago, before the Alaskan ice trade was established, ice was obtained for the San Francisco market.

The chapter on "Rivers and Valleys" contains, besides its admirable description of their manner of formation, many practical hints of value to the general public, and speaks approvingly of Maj. J. W. Powell's scheme of establishing storage reservoirs in the arid region of the West, without, however, endorsing his theory that the destruction of forests produces no harmful effects on the rainfall of the country. On the contrary, Prof. Shaler agrees with the majority of geologists and physical geographers in considering these effects so destructive that some Government regulation of forests is necessary to avert the widespread disasters which must, sooner or later, result from the gradual removal now going on over vast areas. The chapter on the "Forests of North America" is one of the ablest presentments of this important subject that have yet been written.

The book closes with an interesting account of the geological origin and nature of soils, in which are pointed out some of the wasteful effects of tillage, which, combined with those resulting from the removal of forests, are slowly tending towards the destruction of the fertile soil-covering that nature provided for our continent before the advent of the white man.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, Prof. A. A Theory of Conduct. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.
Bentzon, Th. Tentée. 2d ed. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern.
Birney, Gen. W. James G. Birney and his Times. D. Appleton & Co. $2.
Blanchard, E. B. The Devil's Dream: A Temperance Story. Funk & Wagnalls. 75 cents.
Blyth, E. K. Life of William Ellis. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.
Caylor, O. P. A Fated Promise. G. W. Dillingham.

Crawfurd, O. Sylvia Arden. Frank F. Lovell & Co.
Daintrey, Laura. Fedor. Empire City Pub. Co.
Du Boisgobey, F. Lover or Blackmailer? Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Dumas, A. The Count of Beuzeval. G. W. Dillingham.
Evolution: Popular Lectures and Discussions before the Brooklyn Ethical Association. Boston: James H. West. $2.
Ford, W. C. Writings of George Washington. Vol. V. 1776–1777. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
Gardiner, S. R. The Constitutional Documents of the Puritan Revolution. 1628–1660. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Hake, A. E., and Wessiau, O. E. Free Trade in Capital. London: Remington & Co.; New York: D. Appleton & Co. $6.
Hoppus, M. A. M. The Locket: A Tale of Old Guernsey. 2 vols. London: Richard Bentley & Son.
Keltie, J. S. The Story of Emin's Rescue as Told in Stanley's Letters. Harper & Bros.
Littell's Living Age. 5th series. Vol. 68. Boston: Littell & Co.
Loti, P. An Iceland Fisherman. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Maitland, E. The Pilgrim and the Shrine. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Milford, P. Ned Stafford's Experience in the United States. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Moorehead, W. K. Fort Ancient: the Great Prehistoric Earthwork of Warren Co., O. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $2.
Nordau, M. Parisian Sketches. Part I. Chicago: L. Schick. 50 cents.
Powell, E. P. Liberty and Life: Discourses. Chicago: Chas. H. Kerr & Co. 75 cents.
Schaff, Rev. P. Creed Revision in the Presbyterian Churches. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 50 cents.
Seeley, L. B. Fanny Burney and her Friends. Scribner & Welford. $2.50.

Fine Arts.

KRUELL'S PORTRAITS.

At the last monthly meeting of the Century Club much interest was excited among the large number of members and guests present by Mr. Gustav Kruell's portraits of Darwin, William Lloyd Garrison, and Wendell Phillips, which were exhibited under such favorable conditions as allowed of close examination and study. Admiration for these representations of three remarkable men was surpassed by wonder as to how they were done, although on the card containing the title of each subject was plainly written "wood engraving." One thoroughly conversant with the admirable result and the stages by which it has been reached, feels some hesitancy in determining whether this should be classed as the product of a new art or simply as the old art of Bewick. If we review Mr. Kruell's progress, we shall find that his experimental steps—when the helping hand is so needful—betray the influence of the early inspirer of American wood-engravers, W. J. Linton. This was the apostolic succession of Bewick's "white line," and to this choice of example we undoubtedly owe the freedom which marks Mr. Kruell's study, as well as the exact art culture by which it has been urged. A thorough knowledge of drawing, and possibly painting, he must have possessed to have enabled him to use Linton's free treatment without losing his own identity. A portrait of Fletcher Harper, which created a stir in its day, carries us back to the time when marks of this discipleship were distinct. Here we observe the virile touch, the fluent "pure line," the general gray tone, qualified by dark shadows and courageous clips of white. These are the thumb-marks of Linton. From this point the follower gradually relinquishes the master's hand, walks alone, year by year growing in independence, daring to lay out new ways for himself, subduing his method to the utmost simplicity, concentrating more and more his attention upon portraiture, as affording elbow-room for artistic enlargement untrammelled by any other personality than his own—the whole progress vivified by the energy of enthusiasm which has helped carry his wood engraving beyond the limits of illustration into acknowledged relationship with the fine arts.

These four portraits (there are two of Darwin, a younger and an elder) are printed on a hand-press and on Japan paper. To the casual observer they appear like etchings, but examination shows them to be refined engravings, printed on translucent paper, through which the light partially shining, a shadow is thrown upon the "mount" from the engraving itself, contributing a delicious overtone, more subtile and delicate than that produced by re-inking as in etching.

Mr. Kruell's work, although diversified by all the varieties of method by which textures are created and modulations obtained, discloses other traits not so conspicuous in engraver's work. Here is perfect drawing, strong modelling, nice discrimination in textures, composition such as illumines the subject, unity that relates everything—background and drapery—to the completeness of the portrait, a sweep and largeness of treatment which hides the difficulty and labor of production, and, beyond all, a deep knowledge of, and sympathy with, the motive that quickened the life of the subject. No shade or line or wrinkle, no ascertained peculiarity of attitude or attire, but is made to contribute its full value toward setting forth the manner and soul of the man.

Look at the portraits of Darwin. In the first he appears a robust man of forty-five; the strong material of his coat, with deep wrinkles, his high shirt-collar, ample plaid neckcloth, and checked waistcoat, denoting an interest in the world's affairs and activity out of doors. The chiaroscuro has the wide range from black to white, the least possible note on these extremes, and without a hint of crudeness; the textures, the color of flesh, light-brown hair and sandy whiskers, are exquisitely felt; Darwin's large head, which easily lends itself to grotesque exaggeration, is here saved from disproportion by slightly composing the forehead with the background, the drawing depending mostly upon the shadows of the beetling brows, through which the searching eyes look out. No thought of technique or even art obtrudes itself; we contemplate with deep interest the broad, kind features of the childlike great man, and own the benign influence of the related character.

The other picture represents Darwin at seventy-two, and is taken out of doors. He wears a soft felt hat and dark circular cloak, and leans against a tree that runs up the side of the picture, with small attempt at composition, by which the effect of weariness is heightened. The face is in almost a three-quarters view, quite colorless, the beard and hair showing light in comparison. In contrast to the other, the treatment is here tender, gentle, intensely sympathetic; the line, when we examine it, is smaller, more simple and uniform; the face is not sad, but resigned; the eye no longer inquires, but answers with a look of patient waiting. We feel that his work is done; the light of it has faded from his countenance, and he abides the end. The chiaroscuro is here used to excellent descriptive effect.

In William Lloyd Garrison—a man "whom," said Darwin, "I honor from the bottom of my soul"—we have another strong subject, strongly placed and well related in tone values. Here, too, is ruggedness in treatment, just to the degree demanded by the character; and here, too, the work is done and the end near. The eyes are lit by the benevolence which animated the fight, and almost break into smiles—a battlement in peace time overgrown with flowers.

On the other hand, Wendell Phillips, the Damascus blade of the anti-slavery ranks, polished in dress and deportment, is not only so set forth as a portrait, but is so expressed in Mr. Kruell's technique. While each of these pictures, in its way and in accordance with its subject, is a masterpiece, this last one is preeminently a masterpiece as catching the elegance and refinement of the silver-tongued speaker. By a happy accident of the original photograph, the characteristic pose and glance exactly match Lowell's description of Phillips in 1846:

> "There, with one hand behind his back,
> Stands Phillips buttoned in a sack,
> Our Attic orator, our Chatham;
> Old fogies, when he lightens at 'em,
> Shrivel like leaves."

The qualities we have here attempted to set forth, the evidences of broad culture, the command of the given means, are such as we seek in the best painters' work, and until such art has become more widely known and has been awarded its special place, it is by painters' work that its standing must be determined. Certainly we may look in vain among other graphic arts for anything comparable with these portraits. Elsewhere a manner interposes between our intelligence and the object portrayed; exquisite lines demand admiration, inane scratches pique curiosity, or opaque tones limit our interest. But here we dwell upon the intelligences represented, without thought of the mode of production; we look upon absolutely human faces and into human eyes.

Shoulder to shoulder, in this development, with the artist of whom we write, are an increasing phalanx, now represented by Kingsley and Closson in landscape, French and Miss Powell in figures, all moved by one spirit, in their various ways, to set forth Bewick's art in this new field, where, urged by the momentum of a hundred years' experience, strengthened and refined by improvements in printing and material, with the "Japan proof" added, it must continue to grow and multiply testimonials to its excellence such as shall make for it its own host of admirers. This is the necessity of each new art expression, and there is no reason to fear the result as regards this one.

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Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1889.....		1,386,134 87
Total Marine Premiums.....		$5,502,764 27
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1889, to 31st December, 1889.....		$4,144,943 13
Losses paid during the same period.....	$2,553,606 44	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses.....	$705,937 75	

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[illegible]mium Notes and Bills Receivable....	1,452,990 24
[illegible] Bank.....	271,871 00
Amount.....	$12,107,576 24

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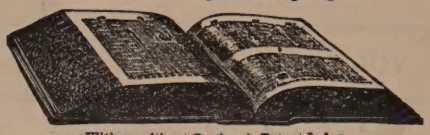

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 30, 1890.

The Week.

THE McKinley Administrative Customs Bill, which passed the House on Saturday, is, we think, the wickedest measure that has passed that body since the Fugitive Slave Law. Like that act, it abolishes trial by jury. It goes one step further, for it takes away the citizen's right to any kind of trial in a court of law on a question of fact respecting the disposition of his property. When this measure, or one substantially like it, was before the Senate on the 18th of March, 1888, Senator Edmunds of Vermont offered an amendment giving the importer the right of appeal to the Circuit Court of the United States, and upon this motion he said:

"I must ask the indulgence of the Senate for a moment, because the amendments which I have proposed to this section are, in my opinion, extremely vital and important to its being made capable of standing the test of any kind of constitutional validity.

"As the section now stands, the decision of the appraisers as to the identity of the goods, whether falling under one section of the law or another, or whether the law they apply to them has been repealed or not, is absolutely final. Their decision as respects the *value* of the property, which is within their jurisdiction as appraisers, *may be made final.* We all understand that. But I have never yet heard of a law, or of a court that upheld a law of any such nature, that authorized any executive officer *to possess really the whole taxing power of the country*, which the Constitution imposes on Congress. Congress must select the objects of taxation and describe them. The executive must execute that act of Congress upon the things described and not upon something else. When they have found the things described, then the law-making department may repose in them the final judgment as to *how much they are worth*, and then the law places the rate to be affixed to that valuation.

"Now, this section as it stands, I say, leaves to the final decision of the appraisers every question of fact concerning the goods submitted to them, whether they fall under one law or another law; whether they are, for instance, silks or woollens; whether they are cottons or leather. . . . You have got, therefore, as I suppose, a 'case,' in the language of the Constitution, in a court of justice of original jurisdiction, in which that court has no jurisdiction whatever over any question of fact whatever—which is ridiculous and absurd. There cannot be a case pending, a controversy, in a court of original jurisdiction, without one party, or the other, or both parties being entitled to prove the grounds upon which they invoke the intervention of the court and its judgment on the facts as they may be found."

This bill is fraught with more damage to the commerce and prosperity of New York than any other that has been before Congress in twenty-five years. Yet it was a Senator from New York (Mr. Hiscock) who undertook to answer Mr. Edmunds, by saying that the appraisers never would decide that woollens were silks, or that cottons were leather, and that therefore no wrong would be done and no constitutional guarantee would be infringed. To him Mr. Edmunds replied in these words:

"It is always interesting to hear Senators who have their hearts set on accomplishing a given purpose intimate that they do not care so much about the Constitution, and express the hope and belief that the Constitution will never be found to stand in the way of doing anything that they believe to be for the public good, and that no court can be got to so interpret that Constitution or a law as to deprive the sweet will of the people, expressed through constitutional channels, of the power of doing exactly what they want to do. That is not my way of reading the Constitution."

The bill is a measure to put the importing business in the category of crimes, and then to deprive the importer of the protection of the judicial tribunals of the country. Tariff legislation has got into such a snarl by reason of the quarrels of the protected classes among themselves, that it is very doubtful whether any duties can be augmented. But if new difficulties can be put in the way of the importer, that will answer the purpose. Moreover, if the decisions of courts can be eliminated from customs administration, it will be easier to carry out the new policy of increasing duties by Treasury decision, as was done in the worsted case and in the hat-trimmings case. And this wicked and unconstitutional measure is passed at the very time when we are protesting against the exclusion of our pork from Germany and France by their Treasury decisions. What shall we have to say if they in turn adopt the McKinley bill, and rule out everything that we have to sell by the neat device of appraising boards from whom no appeal can be taken?

The subsidy-beggars were on hand at Washington last week, and all of them had much complaint to make about "tramp steamers." A tramp steamer is any steamer not running at regular and stated periods on a particular line, but taking cargo wherever it is offered. All, or nearly all, sailing vessels accordingly are tramps, since they habitually take cargo where it is offered, carry it to its destination, and then pick up another and carry that, and then another, and so they go on tramping around the world. Really any steamer is a tramp that is competing with *us*. If we can give him a bad name, and create a prejudice against him, so much the better. If we can liken him to a footpad who goes through the country doing no work, sleeping in barns, robbing henroosts, and frightening the farmers' wives, we may induce ignorant people who are poorer than ourselves, to contribute something out of their taxes to help us to compete with the tramp. Reflecting people will, perhaps, be able to discern a slight inconsistency in the argument which begins by asking subsidies to furnish facilities for ocean commerce, and ends by complaining that we have too many facilities now. Tramp steamers are odious for the very reason that they furnish these facilities. Another inconsistency may be detected in the ingenuous statement of Mr. J. M. Lachlan, of the Brazil Line, that his company has not made a cent during the entire period of its existence, but that it has refused $43,000 tendered to it for carrying the United States mails during that time. A company that throws $43,000 over its shoulder ought not to appear before Congress *in forma pauperis.*

Every man who goes to Washington to get himself billeted on the taxpayers has a neat demonstration in his pocket to show that what he wants will not cost the people of the United States more than two or three cents per head, and that therefore his demand is quite reasonable. Even the Sugar Trust are prepared to show that the duty on refined sugar is a mere flea-bite to each person, and not worth making a fuss about. And now come the quinine-manufacturers, or the *Tariff League Bulletin* for them, showing in the last number of that paper that a duty of 20 per cent. on quinine would be only a trifle to each person in the United States, supposing them all to have chills once a year. "Few sick persons," it says, "take so much as one ounce avoirdupois of quinine, while the average for the whole population is only 28 3-10 grains; even if an ounce of quinine were taken at a cost of 31½ cents, and the sick man paid a duty of 20 per cent., it would be only 6 3-10 cents." The argument made by the high-tariff organ in favor of a reënactment of the "blood tax" is not very hearty. Indeed, it reads like the appeal of those Italian beggars (in the good old times of Pius IX., of blessed memory) who used to assail all persons indiscriminately at the doors of churches, simply in the way of business, offering to show the most attractive sores and the most engaging deformities on the chance of there being somebody in the crowd who did not understand the game. The organ may as well spare its breath. The blood tax will not be reënacted even at the low cost of 6 3-10 cents for every victim of the grip.

The brutality which the spoils system engenders among its advocates, upon which we have so often commented, finds a fresh and striking illustration in the latest attack upon the Civil-Service Commission. The efforts by which the spoilsmen endeavored to prevent an honest and faithful man from getting employment, though he had been in the public service for twenty years, and had a family dependent upon him for support, were worthy of savages. The man's only offence had been that he had, under official compulsion, given evidence that his superior officer was unfaithful to his public trust. The final attempt of his pursuers to bring discredit upon the Commission for their manly course in getting employment for him, has led to an exposure of the whole case, which is a valuable object-lesson in politics.

The report which Mr. Roosevelt has made, to his associates on the Civil-Service Commission, of his inquiry into the conduct of the officials of the New York Custom-house in regard to political contributions during the last Presidential campaign, is a very interesting document. He found that in the

Naval Office, under Col. Burt, the law prohibiting political assessments "was observed absolutely, both in letter and in spirit"; that, so far as he could find out, "there were no collections made for political purposes in any shape or form, and nothing like political coercion was tolerated; each employee was left entirely free to contribute to whichever political party he desired, or not to contribute at all if he did not wish to. In other words, the subordinates were treated as American citizens ought to be; they were required to do their full duty to the Government, and, this done, were left free to exercise their own judgment in political matters." In the Collector's office, under Mr. Magone, there were indirect and apparently general efforts made to evade the law, but not always successfully. There was no coercion, and no evidence that the Collector had knowledge of what was going on. In the Surveyor's office, under Mr. Beattie, contributions were universally levied, and with coercion upon Republican clerks, if not with the knowledge of Mr. Beattie, at least without interference on his part. "Such widespread and far-reaching evasion and violation of the law," concludes Mr. Roosevelt, "speaks but ill for the vigilance of those whose duty it was to see it enforced. The contrast in this respect between the Surveyor's office under Mr. Beattie and the Naval Office under Mr. Burt reflects credit on the latter and does not reflect credit on the former." Yet President Harrison, solemnly pledged not only to uphold the Civil-Service Law, but to regard "only the interests of the public service" in making removals, removed Col. Burt without even ordinary courtesy, though he had spent a lifetime in the public service, and he gave his place to a politician as a reward for political activity.

The absurdity of Senator Blair's plea for Federal aid to education in the South on the ground that the South expends only $1 per capita upon schools to $3 at the North, is shown by the fact that Vermont does not expend one-third as much for each child of school age as Massachusetts, because of the differences in the cost of systems between a State with but two places having over 10,000 inhabitants and a State where the greater part of the people live in cities and large towns. It only remains to show, as the report of the Commissioner of Education just issued enables us to do, that there are Southern States which already expend as much proportionately as the Northern States with which they should be compared. Mr. Blair's own State of New Hampshire had 346,991 people by the last census, and Florida 269,493. New Hampshire's school expenditure in 1888 was $686,491. A corresponding ratio for Florida would have been about $525,000, and the actual expenditure was $484,110, the difference being more than accounted for by the fact that New Hampshire has three times as many cities and large towns as Florida. Maine has 648,936 people, and West Virginia 618,457. Maine's expenditure was $1,238,898, and West Virginia's $1,234,578, a slightly larger ratio for the Southern State. Vermont has 332,286 inhabitants and Texas 1,591,749, or a little more than four and a half times as many. Vermont's expenditure was $650,392, and that of Texas $2,778,172, or nearly four and a half times as much. In other words, a number of the Southern States already expend as much proportionately upon schools as do Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont, and the rest of them are rapidly attaining the same level. One might as well, therefore, talk of Federal aid to New England as to the South.

Mr. Saxton has consented to three amendments of his ballot bill, all of which are in the nature of concessions to Democratic demands. The first provides for grouping the names of all candidates by parties, rather than by offices, the names of each party's nominees to be placed in a separate column, with the party title at the head. By the side of these parallel columns there is to be left a blank column in which any voter may write or paste the names of candidates for whom he wishes to vote. The second amendment provides that the voter shall erase the names of all candidates upon the ballot save those for whom he wishes to vote. For some inscrutable reason there are Democrats who think this method more "constitutional" than that of marking with an X the names of the voter's choice. It seems to us much more likely to cause delay and confusion, for, in the hands of an illiterate voter, the erasure of a lot of names in several closely printed columns is a far more difficult task than the simple marking of a portion of the names with a cross. The third amendment provides for the issuing of a blank ballot, one column wide, in cases where no nominations have been made, upon which voters may write or paste such names as they choose.

The first of these amendments is the one which will excite most discussion, and it will call forth some adverse comments from the friends and advocates of the reform. Under the Australian system the names of the candidates are placed in alphabetical order, under each office, and this method is followed in the English and Canadian systems and in the new laws of Massachusetts, Montana, Minnesota, Rhode Island, Wisconsin, Tennessee, and Kentucky, the politics of each candidate being indicated after his name. Under the Belgian system, which was an outgrowth of the Australian system, and was adopted in 1877, after the latter had been tried with such complete success in England, the names of candidates are grouped by parties, and this method is prescribed in the Indiana and Missouri laws. The objection to it is that it is in the interest of strict party voting, thus acting as a check upon complete independence of action by the voter in marking his ballot. There is undoubtedly force in this objection.

There is a curious outbreak of zeal in both houses of the Legislature in favor of appointing women as deputy factory inspectors. Four bills upon the subject have already appeared, two in the Senate and two in the Assembly. The most elaborate and in many respects the most objectionable of the series is fathered by Senator Fassett. This bill furnishes a striking illustration of cumulative folly in legislation. In 1886 a law was passed to regulate the employment of women and children in manufacturing establishments; and to execute the provisions of this law the Governor was authorized to appoint a Factory Inspector, at a salary of $2,000 a year. This Inspector was to be allowed one assistant at a salary of $1,500 a year, and these two were to be the sole executors of the law, and were allowed only $2,500 a year for expenses. In 1887 an amendment was added giving the Factory Inspector power to appoint eight deputy inspectors, at a salary of $1,000 each. Last year a bill supported by Senator Fassett was passed authorizing the appointment of six deputy female inspectors, but for some reason the power to appoint them was conferred upon the Governor instead of upon the Factory Inspector. When the bill reached the Governor, it was discovered to be defective, either because of a clerical error or otherwise, for while it gave the Governor the power to appoint, it left the power of removal with the Inspector. The Governor, therefore, vetoed it.

Senator Fassett's present bill provides for the appointment by the Governor of eight deputy female inspectors, at a salary of $1,000 a year, and gives him the power of removal also on charges preferred by the Inspector. Why the power of appointment and removal should be changed from the Inspector to the Governor is the most inexplicable feature of this bill. The same section which gives this power to the Governor in reference to the women deputies leaves it with the Inspector in reference to the men deputies. What reason is there for giving it to the Governor in either case? The Inspector is the superior officer of the deputies and must be held to account for their conduct. If he cannot be trusted to make suitable appointments, he should be removed from the office, but so long as he is allowed to remain, there can be no excuse for taking such a power as this from him. Another objectionable feature of Mr. Fassett's bill is the extension of the scope of the law to "mercantile establishments," giving the Inspector and his deputies jurisdiction over "any place where goods, wares, and merchandise are offered for sale and wherever five or more persons are employed." The possibilities for pernicious meddling and "strikes" thus opened would be boundless and intolerable. There would be a call for even a larger number of deputies than is now demanded in a bill which Mr. Brown has introduced in the Senate and Mr. Duffy in the Assembly, which provides for twenty-eight deputies, ten of whom shall be women, and all at a salary of $1,000 a year. This is simply a proposal to add $20,000 to the salary list of the Inspector's force. Nothing like such an increase is needed.

The editor of the *Times* pronounces the Fair Bill constitutional. "We have not the least doubt," he says, "that the proposed measure is entirely constitutional, and really in no need of defence on that ground, and that it would be so held by any judicial tribunal." Now, this would be entirely satisfactory if it were not that his decisions have been frequently reversed by the courts of this State. It is true he has also frequently reversed theirs, but they have control of the Sheriff and the militia, and can, therefore, get their judgments executed, which he cannot. Hence the public is quite justified in remaining in a state of suspense about the matter. Indeed, he admits that the case is "something exceptional," so that his previous rulings will not cover it. We, therefore, take the liberty of submitting to him this view, for which we ask his patient consideration: If there were no doubt about the constitutionality of municipal assistance to an international fair, the city could sell bonds and give the proceeds in cash to the Commission to spend as might be necessary, could it not? It is because there is doubt, that the expedient of buying lands for park purposes and then giving the use of the land to the Fair, has been resorted to. But everybody knows that the city does not need any additions to its parks. It has more parks now than it can lay out and keep in order. Therefore the purchase of park lands is an undisguised pretence or subterfuge. What the courts will be asked to decide is, whether the Constitutional restrictions can be got rid of by pretence or subterfuge, because if they can they are worthless, and need further amendment. Many good lawyers think they cannot, and the question will be tested shortly. It will require great courage in any judge to do his duty in the matter, especially if he should be asked for an injunction, for he will certainly be bombarded with abuse, and denounced as that vile thing, "an enemy of the Fair"; besides being a Judas and a Benedict Arnold.

A meeting of the Woman's Educational and Industrial Union of Buffalo was held a few days ago to promote the passage by the Legislature of a bill requiring the employment of at least one educated woman physician in each State institution for the insane, where insane women are received for treatment. The State has given legal sanction to the practice of medicine by women, and public opinion fully approves this policy. The question here presented is not whether women are entitled to employment in the State hospitals, but whether women patients are entitled to treatment at the hands of their own sex, under the supervision which the law establishes for the care of the institutions. We do not see how two opinions can be held on this subject, and it appears that in nine States where the experiment has been made the opinion is pretty nearly unanimous that the woman physicians should be employed in such institutions. A woman physician has been employed in the Willard Asylum in this State during the past five years, at the instance of the Superintendent, who writes in terms of high approval of the practice. A woman physician has been in charge of the female department of the Norristown, Pa., Hospital for the Insane during ten years, having one thousand women under her care. We can hardly doubt that the bill will be favorably considered by the Legislature. After it shall have gone into effect, the public will wonder why any different system ever prevailed.

The Samoan treaty was published several days ago, and has attracted considerable attention in Germany and England, but scarcely any in this country. The reason is, that Germany and England have more interests in Samoa than we have, although theirs are not great, because the islands themselves are of trifling importance except as stations or stopping-places in the South Pacific. We have little need of stopping-places there because we have scarcely any shipping. This is proved by the fact that, although we have had the right to establish a coaling-station there for fifteen years, we never thought of availing ourselves of it until we got into a row with Germany there. What the row was about not more than half-a-dozen people can now tell. Not even the bumptious editors who fought so valiantly for our rights last year can tell without referring to their files, and if they were to do that, nobody would read the stuff now. The influenza microbe can "give points" to Samoa as a matter of popular interest in this country, if not in Germany as well. Very likely Bismarck is as glad to "get out" as we are. The cable reports that public opinion in Berlin considers the treaty a "German retreat." We hope that this phrase does not imply an American advance.

The New York *Times's* London correspondent is determined to have the Bank of England issue £1 notes payable in silver, whether it is authorized by Parliament to do so or not. His reason is, not that he has any particular views on the subject of bimetallism, or on the convenience of small notes for purposes of retail trade, but because he was the first one to make the announcement. As a good journalist he is bound to see the thing through. Although everybody else is waiting for Parliament to amend the bank charter, he is for acting at once. There is nothing like consistency. If you have said that the moon is made of green cheese, always stick to it. That England will issue £1 notes before long is highly probable. That they should be silver notes of full legal tender is next to impossible. The recent advance in the price of silver in London is due solely to an increased demand for remittances to India.

The famous Danish Minister, M. Estrup, has dissolved the Folkething, or Chamber, a month before the legal limit in order to be able to discuss the budget with a new Legislature, before the beginning of the financial year, April 1. M. Estrup occupies a position such as no minister in a parliamentary country has ever occupied before. He has for fifteen years held his place against a majority in five successive Chambers, each of which has refused to vote his budget, but he has gone on and collected the taxes and spent them just the same, having the King and the army at his back. This extraordinary state of things is due to the fact that the voters always send up large Radical majorities, while the Court is rigidly Conservative, and insists on keeping a Conservative Ministry in power, and relies on the popular attachment to the royal family to prevent any open resistance to the unconstitutional régime. The majority would, it is well known, make short work of the army and navy, and many of the more expensive offices of State, and probably cut down the civil list of the Crown. That M. Estrup expects the new Chamber to be much more tractable than the present one, is hardly probable, but, like most men in trouble, he thinks any change may be in some degree for the better.

The Spanish Ministerial crisis appears to have been partly manipulated and partly natural. Sagasta is the shrewdest politician that Spain has known in many a day. He was nothing loath to secure a reorganization of his Cabinet, and the easiest way to bring this about was to have all the Ministers resign and give him a clean slate. There can be no doubt, either, that he was sincerely desirous of placating the powerful dissident factions of his own party by giving them representation in the Cabinet, and that their obstinate insistence on their own terms was a real disappointment to him. Then came the pretence of withdrawing his own personality, and the attempt of Señor Martinez, President of the Chamber of Deputies, a very respectable and inoffensive Liberal, to form a Ministry. This was predestined to failure, and was probably meant only as a sort of object-lesson to the recalcitrant Liberals, to show them that if Sagasta could not lead, no one could. All this, with the subsequent prompt success in forming a Cabinet as soon as this formality was out of the way, and the Queen had asked Sagasta again to try his hand at it, betrays the deftness of the political manager. But there are also fixed elements in the situation which play their part in these changes, and which foretoken the speedy failure of the new Cabinet. The Liberal majority cannot be counted upon for the most important measures to come before the Cortes—the budget and the bill for universal suffrage. These Government projects will probably not be killed outright so much as indefinitely postponed. Yet Cánovas and the Conservatives can do nothing with the present Chamber, and, as Sagasta cannot manage it, everything points to a vote of temporary credit, the dissolution of the Cortes, and a new election, which will be contested on the main issues now before the country, and which will yield a positive and working majority on one side or the other.

M'KINLEY'S BRUTAL BILL.

From the beginning of our Federal Government under the Constitution down to the repeal, in 1874, of the customs moiety laws and the extermination of custom-house spies and informers, an intentional undervaluation in even one line or one item of an invoice—though the fraud infected not more than five dollars' worth of merchandise—involved a confiscation of the *whole* invoice, even if of $1,000 or $50,000 in value, provided the payment of tax-money required by law was thereby evaded. The law of 1874, pushed forward by Bayard and Casserly, declared the forfeiture should only cover the articles tainted by the fraud. The old law of 1863 denounced, be it remembered, an undervaluation proved to have been "knowingly" made. But the proposed Treasury-McKinley bill to "*simplify*" the collection of taxes on imported merchandise declares, in its seventh section, that on consigned goods (never sold or bought, and therefore having no value fixed by selling and buying) the person making entry shall not, on his entry paper, add to the invoice value in order to make dutiable value. Why not? The importer of *purchased* goods can make such addition if he has reason to suspect that the Appraiser will report a dutiable value greater than the invoice value. Is it to stop consignments to our ports by foreign manufacturers? Why endeavor to do that?

The McKinley bill then declares that, if the appraised value (which is the dutiable value) shall exceed the invoice value more than 20 per cent.—that is, if the consignor and appraiser differ by that percentage—"such entry may be held to be presumptively fraudulent, and the Collector may seize such merchandise" (a legislative hint to seize), and, on trial in court, the forfeiture *shall* be adjudged unless the claimant "shall rebut such presumption by sufficient evidence." Bear in mind that the 20 per cent. difference is not only to be taken as presumptive evidence that the maker of the invoice told a falsehood therein, but that the falsehood was uttered knowingly, intentionally, and with a guilty purpose to cheat the Government.

But that is not all: the forfeiture is, by Mr. McKinley, made to cover the *whole* of the merchandise in the package in which is the infected article. Worse even than all that: the importer cannot enter his merchandise, valued (we will assume) at $10,000, without paying, let us say, 60 per cent. tax, or $6,000. If appraised at 20 per cent. more than $10,000, he must then pay as regular tax $7,200, together with a penalty of $2,400, making $9,600 as tax, and then lose *all* his merchandise besides. The customs tax becomes, on entry of the merchandise, a personal debt to the United States, which the importer can be made to pay by suit, whether or not his merchandise is confiscated. The regular tax, the penalty tax, and the confiscation are each made cumulative by this McKinley plan to collect protective taxes.

Even more monstrous is the ninth section of this McKinley bill, which declares that if anybody shall make, or attempt, an entry by a *false* paper, or a *false* statement, or any *false* practice, then all that is in the package, or its value, *shall* be confiscated. The court has no discretion. It is not even clear, from the Treasury-McKinley language, that an attempted evasion of a tax need be proved by the Government. Certainly no proof of actual *intention* to defraud is necessary. It will be enough if the paper, or statement, or practice be merely false in *law*. The real although concealed purpose seems to be a sly repeal of an important part of the sixteenth section of the law of June 22, 1874, which compels the court to require the jury to find whether or not the falsehood alleged was "with an *actual intention* to defraud the United States." That section was enacted to put a stop to confiscations on what lawyers call "presumptive knowledge" by an importer that he did something false. Mr. McKinley endeavors to condemn an importer to State prison, with a forfeiture of his property, if he declares a falsehood in his invoice, or at a custom-house; and Mr. McKinley's language implies that an executive decision or opinion that a falsehood has been declared, is, by the device of presumptions, to control the judicial power. He uses the phrase "presumptively fraudulent." He applies it to an invoice value less by 20 per cent. than an appraiser's valuation.

Fraud should contain, as we think, three ingredients, which are deceit, actual intention to deceive, and an injury by that deceit. It should exclude mere ignorance and negligence and an honest difference of opinion. But Mr. McKinley condemns the maker of an invoice as guilty of a "presumptive" fraud on the customs revenue if the value declared in the invoice is less, by more than 20 per cent., than the value which an appraiser says is dutiable value. It would be much the same if he were to introduce a bill to eliminate intention to defraud from a definition of the alleged Silcott forgeries, and the crime on which Silcott's extradition is to be asked. What he really endeavors by his bill to punish by imprisonment and confiscation is an insertion in an invoice of a value less by 20 per cent. than another and a different value, which is dutiable value, or appraised value, even although the invoice was made abroad in perfect good faith. The motive is to deter a foreign manufacturer from sending to this country, on consignment, things which people wish to buy. Mr. McKinley carries his deterrent legislation, in the interest of "protection," so far that he puts importers of such consigned goods outside of the pale of humanity.

MORE MUTINY AMONG THE PROTECTIONISTS.

It must be with feelings of profound gloom, if not of complete despair, that sincere protectionists contemplate the growing movement among Republicans for free raw materials. The proper way to deal with the malcontent element of course would be to read it out of the party, but, as this would unfortunately result in driving the party from power, it cannot be safely followed. In fact, it has become necessary to resort to the humiliating step of imploring those who are experiencing an eclipse of faith to adhere to the old standards, for fear that the "American system," the product of so much careful calculation and the theme of so much eloquence, may suffer an entire collapse. Yet even here the difficulties seem almost insuperable, for the disaffected are disposed to maintain that they must have free raw materials or be ruined, and to insist that their ruin is not in accordance with the true theory of protectionism.

A striking instance of this alarming tendency is afforded by the utterances of Mr. P. L. Moen of the Washburn & Moen Company of Worcester. He declares his unalterable devotion to the "idea of protection," but protests that that idea is to protect the whole body of American workingmen, and "not to protect manufacturers in one section of the country from the competition of those in other sections." He asserts that the makers of Bessemer steel in the West obtain their ores near at hand, and thus have a permanent protection in the freights which Eastern makers have to pay both upon their ores and their products. The addition of duties upon foreign ores constitutes, therefore, an unjust discrimination against the East, which can be remedied only by allowing that section to import raw materials free of duty.

However plausible Mr. Moen's argument may seem, it is obvious upon a little reflection that it involves a principle inconsistent with genuine protectionism. He is especially interested in ore as his raw material, but his principle applies to all materials that are used in any manufacturing process. The cotton-manufacturers of New England can claim with equal force that they must have coal and machinery duty free, or there is an unjust discrimination in favor of Pennsylvania and the South. The foundrymen make the same claim as to pig-iron, and the shoemakers make like claims as to linen thread. The builders will require free lumber and cement, the brass-manufacturers free copper, the carpet-makers free wool, and even the poor needlewomen may feebly cry for free thread and free needles.

Mr. Moen's claim is hostile also to another of the fundamental tenets of protectionism, the "home-market" doctrine. If he and other manufacturers in like circumstances are allowed to send vast sums of money out of the country on the pretence of obtaining free raw materials, it is obvious that this money supports foreign producers and laborers instead of our own, and is therefore expended to the disadvantage of American industries. How can Mr. Moen profess to be desirous of protecting American workingmen while he is guilty of such practices as these? If he is getting his ore from abroad while there remains an American mine unworked or an American miner unemployed, he is a traitor to his cause and to his country. If such is the case, it is a conclusive proof that the duty upon foreign ore does not afford sufficient protection to our industries. Rather than yield to his demand, it were better to devas-

tate a strip of country a hundred miles wide along our coast, and thus interpose an effective barrier against the flood of foreign ores, the products of pauper labor, with which our miners have at present to compete.

The truth is, Mr. Moen's professions of devotion to the idea of protection have a hollow ring. There is nothing of the "sink or swim, live or die, survive or perish" spirit about such devotion as he exhibits. He seems to have been ardent in the cause so long as his profits were large, and to be growing cool now that our beneficent policy has raised up American competitors who are cutting them down. He fixes his attention upon that dogma of his creed which declares that protective duties raise the price of the products of American labor, and ignores that other dogma, equally important—although to the uninitiated apparently inconsistent—which maintains that the same duties lower the price of the same products. He has enjoyed the rich blessings of the first dogma, and now turns against his faith when the bitterness of the second becomes perceptible. Such conduct is not heroic, and if there is any truth in the American theory of the development of our industries, it should be worth suffering for. If Mr. Moen and those whom he represents do not feel disposed to sacrifice themselves in this sacred cause, they might as well give up trying to humbug themselves and the people by their talk about protecting American workingmen, and confess that the less our industries have to do with the Government at Washington the better for every one.

THE NEW EXTRADITION TREATY.

If the *Tribune* text of the recently negotiated extradition treaty between the United States and Great Britain is accurate, the result is not what many experts in the jurisprudence of extradition had hoped for. It is only a patching of the single section in the Webster-Ashburton Treaty of 1842 which has stipulations for extradition. During the intervening half-century, the use of electricity in sending messages under the sea, and the celerity of the movements of criminals, have made the old methods of arrest quite insufficient. The new treaty has no new provisions adequate for these new conditions. There is a great and useful enlargement of extraditable offences, and at the end of them is this stipulation: "Extradition is also to take place for *participation* in any of the crimes mentioned in this convention, or in the aforesaid tenth article; provided such *participation* be punishable by the laws of both countries."

Is "participation" intended to include all accessories either before or after the commission of the offence? Will it embrace one who suggests a crime and persuades another to commit it? Can one be extradited who helps the criminal to escape, or knowingly uses the proceeds of the crime? Does the treaty include those described by modern law as principals in the second degree? Can an accessory be extradited before the principal has been convicted?

The second article stipulates that "A fugitive criminal shall not be surrendered if the offence in respect of which his surrender is demanded be one of a political character"; and that "if any question shall arise as to whether any case comes within the provisions of this article, the decision of the authorities of the Government in whose jurisdiction the fugitive shall be at the time shall be final"; but there is no definition or description of "political character," nor of the "authorities," executive or judicial, which shall decide.

The third article has a provision which, if Silcott were extradited for forgery, will forbid trying him for a lesser offence if forgery cannot be proved. England has shown her willingness to abandon that contention, as may be seen from the most authoritative opinion on the subject, if the character of the men be considered, ever uttered in England, including among them Cockburn, Selborne, Blackburn, Russell Gurney, Baggally, Brett, Thesiger, John Rose, Stephen, and Harcourt.

The fourth article declares:

"All articles seized, which were in the possession of the person surrendered at the time of his apprehension, whether being the proceeds of the crime or offence charged, or being material as evidence in making proof of the crime or offence charged, shall, so far as practicable, and if the competent authority of the State applied to for the extradition has ordered the delivery thereof, be given up when the extradition takes place. Nevertheless, the rights of third parties with regard to the articles aforesaid shall be duly respected."

But there is no stipulation in regard to arrest on a telegraphic request, or for searching the premises of the accused, or a place to which he may be believed to have transferred stolen property, or evidence of his crime, as is usual in ordinary cases in this country and in England.

The tenth section of the treaty of 1842 covers persons "*charged*" with the crimes mentioned therein, and all the crimes mentioned in the first article of the present treaty need only be charged. What need, therefore, is there of this seventh article of the new convention?

"The provisions of the said tenth article, and of this convention, shall apply to persons convicted of the crimes therein respectively named and specified, whose sentence therefor shall not have been executed.

"In case of a fugitive criminal alleged to have been convicted of the crime for which his surrender is asked, a copy of the record of the conviction and of the sentence of the court before which such conviction took place, duly authenticated, shall be produced, together with the evidence proving that the prisoner is the person to whom the sentence refers."

During the half century of the old treaty of 1842 there have been many serious questions raised under it not yet put to rest, but with these the new convention fails to deal.

Nearly all foreign Governments have, it is believed, including Great Britain, heretofore expressed the wish that the surrendering Government should have a motive for reducing the expenses of arrest, examination, detention, and final surrender, by paying those expenses itself. The expenses are so enormous in our country that France and Germany say they cannot afford to make the application for extradition. But Mr. Blaine expresses to the Senate this quite unique reason for upholding the present practice: "The formalities attending extradition proceedings, and the fact that the demanding Government is required to pay the expenses, are better guarantees against demands based upon trivial causes than an insignificant pecuniary limitation." That is equivalent to saying: "We will insert in the treaty as many trivial crimes as you may desire to have inserted, but we will make the expenses of extradition so great that you will never demand from us the offender."

THE PRESBYTERIAN REVISION.

The discussion now going on in the New York Presbytery, as well as in the Presbyteries of other places, over the proposal to revise the Westminster Confession of Faith, is extremely interesting even to those who do not belong to the denomination, because it distinctly marks a change of a very startling character in the nature and objects of church creeds. A creed is what a certain number of people believe to be true in religion, politics, or science. But until now the creeds of certain religious denominations—the Roman Catholic Church for one, and the Calvinists or Presbyterian Church for another—have not only contained what the members of those bodies respectively accepted as true, but what, as they held, all other men were also bound to accept as true, on pain of eternal damnation. Both the Catholic Church and the Calvinistic churches have been, as everybody knows, very firm in insisting that the deliberate and persistent rejection of certain statements presented by them in the form of articles of faith, by any person whatsoever, learned or ignorant, would be followed at least by exclusion from heaven after death, or, in other words, that a man's salvation depended on his opinions concerning his relations to the Creator.

The Westminster Confession even goes further than this. It declares that a certain number ("some") of "angels and men" are, without reference to their opinions, and merely for "the manifestation of God's glory," "foreordained to everlasting death" (chap. iii.). It also declares that "others not elected, even though they be called by the ministry of the Word and have some common operations of the Spirit, cannot truly come to Christ," and "cannot be saved." Much less can they be saved who do not "profess the Christian religion, be they never so diligent to frame their lives according to the light of nature and the law of that religion they profess; and to assert and maintain that they may is very pernicious and to be detested" (chapter x.). Chapter xxv. says that outside "the visible Church"—that is, outside the number of those that profess the true religion—"there is no ordinary possibility of salvation."

Now, all these affirmations, and a great many others of the same sort, were, when they were made and embodied in the Confession, intended to be affirmations of facts of the universe, and were accepted as such by members of the Presbyterian Church.

They were not presented as things which anybody might believe or reject at his option, or as "pious opinions" simply, or even as strong probabilities. They were produced as part and parcel of Divine order, which a man could no more safely disregard than he could safely disregard the law of gravitation or the succession of day and night.

It is now proposed to change this creed in various particulars. The reports of the discussion made in the newspapers are meagre, and we therefore do not venture to rely on them for details. But we believe it is correct to say that, in the arguments for revision, the Confession is not treated as the early Church treated it—as a list of Divine truths which could not be rejected without peril—but simply as a list of things which certain persons believed in the seventeenth century, but which nobody in the nineteenth century is bound to believe unless he pleases. For instance, the Committee appointed to report on the revision recommend that the third chapter be so altered that nothing shall be said about the predestination of some men to everlasting death; that the fate of non-elect infants shall be passed over in silence, or else that they shall be made participants in the salvation allowed to elect infants, and that provision be made for the salvation of such heathens as may show themselves worthy of it by their walk and conversation—a class which the Confession expressly proscribes, and for whom, in fact, it forbids a word to be said.

On the old theory of the nature and objects of a creed, these changes could only be justified by showing that they were made in consequence of some fresh revelation, through recognized theological channels, touching the methods of Divine government; that is, in the Presbyterian view, through some important addition, previously unknown, to the one source of religious truth —the Scriptures—or some new and indisputable interpretation of the existing canon. But nothing of this sort is alleged. What is said is, that these changes must be made because the original doctrines enunciated in the Confession are "unpreachable," meaning either that the ministers no longer believe them, or that the congregations will no longer listen to them. In the nineteenth century, it is maintained, people will not believe, no matter who says it, that non-elect infants are damned, or that good heathens or sceptics have no chance of salvation, no matter how pure their lives or how earnestly they may strive for the light; that these things were all very well for the seventeenth century, but that in our day such doctrines are too repulsive for popular acceptance.

This, it will be seen at a glance, reduces a church creed very much to the plane of a political platform. Truth is none the less truth because it is unpalatable or unpleasant. The facts of theology are, or ought to be, just as imperious as the facts of natural science. Unwillingness to believe a thing because it would, if true, be inconvenient or disagreeable, or shock a prejudice, is, in all other domains of human thought or activity, accepted as evidence of unfitness for any serious process of ratiocination, or even for the orderly conduct of life. The utilitarian argument, or "police argument," as some have called it, for the truth of Christianity—the good it has done to the world, and the damage its extinction would cause to human society—has always been open to this very grave objection. If there be anything we learn with certainty touching the government of the universe through experience of the course of nature, it is that law takes no account of human likes or dislikes.

Consequently, a creed which simply professes to express popular opinion upon certain topics at certain periods, and which is, therefore, open to change at greater or less intervals to suit the changes in popular taste or feeling, may be a useful kind of creed, but it is not the kind of creed on which the great religions of the world were founded and to which the leading churches owe their existence. Tocqueville, in one of his letters to a friend who had written to him of the "progressive Catholicism" of which there was as much talk in 1854 as now, said, "I share your feelings about the impertinence of progressive Catholicism. It is detestable, aside from the question of faith. A religion is absolutely true or absolutely false. How can it make progress? As you very justly remark, the progress must be in the application and not in the doctrine." This is just as true of other churches as of the Roman Catholic Church. As soon as you make them "progressive," and decide what they are to believe by a majority vote, you assimilate the Church to a political party, and convert its creed into a platform of the political kind. For which reason it seems as if it would be vastly more respectful to the great historic faiths not to examine them in our time too curiously, or try to ascertain exactly how much life each article has left in it. The best thing to be done with "a creed outworn" is to let it alone. The more it is debated, the more it crumbles.

THE PORTUGUESE CASE.

THE excitement of the Portuguese over the snub they have received from Great Britain is so childish in its manifestations that its causes or consequences seem hardly worth examination. The returning of British medals, the boycotting of British goods, and the throwing of stones at the British Embassy are not the expressions of really important rage, and must soon cease. They are made doubly absurd by the fact that they are called forth by the loss of a million square miles of territory, when they are only suited to the loss of a game of cards or unhandsome treatment at a dinner-party. But the affair is, after all, an episode in a history which is now bidding fair to become interesting—that of the African Continent—and it is therefore worth while to see what Portugal's case is as set forth by M. Barros Gomes in his despatch of the 29th of November, 1889.

Lord Salisbury laid down the rule, to begin with, that "an effective occupation was an essential condition of sovereignty." M. Gomes on this point makes his strongest fight. He says that this rule has no place in international law with regard to the interior of Africa, and was limited by the Berlin Conference to the coast regions; and that the phrase "sphere of influence," now so freely used by all the European foreign offices, is of itself the best proof "that effective occupation (if by that we understand the permanent establishment of authority), cannot constitute the essential condition of possession on the part of other nations."

The "sphere of influence" is undoubtedly a vague and therefore somewhat weak phrase; but its meaning is well known. It means the sphere within which a Power competent to carry out its threats and fulfil its promises, has given the inhabitants to understand that they may, in case of need, rely on it for protection. Promises of this sort made by Germany or Great Britain are for all practical purposes as good as forts and garrisons. Made by a Power like Portugal, they are not worth the paper on which they are written. When Lord Salisbury refused to acknowledge possession without occupation, he meant undoubtedly nominal occupation which could be made real at any time, if necessary, against an adverse claimant. Portugal has no such nominal occupation anywhere, and least of all in Mashonaland.

The rest of M. Gomes's argument is historical, but certainly not diplomatic, and reads like a lecture before a Geographical Society. He says, as regards the territory north of the Zambesi, that Portugal discovered the Nyassa Lake in 1624; that the region between the lake and the Zambesi was explored by Portuguese in the last century and in this; that Montague Kerr, in his book 'The Far Interior,' records the discovery of proof of Portuguese influence in this region in the use of the word "Ami" by an elephant-hunter named Eustaquio da Costa; that Livingstone also discovered it in the information he got from the Portuguese authorities on the coast touching the river Shiré and the Nyassa; that Mr. A. F. S. Arnot also came on traces of it, and that it led to the submission in 1887 and 1888 of numerous "little kings" to Portuguese authority, and the establishment of a Portuguese mission at M'ponda, on the south shore of the lake.

Touching the Mashonaland, he says it was originally acquired by purchase in 1620 from the old empire of Monomotapa; that there are ruins of ancient fortresses in this region the Portuguese origin of which is acknowledged by M. Lochner in an article in the *Bechuana News*, and by the reports of two Portuguese officers now travelling there; that the construction of these forts is recommended in reports now in the Archives at Lisbon, dated about 1610; that their construction was followed up by settlements in 1633 and 1677, and by the despatch of numerous eminent missionaries, who have left traces over the whole confines of Monomotapa. Finally he declares that, in spite of her domestic troubles since the beginning of this century, Portugal has never ceased to claim this terri-

tory "by constant and uninterrupted manifestations."

Of her ability now to occupy, settle, fortify, defend, open it, or civilize it, M. Gomes does not say one word. This is not surprising in view of the fact that the emigration from Portugal numbers about 15,000 a year, who nearly all go to America; that the revenue amounts to about $38,000,000, and that there has been a deficit every year for the last thirty years; that the population is less than 5,000,000, and increases at the rate of about one per cent. per annum. Moreover, England has been for a century her best friend and protector. She drove the French out of Portugal in the beginning of the century, has since defended her against all the world and supplied her with her best markets. Portugal exports to the value of (in round numbers) $28,000,000, and of this Great Britain took, in 1887, almost exactly one-half, or $14,180,000. The quarrel is, in truth, almost as ridiculous from the sentimental as from the practical point of view.

THE PRISONS OF THE CIVIL WAR.

In the summer of 1888, the late Jefferson Davis wrote for the *North American Review* a paper that has just been published by *Belford's Magazine*, under the title, "Andersonville and Other War-Prisons." A part of it compares the mortality and, by inference, the sufferings of the prisoners at the North with those of prisoners held at the South; and the figures used show that 50,000 more United States than Confederate troops were captives, with 4,000 fewer deaths. Mr. Davis accounts for this smaller mortality by the Confederate "care for the defenceless." He says that "this, in the depth of our destitution, never ceased," and that "it was not starvation, but acclimation, unsuitable diet, and despondency which were the potent agents of disease and death." This revival of the most ghastly phase of the war compels notice, notwithstanding the decease of the conspicuous author.

According to Fox, 24,866 national soldiers died of disease in Southern prisons, in addition to 5,290 who died of wounds and other causes in the hands of the enemy, or a total of 30,156. But the same excellent authority asserts that, owing to imperfect records, all the deaths are not included in those figures, and, as shown by the graves, the Union mortality has been estimated at 36,401. That would give, in round numbers, 30,000 deaths from disease. Fox also says, "30,152 Confederates died in Northern prisons," not including mortality from wounds in field hospitals nor deaths at Johnson's Island and some other places of confinement. The published official records substantially agree with this, and also account for 30,716 deaths among Confederate prisoners, of which 5,569 followed violence and 1,556 were from causes not noted, leaving 23,591 due to specified disease. It appears, therefore, that the mortality from wounds was practically the same for both sides, and that the actual deaths from disease were slightly in excess at the South. We have no available data by which to confirm or correct Mr. Davis's census of the total captives. But in this discussion the actual mortality is not so important as are its causes. We have not the space to traverse in detail the indictment of want of "care of the defenceless," the implication of needless cruelty at the North, but the following facts are worth rehearsal:

At Johnson's Island, in Lake Erie, which was a hygienic model prison, where chiefly officers were confined (whose condition when captured was presumably better than that of the rank and file), the annual mortality rate was 35.4 per thousand of mean strength, the fatality 4.4 per cent. of the cases treated, and the deaths 9.8 annually for every thousand commitments—it being remembered that the mean strength and the commitments are very different factors. The other extreme was reached at Elmira, N. Y., where the percentage of fatal cases to those treated was 28.8, and the annual death-rate per 1,000 men committed was 241, or 444 per 1,000 of mean strength. At the nine principal depots the percentage of fatal cases was 7.7, the annual death-rate per 1,000 admitted was 65.7, or 230.4 per mean strength, while in the Confederate ranks the death-rate from disease was 167.3, or three-fourths of this.

Mr. Davis assumes that as, generally speaking, all the prisoners were on duty when captured, therefore they were in substantially equal condition to be benefited by rest and proper treatment; and that, owing to the admitted greater salubrity of the North, and its superior facilities for caring for both the well and the infirm, there should have been a lower mortality there than at the South. The chief fallacy lies in the assumption that because men were in the ranks they were free from disease-tendencies. This is a conspicuously false premise. The diseases most fatal to the Confederate prisoners were the same diseases that were most fatal to their armed ranks: the diseases from which the Union troops died in captivity were entirely different from those that affected them in the field. In other words, the depraved physical condition and tendency to disease of the Southern men were intensified and aggravated by the state of confinement; but the Northern soldiers were made ill and died from quite other causes—both of these statements being general.

Thus, according to the best available statistics, the annual rates per thousand of the cases of certain important classes of disease in the Confederate and Union armies, and among the Confederate and Union prisoners, under several conditions, were as follows (unfortunately, there are no trustworthy figures by which to compare the deaths from separate diseases with the mean strength of large bodies of Confederate troops):

COMPARATIVE RATES OF SICKNESS AND DEATHS FROM DISEASE FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE WAR TO INCLUDE 1862.

	Ratio of cases per 1,000 cases of all diseases.		Ratio of deaths per 1,000 deaths from all diseases.		Percentage of mortality to cases.	
	C. S. A.	U. S. A.	C. S. A.	U. S. A.	C. S. A.	U. S. A.
Diarrhœa and dysentery	277	107	283	176	1.48	1.25
Pulmonary diseases	51	115	255	134	18.89	2.34
Eruptive fevers	54	23	73	60	5.12	5.27
Continued fevers	45	30	391	337	33.27	22.28
Malarial fevers	141	160	43	76	1.15	.95
Rheumatism	36	52	...	3	...	.14
All other diseases	396	337	131	214	1.26	1.32

ANNUAL SICK-RATES PER 1,000 MEAN AGGREGATE STRENGTH.

	Parts of 1861-62-63. C. S. A.	1863, U. S. A.	
Diarrhœa and dysentery	987	543	The same ratio was preserved for other periods U. S. A., but consecutive C. S. A. statistics later than 1862 are not available.
Pneumonia	103	34	
Eruptive fevers	No record.	No record.	
Continued fevers	275	125	
Malarial fevers	796	460	
Scurvy	No record.	No record.	

AVERAGE ANNUAL RATES OF DEATH PER 1,000 OF STRENGTH.

	Northern prisons.	Andersonville.	Elmira.	C. S. A.	U. S. A. White.
All diseases	230.4	732.6	444.1	167.3	53.48
Diarrhœa and dysentery	73.0	465.6	211.5	No exact data.	15.62
Pneumonia	61.7	27.4	117.3		6.34
Eruptive fevers	40.5	8.2	58.9		4.50
Continued fevers	13.6	20.5	21.2		11.60
Malarial fevers	12.6	12.2	9.9		5.04
Scurvy	4.3	102.8	3.0		0.16

The Confederate mortality in prison was very great, but it was great under all circumstances.

At the first blush Elmira seems a rival of Andersonville, and it is upon such statistics, unanalyzed, that the specious pleas of Northern inhumanity and neglect rest. The annual mortality of Elmira was 444.1 per 1,000 of mean strength, and the percentage of fatal cases was 28.8, which is enormous, but no other Northern depot attained half those figures. But Andersonville gave 732.6 to the 1,000 annual mor-

tality; 13,000 men died there in the fourteen months of its occupancy, and during six months of that time so many died out of an average strength of 19,453 as to imply the death of all in fifteen months. To those dying in confinement should be added the thousands who certainly perished soon after their release, so miserable was their state.

There seems small doubt that the condition of the Confederate prisoners on arriving at the North was the determining factor in their subsequent physical career. This is shown by contemporaneous official reports. Thus at Hart's Island less than one hundred of a large detachment reached there "as well men or even in fair health." At Fort Delaware in July, 1863, the mortality was almost exclusively from chronic diarrhœa, confined to prisoners from the extreme Southern States received from the army near Vicksburg, and already the subjects of the disease for long periods. Prisoners from Virginia, under the same hygienic influences, then remained well. At Elmira "the Fort Fisher prisoners arrived in cold weather, very much depressed, poorly clad, and great numbers were soon taken sick with pneumonia and diarrhœa, rapidly assuming a typhoid character." Smallpox repeatedly broke out in various prisons, owing to the unprotected state of the prisoners, by whom the disease was frequently introduced.

Elmira is believed to be the only Northern prison at which there was much conspicuous mortality from avoidable disease, and here, as at the other depots, the underlying cause was the enfeebled condition of the men on arrival. Of 1,394 deaths there from diarrhœa and dysentery, all but 18 were from chronic diarrhœa. The contrasted statistics show that, among every thousand cases of all diseases treated in the armies, there were from these two combined 107 in the Union and 277 in the Confederate, and the annual sick-rate per 1,000 mean aggregate strength was 543 and 987. The proportion of deaths from these diseases in the Confederate lines cannot be determined, but of the Union white troops they were 15.62 per 1,000 mean strength. At Elmira the maximum was reached with 211.5 deaths per 1,000 mean strength, while the average in all the Northern prisons was 73, opposed to which towers at Andersonville the death-rate of 465.6 per mean strength from these alone. From scurvy there died 0.16 (sixteen-hundredths of one man) per 1,000 mean strength in the Union ranks. There are no figures for the Confederates, but there are frequent references to the existence of scurvy among them, and the fact that fifty-eight cases (with no death) occurred at Johnson's Island, where most of the prisoners were officers, and where the diet was exceptionally abundant and varied, shows that, open or latent, it was a constant menace to their army. At Elmira there died from it 3 per 1,000 mean strength, and at all the Northern prisons 4.3 per 1,000, in all which it is fair to infer that the cause antedated capture. But at Andersonville, of the Unionists, almost exclusively well when made prisoners, 102.8 per 1,000 mean strength, or more than a tenth of those held in the stockade, were there destroyed in that way alone.

We do not care to revive the unspeakable horrors of Andersonville—horrors which only those who witnessed them or who have studied their details can begin to realize—but it is a lame and useless equivocation for any one to say that this misery arose from the fact that medicines were made contraband. Those people should not have been made ill. The want of quinine, of opium, of calomel had nothing whatever to do with the suffering that insufficient, improper, and uncooked food, contaminated water, and want of shelter caused the victims of the stockade. That blankets and tents were military supplies, and therefore cut off from the Confederacy, is no excuse for the exposure and crowding of these helpless wretches. Mr. Davis writes: "It was not starving but acclimation, unsuited diet, and despondency which were the potent agents of disease and death." The distinction between starvation and unsuited diet is without a difference. Lieut.-Col. Chandler, C. S. A., reported, August 5, 1864:

"The sanitary condition of the prisoners is as wretched as it can be, the principal cause of mortality being scurvy and chronic diarrhœa, the proportion of the former being disproportionately large among those brought from Belle Isle. Nothing seems to have been done, and but little if any effort made to arrest it by procuring proper food. . . . Raw rations have to be issued to a very large proportion, who are entirely unprovided with proper utensils, and furnished so limited a supply of fuel that they are compelled to dig with their hands in the filthy marsh before mentioned for roots, etc."

Despondency might well settle upon men so tortured.

Andersonville, where at one time the 33,000 prisoners present had but 28 square feet per man—a space 7x4 for all the purposes of life—where 2,000 sick men lay in the pen besides those in the hospital proper, where "millions of flies swarmed over everything and covered the faces of the sleeping patients, and crawled down their open mouths, and deposited their maggots on the gangrenous wounds of the living, and in the mouths of the dead" (Jones, C. S. A.), was not alone "a stench in the nostrils" among the war prisons. Danville, with an aggregate of 4,332 cases in the hospital, had a mortality of 28.7, almost identical with that of Elmira, but with a presumably better class of patients to work with. At Salisbury, 3,400 out of 8,600 were infected with typhus, not typhoid, fever, distinctly a disease due to concentrated human emanations developed in confined and unventilated spaces. There was no typhus in the Northern prisons. In December, 1864, 20 per cent. of the deaths there occurred among men of whom the surgeons had no knowledge—men, that is, who had not been classed as sick. And concerning Salisbury it was reported, "It is certain that the men confined in this prison bore the impress of semi-starvation on their arrival in New York, although in the meantime every effort at recuperation had been made by the United States authorities and the Sanitary Commission." By official report, made at the time, of those received from Belle Isle, directly under the eye of the central Confederate authority, as early as October, 1863, "their frames were in most instances all that was left of them," "their appearance was wretched in the extreme," "a majority had scarcely vitality to enable them to stand," "some, indeed, unable to articulate." This account refers to men exchanged after confinement in the environs of Richmond itself, and upon whom the subsequent intermission of exchange could have no influence. Those desirous of determining the facts, regardless of special pleas, are referred to the invaluable third part of the 'Medical and Surgical History of the War of the Rebellion,' prepared under the direction of the Surgeon-General of the Army, from which the most of these data have been taken.

EIGHT YEARS' WORK OF THE IRISH LAND COMMISSION.

DUBLIN, January 1, 1890.

THE report of the Irish Land Commission, just published, gives the result of eight years' work under the act passed in 1881, which, with several amending acts, established fixity of tenure at fair rents in place of tenancy at will as the general rule of tenure for Irish farmers. The chief work of the Commission has been the fixing of fair rents, although an enormous amount of time and money has been spent in disposing of legal objections and points raised to prevent tenants of various classes from taking advantage of the law.

The official figures are as follows: 233,607 rents have been fixed by all methods under the Act—*i. e.*, by rent suits before the Court; by registered agreements; by arbitrations. The farms on which these rents were fixed extend to 6¾ million acres. The old rents amounted to £4,581,761, the new rents amount to £3,650,026; the reduction in the old rents being 20.3 per cent. The number of agricultural holdings in Ireland to which the Act would apply is under half a million; so that in round numbers half the rents in Ireland, on farms covering about one third of the whole area, have been judicially fixed. The judicial tenants have a right to hold in perpetuity as long as they pay their rents, which may be raised every fifteen years. The number of rent suits and appeals now awaiting trial would, at the normal rate of progress for the last year, occupy the courts for two years; and before all outstanding tenancies could be dealt with, those fixed in the earlier years of the Commission would again be capable of being brought before the Court.

The political and social effects of the Land Law are not very encouraging. The country in general is not a whit more favorably disposed towards British law than it was ten years ago; the farmers are still discontented and disappointed with the results of legislation; the lowered rents are not obtained more easily; the landlords are nursing their grievances, and protesting beforehand against further threatened invasions on their estates. A paralyzing atmosphere of uncertainty surrounds the property which the law purported to confer on the tenant as well as that which still remains to the landlord.

The Land Law of 1881 has certainly not been a success; it has done something, but not much. The plan of campaign—that is, combined refusal to pay more than a certain amount of rent—was invented while the Land Law was in operation. The campaign is in full swing in some parts of the country. Arbitration, where one of the judges would be chosen by the tenants, is offered to the landlords, who in reply say: The rent courts are open: go into them, and we will and must accept the result. The explanation of this failure of the law is that it gave the shadow, not the substance, of what it promised; it enacted that "fair" rents should be fixed, but left unrepealed the unfair provisions of previous acts to remedy which the Act of 1881 was passed. The land tribunals, which should have been courts of conciliation, have acted strictly as courts of law; they were manned by individuals almost necessarily drawn from classes more in sympathy with the landlords than the tenants, and their decisions have neither commanded respect nor been considered fair. A fall of 20 per cent. in rents was manifestly insufficient to meet the effect of diminished prices of produce, and left the tenants still paying rent on their own improvements; definite decisions have in many cases been to the effect that valuable works effected by the tenants on their farms belonged by law to the landlords. Large arrears of the old high rents in many cases prevented the tenants from being free agents in agreeing on judicial rents, and they sub-

mitted to whatever terms their landlords proposed.

In this state of the law, and with widespread dissatisfaction among the farming class, it is not to be wondered at that the landlords' estate in the land should be in danger from further legislation. Government for the moment is on the landlords' side; but Parliament is not always an impartial tribunal of appeal; it is apt to be influenced by sinister motives, for each party wants to secure votes, and when five-sixths of the members are not Irish citizens, not acquainted with the intricacies of the subject, not aware of the necessities of the country they legislate for, Irish questions submitted to Parliament are more likely to be dealt with on the grounds of English convenience than of justice and expediency for the Irish people.

As an example of the shortcomings of the Land Law, a large farmer in the County Dublin, whose ancestors for at least four generations held the same farm, on which the present occupant and his father have laid out at least $35,000 in permanent improvements, while it is not pretended that the landlord ever spent anything, has, since 1876, spent in law $5,000 endeavoring to take advantage of the protective clauses of various land acts. He was defeated on technical points in every suit, and the large amount of capital he has sunk in the land is by law his landlord's property. The poorer occupants of smaller farms cannot bear the cost of such suits, and wisely, perhaps, agree to the landlords' terms, lest they should ruin themselves in the law courts.

The dual ownership established by the law of 1881, accompanied by uncertainty as to the respective rights and obligations of the two owners, prohibits improvement and deters from good cultivation. The Land Law has been amended and extended year after year, and now the Government have another Land Bill for Parliament's consideration in February. It is not surprising that a feeling of unrest prevails both among landlords and tenants; their interests are irreconcilable; a satisfactory tenure cannot be secured to the tenants except by getting rid of the landlords. This has been done to a small extent by the Purchase Act of 1885, under which tenants can borrow from Government the price of their farms if the landlord agrees to sell, repaying the loan by an annuity of 4 per cent. for forty-nine years, and having liberty to pay off the whole or any part of the loan at any time. Parliament has, up to this, allocated £10,000,000 for this purpose; and 11,012 loans have been made, amounting to £4,629,655. Even this part of the Land Commission's work is embarrassed by political, legal, and agrarian difficulties. Landlords, taking advantage of arrear debts due by the tenants, have coerced them to purchase at high prices; tenants may also take advantage of the fact that estates in some cases must be sold without reserve, and bid what they like in a market where there is no competition. Not less than £30,000,000 worth of insolvent estates is under the management of the Court of Chancery, where the expenses of lawyers and receivers eat up the greater part of the rentals. Under our antiquated system of title and transfer, the costs of sale are enormous, the delays heart-breaking. The time occupied in making title to an estate, and in distributing the proceeds of sale, may extend to an indefinite number of years.

In this, as well as in their relations with tenants, the landlord class is reaping the fruits of long-continued opposition to every reform proposed. The difficulties connected with title and transfer make the policy of the Purchase Act of very questionable utility. It will, as years go on, be as difficult for the creditors or owners of the small estates now created by the State to sell their properties or realize their securities as it is for the present race of landlords and mortgagees. The same complications of title must necessarily grow up, and the embarrassed peasant proprietor will find himself between Scylla and Charybdis, equally liable to ruin by holding land he wishes to part with, or by trying to sell it under the existing law. Last session the Government introduced a feeble bill to establish local registries of title, but no progress was made with it. An attempt will again be made without doubt to legislate on this subject, but the conservative lawyer element in the House of Commons is opposed to any radical reform, and is strong enough to cause the rejection of, or to spoil, any such measure.

No legislation by the Imperial Parliament can be successful or permanent except on conditions which can hardly exist next session: (1.) Coercion should be suspended, for rents cannot be fairly fixed, nor terms of purchase fairly negotiated, while men can be, as they have been, imprisoned for advising tenants what combined action they should take in such matters. (2.) The assent of the Irish members as a body is essential to any measure which is to be of permanent operation. (3.) The semblance of fairness should be given to the Land Commission by putting on the Board as large a Nationalist and tenant as Conservative and landlord element. No attempt, with the exception of Gladstone's Land Bill of 1886, has ever been made by either Liberals or Conservatives to legislate on the Irish land question in accordance with Irish opinion or even in a spirit of conciliation; it has therefore become an article of faith in Ireland that land-tenure reform can only be carried out by national Parliament. Balfour's contempt for Irish opinion is greater, but his disregard no more than that of his predecessors. It is not possible that legislation carried out in such a spirit can be successful.

AN IRISHMAN.

WILHELM VON GIESEBRECHT.

MUNICH, December 30, 1889.

THE death of Giesebrecht on the 15th of this month will bring surprise and grief to the many friends and readers who knew with what persistent energy the still vigorous old man was working at his life task, and who were hoping with him that he might be permitted to reach the limit he had set as the rational completion of his great work. He was writing still on his 'History of the German Imperial Period,' and was eager to complete the reign of Barbarossa as the crowning glory of the ancient imperial institution. Still, so keen was his sense of scholarly duty that, when the call came from his publishers for a new edition of the third volume, which should be ready before Christmas, he laid aside the inspiring work of composition, and undertook a complete revision of this volume, in order that the new edition might profit by whatever of value had appeared since the former one. To my inquiry in October why he did not intrust this uncongenial labor to some younger scholar, he replied that he could not bring himself to let anything go out into the world which had not passed through his own hands. Three days before his death his pupil and successor, Heigel, found him sitting at his work-table busying himself with the dreary task of making an index to the third volume.

Although the name of Giesebrecht will always be identified with the University of Munich, of which he was for twenty-seven years one of the chief ornaments, he was by birth and by residence for fifty years a North German. He was born in Berlin in the year 1814, the son of a school-teacher, and studied in his father's school and at the University of Berlin. Beginning as a student of classical philology, he was soon attracted by the teaching of Ranke and devoted himself to history, especially to that of Germany in the Middle Ages. His first teaching was at the Joachimthal Gymnasium in Berlin, where he published in the year 1855 the first volume of the 'Geschichte der Deutschen Kaiserzeit.' The reward for this work was the appointment as professor at Königsberg in the same year. Five years later he was called to Munich as the man who was likely to treat the history of Germany in a spirit that would not offend the various groups of German patriots, who were then at hopeless odds with each other as to the true solution of the "German problem."

Sybel, who had filled the same professorship but a short time, had made himself impossible in Munich by reason of his pronounced Prussianism, and had been forced to resign. In this position Giesebrecht continued until his death, though he had not lectured for the past four or five years. He was during more or less of this period also Secretary of the Historical Commission of the Bavarian Academy, a member of the Editing Commission of the 'Monumenta Germaniæ,' of the directory of the Germanic Museum at Nuremberg, and of the School Board of the city of Munich. As a North German and a Protestant, his position in Bavaria was a delicate one, but he filled it with a singular tact which those who have studied his writing will recognize as a characteristic of the man.

As a teacher, Giesebrecht was the centre of a group of young men who are now filling important places in the schools, universities, and archives of Southern Germany. He seems to have inspired them by the force of an amiable intellectual personality, rather than by any exceptional or original pedagogic gift. His influence was catholic and conciliatory, though his own point of view was clearly defined and not to be mistaken. His pupils hold him in most affectionate remembrance.

Yet it is not as a teacher that he will be most widely known. His name will be inseparably associated with the great work to which he devoted the chief powers of his life, the 'Geschichte der Deutschen Kaiserzeit.' The title indicates its scope. It is not a history of the Holy Roman Empire, for that would have called for a very different treatment and would have required a much greater extension as to time. The title must rather be translated, 'A History of Germany's Imperial Period,' and it is in this spirit of patriotic German enthusiasm that the whole work is conceived. It gives us a history of German and Italian affairs from 900 nearly to 1200, seen from the point of view of the Empire. It brings out into prominence as living and breathing men and women historical characters who had hitherto not filled a large place in the traditional history of the German people. Indeed, it has been harshly criticised as being too much a history of persons and too little a history of institutions and of political developments. This criticism may perhaps admit of two explanations. Giesebrecht had the idea, which a certain modern school regards with horror, that a book of history is written to be read; and no book written for a wide reading public, no matter upon how thorough study it may be based, can hope to escape violent criticisms from that school. Then, again, it can hardly be questioned that the emphasis upon personalities goes back of the his-

torian to his material. The writers of the early middle ages were, in this respect, children who retold the tales of their heroes as they heard them from tradition or gathered them from the vague rumors of their own times. Whoever deals with them must be prepared to find his attention fixed upon persons, and it is only by a great effort that the modern historian can glean from the original sources, especially from the mediæval historians themselves, a knowledge of institutions and of parties. It was Giesebrecht's pleasure to emphasize the human and dramatic side of history. If, here and there, he yielded a little to the inevitable temptation of the dramatic historian, it could never be said of him that he allowed himself consciously to warp the evidence of his sources in his own behalf. As a Protestant, dealing with the time of Rome's most audacious claims upon the obedience of the world, he showed the same tact in his writing which he displayed in his personal intercourse with his Bavarian contemporaries. Yet it was natural that he should be drawn into many a literary controversy, and those who know the hateful spirit of petty spite and jealousy which marks German controversial writing, will recognize the self-control and dignity with which he met his opponents.

One cannot think of the loss of Giesebrecht without dwelling upon the conditions and prospects of the historical school in which he played so prominent a part. He belonged in that circle of elder professors and writers who may, without much exaggeration, be called the pupils of Ranke. Many of them were actually his pupils and all were largely inspired by his example. Of this group many have already finished their work—Waitz, Droysen, Nitzsch, and Duncker. Others, Mommsen, Sybel, Wattenbach, are still living and active. Ranke did not discover any new principle of historical composition or investigation. The basis of the "modern historical school" is nothing more than the simple proposition that, when one undertakes to repeat a story, he is in duty bound to make sure that it rests upon evidence as unimpeachable as human testimony can be. Obvious as this proposition seems to be, it had not, in the time before Ranke, been made much use of for pedagogic purposes. Ranke's great merit was that he brought into academic teaching the principle of historical research which he and every other really conscientious historian had always employed—or believed himself to be employing—in the writing of history. In other words, Ranke was the first person who began systematically to train historians as a part of the work of a university. He gathered about him in his *exercitationes historicæ* at Berlin a group of young men whom he inspired with his own love of truth, his accuracy, thoroughness, and diligence. In this school the pupil learned the trade of writing history. He was taught to collate manuscripts, to apply to them all known tests of genuineness, to question their authors as to capacity and accuracy and intention—in short, to prepare his story with all thoroughness before he began to tell it.

But Ranke had also another lesson to teach. He was not merely a collector of materials; he was a writer of admirable force and with no little charm of style. He wrote voluminously, and his books, resting upon enormous research, were singularly free from the smell of the lamp. His pupils gained, therefore, from him the lesson that all their training was a means, not an end. The names of Mommsen, Sybel, Droysen, Duncker, and Giesebrecht are connected each with some monumental work written for the great reading public as well as for scholars, and each already a classic within its field.

But now began with the second academic generation a new phase of the development. The German historian has not been, like the English one, a gentleman of letters, or perhaps even a clergyman or a diplomat. He has been, almost without exception, a teacher, and, like the rest of his countrymen, he has been moved by the laudable wish to magnify his office from its professional side. The children of Ranke became the intellectual parents of a progeny, numbered no longer by units, but by tens. They found it quite possible to apply in their teaching all those principles of research and of treatment which they had learned from their master and had been themselves applying in their own writings. But that other element of the historian, the large grasp upon the movement of human life, the instinctive right valuation of human motive, and the power to present his conclusions in a form to command attention—these things could not be taught to every pupil, could indeed hardly be taught at all. Naturally, therefore, the weight of the "modern historical school" came to be thrown upon the "professional" elements of the study, and its achievement in this direction can hardly be overestimated. In every field of historical inquiry, but especially in that of German history, the sources have been subjected to a searching analysis, and the results have been embodied in the form of improved editions and of countless hundreds of short treatises upon controverted points.

Meanwhile, the family of professional *Historiker* has gone on increasing. The great-grandchildren of Ranke are now to be counted by the score. In the University of Berlin there are at present twenty-one instructors in political history alone, not including those who teach the history of art, science, literature, law, etc. This great increase has been largely furthered by the rapid development of the historical "Seminar." From the modest beginning of Ranke's *exercitationes*, the Seminar has now become a recognized institution by itself. At Berlin and Leipzig it is an organization independent of the University, excepting that its director is a professor. It has its own rooms and its own library, and makes its own by-laws. It has done for the German student the service which we should regard as an essential duty of the University—to give him a quiet place where he may freely consult a considerable number of books. As to its permanent value for the cause of historical teaching and writing, opinions (even in Germany) are very much divided. Evidently its tendency is in the direction of extreme specialization, with all its attendant ills; it is helping to encourage a petty and pedantic view of scholarship, which is sure to react unfavorably upon the teaching as well as upon the writing of the future. It is accused by its opponents of being a hothouse for mediocrity, by means of which talents which might better be occupied with some mechanical work are coddled into a fictitious activity. That there is much danger in this direction must be apparent to any one who examines the voluminous productions of these schools, and tests it by the standards of actual value for the cause of learning. Whether the Germans, by wise measures of restraint, will entirely escape this danger, remains a question. For us in America the warning is a timely one, and we have to see to it that in our haste to copy whatever Germany sets before us, we do not suffer the phrase "a gentleman and a scholar" to vanish from our vocabulary.

In any effort to maintain a fair balance between the two views of history—as a "science" which may be taught, and as a branch of "polite learning" demanding above all an acute mind and wide cultivation—the scholars of the future can hardly fail to point to Giesebrecht's activity as a happy combination of both these elements. E. E.

CHARLES IV. OF LORRAINE.

PARIS, January 9, 1890.

IT is marvellous to see with what zeal historical studies are now pursued; and I do not speak only of general history—each province, each town, of France nas now its local historians. The province of Lorraine is assuredly one which deserves much interest, in virtue of its geographical position, of its relations with Alsace and with the Palatinate, of its dubious diplomacy, which so often threatened the most vital interests of France. In the east of France, there is an old proverb which says, "Lorrain, villain, traître à Dieu et à son prochain." The judgment is severe; it is hardly too severe for Charles IV. of Lorraine, who has recently found his historian. M. des Robert, who styles himself a member of the Academy of Stanislas (Stanislas was the Duke of Lorraine who made of Nancy the fine city which we now admire), has written two long volumes on the 'Campaigns of Charles IV., Duke of Lorraine and of Bar, in Franche-Comté, Alsace-Lorraine and Flanders, and in Germany.' The period embraced by the historian extends from 1634 to 1643.

Charles IV. was the son of François of Lorraine Vaudemont and of Christine of Salm, and was born on April 5, 1604. He was a great-grandson of Catherine de Médicis, and he certainly had in his blood something of the Italian condottiere. At the age of sixteen he took part in the battle of Prague, with his father, who was at the time the General of the Catholic League. He was only twenty when he became Duke of Lorraine by his marriage with the Duchess Nicole, the daughter of Duke Henri II., who was the true sovereign, as the Salic law did not exist in Lorraine. He was not contented with being the Duke Consort, and, in virtue of a supposed will of Duke René II., made in favor of the male line, he invited the States of Lorraine to proclaim his father, François of Vaudemont, Duke, and a few days afterwards his father abdicated in his favor (1625).

His marriage with Nicole was a forced union, and from the first day the Duchess was treated with contempt by her husband. She was a mere child, only thirteen years old, and when she became a woman she never succeeded in captivating her husband's affection. He was leading an agitated life, engaged in all kinds of intrigues. In 1632 he received at his court Gaston d'Orléans, who had fled from France, and who secretly married the Duke's sister. A royal army entered Lorraine, Gaston was obliged to fly to Brussels, and Charles IV. signed a treaty in which he abandoned four of his fortresses to Louis XIII. While Richelieu quelled the revolt of Montmorency, the French army invested Nancy, and Charles of Lorraine was forced to accept the Cardinal's terms, and to surrender more of his towns. Still, he would not cease to conspire with the enemies of the Cardinal; he was declared a rebel, Nancy was taken, and he fled, leaving his duchy in the hands of the French.

We find him in Besançon at the opening of M. des Robert's work. He had thrown his lot completely in with the Empire against France. He was also attracted in this imperial city by the charms of a young lady whom he had first seen in Brussels, Béatrix de Cusance, one of the handsomest women of her time (Van Dyke

has left us her portrait). Charles himself was very handsome, and Béatrix had fallen in love with him. The Duchess Nicole had not followed him into exile; she was living at Fontainebleau, where she was a willing prisoner of France. Charles invited his wife to join him at Besançon, but his invitation was a mere form. M. des Robert gives in his notes the text of six inedited letters from Charles to his wife Nicole, written in 1634. Charles boldly asked for the hand of Béatrix de Cusance, saying that his own marriage, made by force, was null. Her parents refused her to him, and she was married in February, 1635, to the Prince of Cantecroix, who belonged to one of the most illustrious families of Franche-Comté.

The mutual passion of Charles and Béatrix was not diminished by her marriage, and, towards the end of the campaign which the Duke made in Franche-Comté, when he defended that province successfully against the Prince of Condé (the father of the Great Condé), we find him, during an illness, staying at the castle of Belvoir with the Princess of Cantecroix till he could be transported to Besançon. When he was obliged to retire from Franche-Comté by the forces of Bernard of Saxe-Weimar, who had become the ally of France, he left Béatrix at Sierck, a pretty town of Lorraine built on the River Moselle, and retreated by way of Luxembourg to Brussels, where he arrived in the month of April, 1639. He was lodged in the palace of the Cardinal-Infant with Prince Thomas of Savoy, who had also put his sword and his military genius at the service of Spain. Béatrix, who was in an advanced state of pregnancy, asked her mother, the Marchioness of Berzhes, who had a palace in Brussels, permission to visit her for her confinement. But Charles, seeing that her presence was not desired by the Cardinal-Infant, left Brussels and joined her at Sierck.

The Prince of Cantecroix died in September, 1637, and Béatrix was determined to become the wife of the Duke of Lorraine. The Duke was inclined at the time to negotiate with Richelieu and to join his forces with those of France; but the Duchess Nicole was the prisoner and the guest of the King of France, who could not abandon her interests, and Charles was unwilling to abandon the Princess of Cantecroix. He was also unwilling to betray the interests of Marguérite of Lorraine, the unrecognized wife of Gaston d'Orléans, who was in the hands of the Spaniards at Brussels. The Princess now openly called herself the Duchess of Lorraine. The real Duchess, Nicole, had delivered herself to the French after the capture of Nancy. She protested against the illegal union of her husband with Béatrix, which took place under the following circumstances: Charles, while in Brussels, having pretended to have received news of the death of Nicole, went into mourning, received the condolence of everybody, and started immediately for Besançon, where one of his servants, disguised as a priest, married him to the Princess of Cantecroix. The Duchess Nicole had not even been ill, and the comedy was soon the talk of all Europe. The Duchess protested, and a sentence of excommunication was threatened by Pope Urban VIII. against the Duke. Charles forbade his subjects to read the manifesto of his wife, which he pronounced to have been dictated by Richelieu.

Charles had two children by Mme. de Cantecroix—a daughter, who became Mme. de Lislebonne, and, two years afterwards, a son, who became the Prince of Vaudemont. Nicole only died seventeen years after the birth of this last prince, and childless. Béatrix, whom we will continue to call Mme. de Cantecroix, did all she could to hinder Charles from getting reconciled with France, but his situation had become too critical. We have not spoken of his campaigns. He was one of the best generals of his time, a worthy foe of Bernard of Saxe-Weimar, of the Duc de Rohan, of Turenne, who was getting his military education under Cardinal La Valette; but he was poor; he had great difficulty in keeping his soldiers together; he had barely been able to win victories, he was more often in retreat. His ally, Gaston d'Orléans, lived quietly at Blois; could he not live quietly at Nancy? The negotiation with Richelieu was long and difficult. Charles acted boldly; he threw himself almost unconditionally into the hands of Louis XIII. "My cousin," said the King to him at the first interview at St. Germain, "the past is completely forgotten; I think only of giving you in future proofs of my friendship."

Richelieu was not sentimental; he imposed hard conditions on the Duke, and made himself, in reality, the master of all the strongholds of Lorraine. Charles was treated like a vassal; he had to present the King of France with the County of Bar, in his own name as well as in that of the Duchess Nicole. Nancy was to remain in the hands of the King till the conclusion of the general peace. Charles IV. did not stay long in Paris: he hurried back to Lorraine in order to organize his army, leaving the Duchess Nicole in Paris. He continued to live with the Princess of Cantecroix, who was proverbially known as his "femme de campagne" (his camp follower). He began to conspire with the enemies of Richelieu as soon as his forces were reorganized. He certainly was looked upon by the Lorrainers as the representative of their cause. Béatrix also became popular, notwithstanding the irregularity of her position. The Spaniards made him offers every day, and valued him more since he had shown that he could join their enemies. Richelieu knew the duplicity of Charles, and when the Duke asked permission to remain neutral between France and Spain, he was not long in understanding that this neutrality covered a real hostility. In vain did the King of France offer the Duke of Lorraine the command of one of his armies: the Duke insisted upon reëntering into possession of the whole of his duchy. Finally, he threw off the mask and joined the Imperials.

It is impossible not to be struck with a certain analogy between the policy of the Duke of Lorraine and of the Dukes of Savoy, who have also been accused of traditional treachery. Lorraine, as well as Savoy, was between the hammer and the anvil; there was, however, this difference: the princes of the house of Savoy were more or less consciously the representatives of a cause, of the cause of Italy, of Italian nationality. Who would say that there ever was a Lorraine nationality? Italy is a well-defined geographical province; Lorraine has no natural frontier, except on the side of the Vosges; it is too small a province to pretend to be a country. France was manifestly obliged to absorb Lorraine, and the struggles of Charles IV. were of no avail.

It is to be hoped that M. des Robert will continue his work and follow Charles IV. to the end of his adventurous career. He is a most inexperienced writer, but he has taken great pains in collecting documents. An historian will find ample details in his books, which will serve to give us a living image of this singular Don Juan in love, and his politics—this condottiere who lived for nothing but for war, who was never contented with a half sovereignty, and who could never conquer the plenitude of sovereignty; a curious type, on the whole, semi-feudal and semi-modern, with extraordinary vices and extraordinary qualities; not to be forgotten, and deserving to have a place among the men who had something left in them of the spirit of the sixteenth century, though they lived in the seventeenth, and contributed to form the new equilibrium which persisted till the French Revolution.

Correspondence.

PRESIDENT LINCOLN AS A COLONIZATIONIST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Southern people may not be very wise at this time in suggesting the plan of colonizing the colored people as a solution of the race question; but in doing so they are only carrying out Mr. Lincoln's favorite idea. He did not believe that the two races could get on in a condition of freedom. It is to be hoped that he was wrong in this conviction, but it was honestly held; and the Southern people are just as honest in holding it as he was. He pressed the colonization of the colored people in his annual messages to Congress in December, 1861, and December, 1862; in his message of April, 1862, approving the bill for the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia; in his appeal to the border States in July, 1862; and in his Emancipation Proclamation of September, 1862. Congress responded to his views by provisions for colonization in the acts of April 16, 1862, the section passing in the Senate by a vote of 27 to 10, as a part of the bill abolishing slavery in the District of Columbia; the act of June 7, 1862, for the collection of taxes in insurrectionary districts; and the acts of July 16 and 17, 1862, in relation to confiscation.

The State Department, at Mr. Lincoln's instance, instructed our ministers to promote it with foreign governments having tropical dependencies, as England, France, Holland, and Denmark (Seward to Adams, September 30, 1862; Adams to Seward, October 30, 1862; Seward to Adams, November 18, 1862); but Earl Russell declined to coöperate in the scheme. Mr. Lincoln directed, September 12, 1862, the Secretary of the Interior to procure information as to the best places for the colored people to be sent to; and Central America and the province of Chiriqui in New Granada were favored as points for colonization. Mr. Lincoln persuaded Senator Pomeroy of Kansas, who had opposed the scheme in the Senate, to assist in its execution; and the Ile-à-Vache, a Haytian possession, was finally selected as the place. Mr. Lincoln, with his own signature—an exceptional act for a President and showing his extraordinary interest (Senator Doolittle a subscribing witness)—entered, December 31, 1862, into a contract with one Bernard Kock of New Orleans to ship 5,000 negroes to that island; but this contract being rescinded, another contract was made April 6, 1863, with Paul S. Forbes and Charles K. Tuckerman of New York. A ship-load of 453 colonists, gathered mostly about Fortress Monroe, sailed April 13 to the island, and arrived May 3. They had a sad time of it, and, being thinned by disease, death, and desertion, those who were left—about 300—were brought back by our Government, and reached Washington March 18, 1864. The firm of Forbes & Tuckerman lost money by the venture, and Tuckerman received the Mission to Greece as a compensation.

So ended the attempt, backed by the Govern-

ment, to solve the great problem according to the plan on which Mr. Lincoln had set his heart. *

THE RULE OF APPOINTMENTS TO THE SUPREME COURT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: When the Supreme Court of the United States was first organized, its justices were appointed from six of the most important States—Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, and South Carolina. From that time until the civil war the members of that court were, I believe, quite generally drawn one from each judicial circuit. Your recent editorial, "The Supreme Court," quotes President Lincoln's opinion that such considerations should be of weight; but it has not been noticed, perhaps, that the precedents which he disregarded, under compulsion, were somewhat neglected during the terms of his Republican successors, and first revived by President Cleveland in his two nominations. What is now the First Circuit (Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island), has had one, and only one, representative on the bench of the Supreme Court from 1789 to the present time. The same is substantially true of the Second Circuit, including Vermont, Connecticut, and New York; it had the Chief Justiceship from 1789 to 1800, and has had an unbroken series of associate justices from 1806 to 1890. In what is now the Third Circuit there was one interruption. Justice Washington of Virginia was appointed in 1798 to succeed Justice Wilson of Pennsylvania, but on his death the succession reverted to the Third Circuit in the person of Justice Baldwin, and there it has remained ever since. I think a more careful examination than I have been able to make here in Berlin would show that the same was approximately true in the other circuits. During the civil war the Fourth and Fifth Circuits which included the seceding States, lost their representatives by death or resignation. The Fourth Circuit has not yet regained its position on the bench; the Fifth regained it in 1880 by the confirmation of Justice Woods of Georgia. When President Cleveland entered office, two circuits, the Fourth and the Seventh, were unrepresented, while the Sixth had secured their two members in addition to its own. His nomination of Senator Lamar to succeed Justice Woods was in accord with the precedent of drawing the successor from the same circuit. The death of Chief-Justice Waite, one of the three members from the Sixth Circuit, gave an opportunity to introduce greater equality. The opportunity was accepted in the nomination of Mr. Fuller from the Seventh Circuit, which had been unrepresented since the resignation of Justice Davis in 1877. If a successor to Justice Matthews had been found by President Harrison in the Fourth Circuit, each of the nine would have had one representative. As it is, the Eighth has two. Whether the precedent to which President Cleveland would seem to have returned, and which President Harrison has neglected, be a wise one, others must decide.

Yours respectfully,
Walter F. Willcox.

Berlin, January 6, 1890.

"THE RESIDUUM" IN BALTIMORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While reading the discussions by your correspondents as to the political party to which the bulk of the "Residuum" is attached, it occurred to me that the following facts might be of interest:

In Baltimore city, in 1888, Mr. Cleveland received 44,604 votes and Gen. Harrison 39,559. Of the votes for Harrison, about 12,500 were cast by colored people and 27,000 by white persons—that is, about five white men voted the Democratic ticket for every three who voted the Republican. This proportion was, however, not uniform throughout the city. The fashionable quarter of Baltimore lies between Park Avenue on the west, Centre Street on the south, and Jones Falls on the east and north. This area includes Mt. Vernon Place and the best portion of Charles, St. Paul, and Calvert Streets. Nearly all of this area lies within the First and Second Precincts of the Eleventh Ward, and the Eighth Precinct of the Eighth Ward. In these precincts Gen. Harrison had 315 votes, about 110 of which were cast by negroes, leaving 205 to be given him by the whites. Mr. Cleveland received 867, or more than four times as many. The Third, Fifth, Sixth, Seventh, and Ninth Precincts of the Second Ward, the First and Fourth of the Fourth Ward, and the First, Second, and Fourth of the Ninth Ward include within their boundaries the worst slums in the city, known locally as the "Causeway," the "Meadow," and the "Space." They have within them 417 saloons, brothels, or gambling hells, or about one to every ten registered voters. Gen. Harrison received in these precincts 977 votes, of which about 200 were contributed by negroes, leaving 777 as the number given for him by white men. The vote for Mr. Cleveland was 2,433, or more than three times as great. In the worst precinct of the whole lot, the First of the Ninth Ward, in which there are about 100 saloons and worse places, or one to every five voters, the white vote was distributed about as follows: Cleveland 390, Harrison 30; Cleveland thus getting about thirteen times as many as Harrison. On the other hand, in the First Ward, in southeast Baltimore, and in the Eighteenth Ward, in southwest Baltimore, the population of both wards being largely composed of the better class of mechanics and skilled laborers, largely of American or German extraction, although there are a great many Irish in each ward, the white vote was divided about as follows: Cleveland 4,072, Harrison 3,925.

In other words, in this city the Democratic party comprises the enormous majority of the residents in the fashionable neighborhoods and in the "slums," as well as practically all the Irish vote, while American and German mechanics and laborers are not unevenly divided; and whatever preponderance there is, is probably in favor of the Republican party.

Very respectfully, J. C. R.

Baltimore, January 25, 1890.

NEW MATTER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: One of the most important subjects with which our Government has to deal in the future is the currency. It is, perhaps, even more important than the tariff, which is in the main a tax upon the many for the benefit of the few, though it has collateral effects which are perhaps even worse. But if we consider how completely every act and condition of our lives is bound up with the currency, that it is as essential to life itself as the atmosphere we breathe, we can understand that its purity is as important as that of the atmosphere. A volume might be written on the misery which has been caused by unsound currencies, and the miracles in restoration of public health which have followed upon their reform.

Our national-banking system is probably, and, in proportion to its development, certainly, the strongest in the world. The requirement of a large percentage of cash reserve against deposits is a rock foundation which has carried us for twenty years without serious disaster, and may do so through many more such periods, if its strength is not too severely tried by the enormous superstructure of State banks called trust companies. It is worth noting that, from the Revolution to the Civil War, all the serious financial trouble of the country came from the State banks.

As regards currency, apart from banking, the case is widely different. We have four kinds already in existence—greenbacks, national-bank notes, gold certificates, and silver certificates—while a fifth is looming up in the future on the fearful and wonderful plan proposed by Secretary Windom. As the Government debt is paid off, the basis of the national-bank notes is disappearing, and if that process should become complete, the whole system would be under the direct control of the Government—that is, of committees of Congress worked by the lobby. Is that a promising outlook?

If we claim that our system of deposit banking is stronger and better than that of Great Britain, we can afford to concede to her the advantage in respect to currency. The system established by the Act of 1844 has proved itself, after half a century, as it is the most scientific in theory, to be also the soundest in practice, of any currency not wholly metallic, and, if transplanted to this country, perhaps with some modifications, would give us in this respect what we most need. But what chance it there of Congress doing this or anything like it? There is not enough plunder in it for the private interests which make up the lobby, which rules the committees. It is conceived altogether too much from the point of view of the public welfare for which nobody cares—that is, nobody who has any power to do anything.

The English Act of 1844 is equally well known as Peel's Act—that is, it was the work of one man; of course, subject to his responsibility to Parliament and public opinion. All our financial success during the war, and, under the circumstances, it was very great, was owing to the fact that Congress, frightened into submission, surrendered the subject into the hands of Mr. Chase. No doubt Congress did save the country from immense disaster by resolutely refusing to allow the greenbacks to exceed $450,000,000; but then that is just what Congress is fitted for and can do best, namely, to hold the one-man power in check, that is, exercise the veto power, which is now so absurdly applied at the other end.

As there is no subject more important than the currency, so there is none which more needs the hand of one man, representing the national interest and authority, and sobered by the consciousness that he has to fight the battle with local interests under the eye of the nation. It may be said that we have no Secretaries of the Treasury available for such work. I answer that our Secretaries are quite good enough for the work we give them to do. If the Treasury were made a first-class place, with first-class work to accomplish and first-class reputation to be won, and the candidates were tried by fire in Congressional debate, we may rely upon it that the right man would, ere long, come to the front, just as in time of dire need there came to us Lincoln and Grant. G. B.

Boston, January 23, 1890.

THE ANCESTRY OF WASHINGTON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: My friend Mr. Whitmore has kindly sent me a copy of your last number containing an interesting letter from "C." about "The Lost Washington Wills," etc. If "C." will look into vol. 43 (p. 81) of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, or into my 'Gleanings' (Part iii., p. 299), he will find a large abstract of the will of Washington's grandfather, Lawrence Washington (1697), of which Sir Isaac Heard seems to have made an abstract which he enclosed in a letter to Washington. That will, as my 'Gleanings' show, was proved in the Prerogative Court of Canterbury (Book Noel 186), 10 December, 1700, by the oath of Mildred Gale *als* Washington (wife of George Gale), one of the executors, power reserved for the other two, etc. And my English friend Mr. J. C. C. Smith furnished to the *Genealogist* of January, 1883 (vol. 7), some extracts from the will of Mrs. Gale, made during the lifetime of her last husband and with his consent. Her husband took probate of her will and gave bonds for guardianship of the children, John, Augustine, and Mildred Washington. Mr. Smith appended a pedigree from which it appeared that George Gale removed to Maryland, where four sons of his were living in 1712.

I am obliged to "C." for his extract from Lodge's Life of Washington. I wish I had known of it before, when I was in England and *warm* on the subject. I should have liked to ferret out the "C. H." at whose house Col. John Washington was "sometimes seen." I rather wonder that some good friend did not bring this to my notice as a suggestive clue.

I should like exceedingly to have the privilege of looking over Col. Chester's collection concerning the family of Roades. That is a branch of the Washington problem which should receive more attention than I have felt at liberty to bestow upon it. I have, to be sure, some unpublished notes, one of which, I recollect, seemed to me quite important as bringing into intimate relations a respectable family of Roades and that branch of the family of Sandys which was settled in Cambridgeshire, especially important in view of the mention made of places in Cambridgeshire by Dame Margaret (Washington) Sandys, a sister of the Lawrence Washington who, as I suggest, married Amphillis Roades.

Henry F. Waters.

Salem, Mass., January 25, 1890.

Notes.

The third and concluding volume of Fyffe's 'History of Modern Europe' (1848–1878) is in the press of Henry Holt & Co.

A desideratum of long standing has been an edition of Darwin's 'Voyage Round the World,' with views of the places visited and representations of the animals described. This is now announced by D. Appleton & Co. The illustrations are chiefly from sketches taken on the spot by R. J. Pritchett. The same firm will issue also 'Five Thousand Miles in a Sledge,' being a mid-winter journey across Siberia, by Lionel F. Gowing; 'Exercises in Wood-Working,' by Ivin Sickels, M.D.; 'Hygiene for Childhood,' by Francis H. Rankin, M.D.; and 'Evolution of Man and Christianity,' by the Rev. Howard MacQueary.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. are to reprint Prof. Richard T. Ely's 'Problems of To-day' and 'The Labor Movement in America.'

Thomas Whitaker will publish directly 'Church and Creed,' by Prof. Momerie; 'The Battle of Life,' mission sermons by the Rev. Wilmot Buxton; 'Thought-Seed for Holy Seasons,' by the Rev. Robert S. Barrett; and a 'Treatise on Dogmatic Theology,' in two volumes, by Prof. Buel.

John Wiley & Sons have in preparation 'A Technical Dictionary,' by Park Benjamin; a 'Railroad Engineers' Field-Book and Explorers' Guide,' by H. C. Godwin; and 'Simple Elements of Navigation,' by Lucien Young, U.S.N.

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready 'Plant Organization,' a guide in private or class study, by Prof. R. Halsted Ward of the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute.

Funk & Wagnalls have in preparation 'Wendell Phillips the Agitator,' by Carlos Martyn; 'A Cyclopædia of Temperance and Prohibition,' in a single volume; 'The Economics of Prohibition,' by the Rev. J. C. Fernald; 'The Seven Churches of Asia,' by Howard Crosby, D.D.; and 'Calvary Pulpit,' sermons by R. S. MacArthur, D.D.

King's 'Hand-book of the United States,' edited by the competent hand of M. F. Sweetser, with revision of the various sections by eminent experts, will make a volume of some 700 pages, and be profusely illustrated with maps and pictures.

The Oneida Historical Society of Utica, N. Y., is undertaking a new and more complete list of historical societies in the United States. The Corresponding Secretary is Gen. C. W. Darling, and he is prepared to send blank circulars pointing to the information desired. We miss queries (other than "Annual Expenditures for Publications?") that would help determine the real *life* of such societies beyond mere collection.

Subscriptions are invited by N. Murray, P. O. drawer 2, Baltimore, Md., to a proposed volume of the principal literary essays and studies of Prof. Basil L. Gildersleeeve of Johns Hopkins University. The edition will be limited. The topics are: "Limits of Culture," "Classics and Colleges," "University Work in America," "Grammar and Æsthetics," "Legend of Venus," "Xantippe and Socrates," "Apollonius of Tyana," "Lucien," "The Emperor Julian," "Platen's Poems," "Maximilian, Emperor of Mexico," and Occasional Addresses.

A revision of Flügel's well-known German-English Lexicon by the son and grandson of the founder is now passing through the press in Leipzig.

A flat quarto 'Souvenir Volume of the Centennial Celebration and the Catholic Congress, 1789–1889' (Detroit: Wm. H. Hughes), contains the proceedings of the first American Catholic Congress and the dedication of the Catholic University during the past year. As Dr. Henry F. Brownson, who writes the introduction, thinks "it can hardly be doubted that this is destined to be a Catholic land," Catholic discoverers having been the first to claim it for "Christ's heritage," there ought to be a lively interest in the personality of the divine instruments in this not inconsiderable job. The publisher meets this demand by offering a very large number of portraits of the Catholic clergy and laity associated with the two events mentioned above.

A very ample 'Dictionary of Quotations in Prose from American and Foreign Authors, including translations from Ancient Sources,' edited by Anna L. Ward (Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.), supplements the same editor's 'Dictionary of Poetical Quotations.' There are 6,000 extracts from 553 authors, arranged under catch-words, with indexes both of the authors and the extracts. The editor has made her own choice, without regard to the familiarity of the quotations. The most quoted authors are Alcott, Beecher, Carlyle, Channing, Beaconsfield, Emerson, Hazlitt, Johnson, Ruskin, Shakspere, Holland, Bacon, Amiel, Landor, Lowell, Cicero, and the Hares. Among minor names we notice Birrell, Winter, Stedman, Hamerton, Haweis, Joseph Roux, Mabie, Scudder, Nadal, etc., many of whom are fully represented. These names indicate the quality of the book, which will prove serviceable to those who have occasion for such a volume.

The Rev. Washington Frothingham has collected from his journalistic labors of many years a volume under the title 'Our Book' (G. W. Dillingham), and has coupled with his own name as author that of the late Charlemagne Tower; the share of the latter having been to suggest the work and generously provide funds for its publication. The articles are brief, often hardly more than paragraphs, but also frequently continuing the same subject under a series of minor headings. They are very various in matter—literary, biographical, and historical—and afford a curious monument of newspaper labor, and, we will add, of the direction of the munificence of a millionaire Harvard graduate.

President Andrews of Brown University is the author of a text-book of political economy for the use of colleges and schools, entitled 'Institutes of Economics' (Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co.). A peculiarity of the treatise is the use of heavy type for the chief words, which is, perhaps, convenient for students, but makes the book painful reading for those who are not obliged to cram for examination. The author follows to a great extent the theories of the German writers upon the subject—we can hardly call it science as they treat it—but refers to many opposing views. A valuable feature is the abundance of instructive notes, which form a running commentary upon the text. Owing to the extremely condensed form of the treatise, which numbers only about 225 pages, many statements appear to us to be too sweeping, but instructors in this department will find it a convenient summary of doctrine.

'The Essentials of Physical Diagnosis,' by Dr. J. Wallace Anderson (Macmillan & Co.), a little book for medical students, is clearly written and correctly named.

'Electricity in Facial Blemishes,' by Dr. P. S. Hayes (Chicago, W. T. Keener), is intended for the medical profession, and gives the author's method of procedure, which seems effective but delicate, so that its successful employment will probably not extend beyond expert hands.

'Artists' Wives' and 'Jack' are the two latest volumes by Alphonse Daudet that have appeared in the series of prettily illustrated translations published by George Routledge & Sons. Both bear date of the present year, though they have been out for a couple of months at the least. 'Jack' is the well-known novel of the same name in the French, a somewhat too long and quite too distressing history of a child to whom the *recherche de la paternité* is not permitted by French law. The other, a translation of 'Les Femmes d'Artistes,' has all the appearance of being a collection of magazine sketches, though we do not remember seeing any of them before. They are plainly early work, one of them being obviously a first sketch of the very offensive poet whose full portrait is drawn in 'Jack.' The common theme of all of them—the incompatibility of the artistic temperament with the conditions of every-day life—also, perhaps, points in the same direction. Both translations are by Mrs. Laura Ensor. The illustrations,

some of them very good, have been taken over from the French editions.

We have received thus far of Prof. De Gubernatis's 'Dictionnaire International des Écrivains du Jour' (Florence: Louis Niccolai), the first eleven parts, carrying the work down to Jalabert. When completed it will deserve a place in all public and the best private libraries alongside of Vapereau, 'Men of the Time,' 'Celebrities of the Century,' Kürschner's 'Literatur-Kalender,' and like books of reference. Nevertheless it is a pity that the editing is not characterized by a German thoroughness and exactitude. We note among omissions the Spanish novelist Galdós; the German theologian, Oscar von Gebhardt, Tischendorf's successor as editor of the Greek New Testament, the Fathers, and the 'Texte und Untersuchungen zur Geschichte der altchristlichen Literatur'; Karl Goedecke, author of 'Grundriss der Geschichte der deutschen Literatur,' one of the most important works of its kind, of 'Goethe's Leben,' and editor of all the recent Cotta editions of Goethe and Schiller; H. von Holst; John Burroughs, Dr. O. W. Holmes, Rev. George E. Ellis, author of the 'Life of Rumford,' etc., etc. The American portion needs a thorough overhauling. Mr. Howells's middle name is omitted; the titles of several of his works are enclosed in quotation marks as if one, *e. g.*, 'A Chance Acquaintance, poems'; 'The Garroters' becomes 'The Garreters.' T. W. Higginson and John Fiske are said, the one to have been born, the other to reside, in "New-Cambridge," and the historical works of both these writers are overlooked. Under Willard Fiske, the *Nation* is planted in Boston. Edgar Fawcett is disguised as "Edgard Fawcet." Charles W. Eliot is said to be President of "*Harvard May.*" Such blundering is not confined to English. On p. 997, under Freytag, "Iago and Ingraban" stands for "Ingo," etc.; "Das Rest der Zaunkönige," for "Das Nest," etc.; "Karl Matloy," for "Karl Mathy." On p. 996, under Adolphe Frey, Salis-Seewis appears twice as "Salis-Seervis." On p. 1113, Gescheidlen is entered "Gescheiden." The Italian side of this dictionary is, evidently, the one for which we must be most grateful, and which we can trust most implicitly.

Remarkable accuracy in the printing of English is to be set down to the credit of Egisto Rossi, author (after two visits to this country) of a monograph on 'La Istruzione Pubblica negli Stati Uniti' (Rome, 1889). Rossi is very favorably disposed to our common-school system, and to the spirit of home rule and self-help on which it is based, and which he would fain foster among his own countrymen. He points to Franklin, Morse, Howe, Bell, and Edison as emanations from the common school, and not a spontaneous product of soil or race. The brochure fills 150 pages 4to, and is indexed. It abounds in useful tables and well-marshalled statistics.

A fourth number of the catalogue of the Codici Palatini in the National Central Library of Florence, and a seventh in that of the Codici Panciatichiani in the same library, are before us. The former contains the preliminary matter designed to introduce the completed volume, and two admirable indices to the prose and poetry. Seventy pages of "first lines" offer a tempting field for the imagination of poets of all countries, with many a modern application: "Gallia superba, che d'armata gente"; "O Monarchi Europei, ch' armi tonanti"; "Nel giorno che i duo Re col terzo Mauro" (the triple alliance), etc.

Part 18 of the new 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas' (Westermann) embraces maps of the Balkan Peninsula, of southeastern Africa (with side maps of Abyssinia and Zanzibar), and the West Indies.

The latest issues of *L'Art* (Macmillan) have been occupied still with the Exposition, particularly with the Century of Painters, in connection with which a great number of portraits have been reproduced, as was most fitting. But sculpture and ceramics, and what Chaucer calls goldsmithrie, the art of Japan and of Persia, have also been taken up. In No. 611 P. G. Molmenti speaks sensibly, but with deep feeling, of industrial encroachments upon the beautiful in Venice, and of the general incongruity of the later architecture with that which has made Venice the attraction of the world. A projected post-office promises to be one of the worst examples.

The latest issue of the Bulletin of the Boston Public Library contains an interesting account, with plates, of a signature of the name Wllm Shakspeare, with the words "hundred and twenty poundes" following, found in the binding of a Plutarch of 1603, purchased ten years ago. The question whether this is an autograph of Shakspere is elaborately discussed by the Librarian, who arrives at a conclusion not unfavorable (but also not decisive) to its authenticity. The probability of forging is very slight; the age of the writing is certainly very great; but it is still possible that the name was written by another than Shakspere's hand. Careful comparison with the true autographs is made, and both resemblances and differences are pointed out. The plates aid the reader to an entire comprehension of the facts in the case, and place the material for judgment before the eye.

A portrait of the new Supreme Court Justice, David J. Brewer, stands as frontispiece to the January number of the *Green Bag*, which is otherwise noticeable for an article on "Women Lawyers in the United States," by one of them (Leila J. Robinson), with numerous portraits in the fashion of this journal. "The woman lawyer," we are told, "exists to quite as numerous a degree in the married state as in that of single blessedness," and perhaps a majority began to study after marriage. "Our practice is general in character," writes a lawyer of himself and wife. Miss Robinson herself was the occasion of the Massachusetts laws admitting women to the bar and to justiceships of the peace.

Mr. Stead's new *Review of Reviews* is typographically a reminder of the editor who debased the *Pall Mall Gazette* in the same way. It is cheap-looking to the last degree. It opens with a lot of facsimiles of autograph letters from Gladstone, Salisbury, and other magnates in response to the editor's prospectus and inquiry what they thought of that sort of thing. There is to be a monthly "character sketch" (for January, Henry M. Stanley). There is a list of the new books and blue books of the month, and an index to salient articles in periodicals. The general appearance of the first number of this sixpenny monthly is higgledy-piggledy.

Dr. Schaff is the latest to add a pamphlet, 'Creed Revision in the Presbyterian Churches,' to the flood, past and impending, on the subject of Presbyterian agitation over the Westminster Confession (Scribners). His Lutheran antecedents and Lutheran theology, always frankly avowed during his long service in the Presbyterian Church, make him a fit example and advocate of tolerance in interpreting the creed, and his learning on all the points at issue is, of course, ample. The most significant thing about the progress of the controversy thus far is, however, the small weight that learning and theological expertness appear to be exerting. The anti-revisionists seem to have the best of the argument, logically and ecclesiastically, but the *Zeitgeist*, or something else, has got hold of the vast body of the younger ministers and the elders, who have little or nothing to say in the debate, but who vote with surprising unanimity in favor of revision.

—The February *Atlantic* is a remarkably full number. Old readers of the magazine will not make a mistake if they turn at once to the pages of its oldest contributor, and enjoy the bright wit and latter-day wisdom of Dr. Holmes, who is as happily discursive as ever, and entertains us particularly in this instalment of "Over the Teacups" with a description of life on the planet Saturn, where, it appears, some of our "reforms" have been realized. The most inveterate of theorizers cannot but smile at the conceit of the Isopodic societies, "which insist on bringing back the original equality of the upper and lower limbs," and, by going about on all fours in a private way, hope "to bring the world round to them in the near future"; and no one will wonder at "the endemic disease of the planet, prolonged and inveterate gaping," ending in dislocation of the lower jaw. The Socialists who go under the name of Nationalists will also find instructive matter in the vigorous exposure of Mr. Bellamy's gospel by Francis Walker, in which, sarcastic as the writer is, the most biting passages are his clear statements of the exact meaning of the new doctrines; but President Walker plainly labors at a disadvantage from the flimsiness of the case he demolishes with his root-and-branch logic. Miss Preston's classical paper on the poet Ausonius is a pleasant revival of the early Gallo-Roman civilization, and contains some excellent renderings. The Bering-Sea Question is dealt with to the point that we cannot as a nation make claims the overthrow of which hitherto has been one of the chief honors of our international life. The new Japanese Constitution is outlined in a rather bald way by K. Kaneko; and, finally, there is an unusual number of notices of interesting books in many departments. The magazine may well be congratulated upon such a showing of public and literary topics in addition to the three notable serials which it is giving to its readers.

— The most interesting paper in *Harper's* is Mr. Lathrop's informal report of familiar conversations with Edison, in which he endeavors principally to illustrate the natural inventiveness of Edison's mind, and tells some anecdotes of his early life and the first motions of his genius. It is said that Edison himself insists on the large deductive element in his inventions, and scouts the notion that he discovered anything; he attributes his successes to long and persistent thinking. His career, as here stated, affords a striking confirmation of the truth that it is by taking step after step, and not by making great leaps, that genius attains its power. Another interesting paper of personal reminiscence is contributed by James Hogg, the Scotch writer, upon the habits and ways of De Quincey, in which there is nothing very novel, perhaps, but all is happily told, with a good proportion of that friendly charitableness which De Quincey stands in such need of. Gen. Wolseley's account of the standing army of Great Britain is of the type to be expected, and is handsomely illustrated; the New York banks are described by Mr. Wheatley in the same clear, compendious manner; a long paper on Benvenuto Cellini gives occasion for cuts of his most famous works; Jamaica is

both a travel and a picture subject under the appreciative and artistic hand of Howard Pyle, and the relics of the Lake Dwellers are shown and commented upon in another illustrated paper. Mark Twain makes a humorous contribution by merely printing extracts, from an old medical guide, which do not need his grotesque remarks to appear in themselves monstrous jokes, though otherwise intended. There is a good proportion of verse, but none of it equal to the natural pathos and occasional grace of William Winter's lines upon "The Ship that Sailed."

— *Scribner's* opens with a new number of its African series, upon the Congo savages, in which a good deal of information is given about the tribes and the general characteristics of the Congo State by a competent hand, and the tales of the text are well supported by the physiognomy and surroundings of the natives, including a tree hung with relics of cannibalism. A biographical paper upon Ericsson is principally confined to the facts of the inventor's early life, his Swedish ancestry and bringing up, and a reminder of how much he accomplished. A second paper, however, which may bring the man's individuality nearer, is promised. Mr. Bishop gives a long and detailed account of the literary celebrities of Madrid, of whom he writes with many compliments, and he says a good word for the city itself, usually not highly praised by travellers. The accompanying portraits supply all that is lacking of personal description in the text. The archæological image recently brought from the bottom of a boring in Idaho is the subject of a brief paper; and Mr. Eugene Schuyler tells a pathetic story of a Minnesota emigrant who wandered to Servia and there hunted for his ancestor's treasure, with the assistance and charity of the Servian Prime Minister. He died without success, but there is some reason to think that the treasure was found. The kindness of the Prime Minister is one of the finest traits of this curious story. Mr. Mallock writes sympathetically on the subject of Hungarian castles, with a few prefatory pages of interest upon Palladian architecture. Mr. T. R. Sullivan contributes one of his highly finished short stories upon a romantic motive which belongs to a sort of literature that has passed away.

—The *Century* also brings us a distinctly literary article in a paper of reminiscences of Emerson by a college boy with whom he talked of literature and writing. The notes seem to have been carefully made, and the sentences have the Emersonian manner. The matter is necessarily old, but the picture of Emerson's friendliness with the collegian, his kind companionship and disposition to be helpful, is very happily drawn, and the article is a contribution to Emersoniana worth remarking. The opening paper upon Japan, by John La Farge, is a wonderfully effective rendering in words of artistic impressions of light and color and of the novelty of the Orient, very familiarly and accurately made, and will quicken interest in what is to come from the same pen. The writer has succeeded in the difficult task of giving the sense of enchantment which he felt, and he does it necessarily without effort. Joseph Jefferson deals with Forrest, of whom he speaks with much considerateness with respect to faults of temper, and he closes with an almost photographic glimpse of his first visit to Paris. The religious article is taken up with a discussion of St. Paul's position in freeing the new faith from its Judaizing influences. The Lincoln biography is brought to an end, and the war-paper is really upon Jeff Davis's capture, which is told from all the evidence, and may be regarded as settled in its incidents beyond any further disturbance by the historian. The French Revolution furnishes matter for some striking illustrations. The Congo State is also written of by the U. S. Commissioner, but without the lively directness of the English explorer. The new Constitutions of Washington and Montana, and Greek terracottas, are other subjects, and there is besides a quantity of fiction sufficient for those who do and those who do not enjoy dialect.

—Prof. A. B. Hart contributes to the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* for January an interesting article on the rise of American cities. He points out that in the United States not a city has had its situation determined by considerations of defence, and that in fact most of them are practically defenceless, a striking testimonial to the peaceful character of our age. As to the generalization that "it is much less important for a city to have the length of a great river behind it than to have a good harbor before it," we think that it is of little value, owing to "plurality of causes." The character of the surrounding country and the construction of railroads must be taken into consideration. Nor can we assent to the implication that in manufacturing cities, small and great, the public revenue is more likely to be misspent than in seaports. The returns of taxation do not support this view. The increase of cities having a population of 8,000 and over, from 1800 to 1880, has been from 6 to 286; the percentage of population rising from 3.9 to 22.5. These cities, which have nearly one-fourth of the population, have more than one-half of the foreign element. If the children of foreign parents are counted as foreigners, our large cities have now passed into foreign control. Very striking results appear from the comparison of the ages of Americans and foreigners in some of our cities. In Boston there were, in 1885, 275,000 American-born persons to 132,000 foreign-born. But of the natives 137,000 were minors, while of the foreigners only 12,000 were minors. In New York, of five persons above the age of thirty-five years whom we might meet in 1875, the chances were that four were born abroad. Both in Boston and New York the excess of the female population is due chiefly to the preponderance of foreign-born women. The large requirements of city households for domestic servants partly account for this. We should have been glad of data showing whether the population of our great cities would sustain itself independently of immigration; but it is perhaps impossible to determine this problem. We should be pleased to conclude with Prof. Hart that the government of the cities is likely to improve with experience and the education of the community; but unless this is to be taken as a mere abstract proposition, we fear that it might not be easy to establish it by induction, and we find nothing in this article to support it.

—We noted last March the very severe report of the Cambridge University examiners upon the work of the candidates for commercial certificates. They held it to be almost worthless, and passed only eight out of the forty-nine who were examined. Earlier in the previous year, in July, there had been ninety-seven candidates, of whom no more than seventeen passed. This year's report makes a better showing. In July sixty-six candidates presented themselves, of whom twenty-five obtained certificates. The falling off in the number of applicants was most likely due to the severity of last year's examination and report, but this seems to have been a salutary harshness, for the quality of the work of this year is much improved. A distinct advance has been made in the writing of French and German. The French and German conversation also is improved, many of the candidates having gone abroad during their holidays to get a little practice in it. The examiners say: "The impression left by the examination is that the work, as a whole, was much sounder than last year, and that in some schools the subjects prescribed have been intelligently taught, with results which have a real educational, as well as practical, value."

— A brilliant discovery has been made; and where in the world but at the Peabody Normal College at Nashville, Tenn.? The plan has been invented of intrusting the temperature and the ventilation of each class-room to a committee consisting of students who are particularly interested in that room. These students are instructed in the special method of heating and in the proper means of ventilation for that particular room; they are provided with thermometers, and they doubtless pass an examination as to the delicacy of their sense of smell. They are then made absolutely accountable for the room being always in proper condition. It is singular that so simple a device as this should not have suggested itself to the heads of other institutions: a janitor, even if he were a scientific man, cannot be expected to take a deep interest in the air of a room which he is not obliged to sit in. Future generations will doubtless lament the backwardness of our civilization, when, to take two instances where every place of public resort would do as well, the Peabody Concert Hall in Baltimore has absolutely no means for letting out the intense heat produced by its numerous gas-jets, and when the Johns Hopkins University, the very hot-bed of chemical and physiological learning, holds its public lectures in a room so unprovided with air that persons of any olfactory delicacy find it very difficult to sit them through.

SALTER'S ETHICAL RELIGION.

Ethical Religion. By William Mackintire Salter. Boston: Roberts Bros. 1889. 8vo, pp. 332.

THE devoted leader of the Society of Ethical Culture in Chicago has here collected a number of lectures which were, for the most part, delivered before members of that body. Curiously enough, a volume containing several of these same lectures, in a German translation, was brought out in 1885 in Leipzig, so that Mr. Salter has received a favorable and well-deserved attention abroad before publishing in his own tongue.

The book is, as one might expect from its origin, rather didactic than speculative, and the author disclaims in his preface any other than a practical purpose. Mr. Salter's theory of ethics is, indeed, not entirely kept in the background in the course of the book; nor is he silent as to his opinions upon a number of philosophical and theological problems of a very grave sort. But, on the whole, as he tells us, he writes, not for "scholars," but for "men and women who are in the midst of the stress of life." He hopes to "refresh or invigorate the moral life" of his reader, to stir in some one "a divine discontent with himself and the state of society about him," and meanwhile to "nourish the hope that there is but one outcome of the course and evolution of things, namely, the victory of the good." Such a book must, as far as possible, be received on its own basis, and must be judged as a work of the "literature of power" rather than as a theoretically ambitious treatise.

So regarded, Mr. Salter appears as a distinctly impressive and attractive personality, modest, courageous, simple-minded, generous, and earnest. As for his general doctrine, it is in sum this: Religion is at once "man's supreme interest," and the expression of "man's relation with what is ultimate and supreme in the world." But man's supreme interest is the reverence for the good, and morality is that which, "truly interpreted, does bring man into contact with the final nature of things." This latter proposition Mr. Salter defends by pointing out that, "whatever else I may doubt about, I cannot doubt the law of duty," a law which "is not made and cannot be changed by God or man," and which "belongs to the nature of things." Not only is the moral law, then, a supreme objective fact, but it could not conceivably be otherwise. To one who looks at the matter thus, "morality becomes religion. He alone does a genuinely moral act who does it because he must, because the nature of things bears down upon him to do it. For the crystal, religion would be to become a crystal; to own the pressure that would yield the perfect form. For man it can only be to be a man, to perform the human part of the human task."

This "nature of things" to which Mr. Salter thus appeals is, however, not to be found in the world of sense, as this world now is. Even science, "in the strict sense of the word, knows nothing of right and wrong." "To the pure understanding, virtue and vice do not exist." Facts might "seem as constant as day and night, and yet have no right to be." Nor is the ideal world of morality "another world alongside of the actual world," a Platonic world of eternal essences. Nor has the moral "nature of things" its true source of authority in the will of God. Mr. Salter more than once, in fact, protests against *any* theory which should say that the ideal is, here or elsewhere, as yet *realized*, for "that is an unsatisfactory view of life which leaves us nothing to do." Older forms of faith, too confident of the divine order, have in fact enervated men by assuring them that the right always wins. On the contrary, "justice is always failing in the world"; and while old religions say, "The ideal does rule," the new religion will say, "Let it rule." Even this true religion, like the morality of which it is the "blossoming out," nowhere exists at present (p. 23), but is to come. Its fundamental faith will be that "the note of authority seems to go along with a certain class of ideas," such as humanity and justice. In short, as to this whole relation of the authority of the moral law to the "nature of things," Mr. Salter nowhere speaks more clearly than when he says (p. 19), "The truest revelation, the truest voice of the nature of things, is not in what we see, but in our thoughts of what ought to be. Trust thy dreams, oh Reformer! thou comest never so nigh to the heart and spirit of things as in them."

Our author's "nature of things" is thus very frankly a paradoxical conception, involving a very baffling *esse in potentia* as the "supreme truth" behind our world of experience. In fact, Mr. Salter's moral law, notwithstanding the majesty of its claims, frequently reminds us of the *Homunculus* of Faust, and appears to be saying to humanity:

> "Lasst mich an eurer Seite gehn;
> Mir selbst gelüstet's zu entstehn."

But such potential realities have had, ever since Aristotle, an important place in speculation, and we make no question that the paradoxes of our author's doctrine have a deep foundation in the nature of his topic.

In the further development of his ethics, Mr. Salter, despite his indifference to traditional theology, bears in many respects a strong resemblance to Bishop Butler. One is reminded of the 'Ethical Sermons' by many things in these lectures. In style, to be sure, Mr. Salter is remote enough from the slow-footed Bishop, and moves with the ease of a practised modern speaker, while in many respects his language shows the influence of Emerson. But the doctrine is often very similar to Butler's, save as to matters of theology proper. The appeal is always to the "true human conscience," which, as Mr. Salter explains in his fifth lecture, is independent in its judgments of the accidents of changing custom and opinion. Conscience, or, as Mr. Salter often prefers to call it, "the supreme thought to do what is right," counsels principles which are organizing in their nature, which are rationally supreme over the natural impulses of men's hearts, and which are still not self-executing, but need the coöperation of free agents. The supremacy of these principles is, therefore, as Butler would have said, "authority" as distinguished from "might." The principles are to be found by self-examination. No honest man can doubt them. No higher reason can be given for them than that we know them to be true (p. 70). At the same time, like Butler, our author is glad to appeal, for didactic purposes at least, to the facts of experience, in so far as they illustrate, and even sometimes seem to confirm, those moral truths which are all the while not "matters of fact" at all, but ideals. With a delight in the concrete world such as is very natural for one whose moral ideals must grow occasionally lonesome in their empty heavens, our author follows with satisfaction the partial triumph of morality which Darwinism has made plain as a tendency in human evolution. Very much in the same way, Butler, whose theology was full of somewhat disheartening problems, loved to confirm the divine authority of conscience by appeals to the facts of experience known in his day. And Mr. Salter once more reminds us of Butler in his whole bearing towards what is now called Hedonism in ethics.

We have, of course, no space to follow our author into further details. The lectures are practical discussions, whose chief value lies in the fine temperament that expresses itself in them. They touch upon many interesting modern problems, *e. g.*, in the discussion of the "Rights of Labor"; although as to such matters they have possibly a tendency rather to ennoble than to enlighten Mr. Salter's audience —a criticism which we make in no captious spirit; for what else could be expected of a brief homily upon complex social problems? A still more delicate topic is treated in lectures x. and xi., on the "Ethics of Jesus," where Mr. Salter solves very well the problem of uniting plain speech and pronounced liberalism with a true seriousness of tone that ought to offend no opponent. Unitarianism is ingeniously criticised in lecture xiv., on the ground that while it is "benevolent, humane, philanthropic, as those words go," it still "does not call on us to create a new heaven and a new earth," "does not appeal to the infinite side of human nature," and is enthusiastic over such matters as "supporting old churches whose natural lives seem to be already spent." "Unitarians," says Mr. Salter, "manifest no great discontent with the world about them." These expressions show that Mr. Salter, with all his humanity and gentleness, is not incapable of making sharp speeches, and, accordingly, they rather raise our respect for the charity with which he elsewhere is wont to treat all mankind.

After all, however, the unsatisfactory thing about these excellent lectures, even regarded from the practical point of view, is just the vagueness of the author's moral theory. Morality is rooted in the "nature of things," but not in "natural law," which as such is mere dead fact. The ideal does not "exist anywhere to-day," but is for all that a "truth supreme above all." We know this to be so partly because nothing but the good can survive in the long run. But mere survival, like any other fact known to science, has of itself no moral value, and the course of the world is often unjust. Morality rests upon an "ought" which a man can find only in his own heart. Some men, indeed, *e. g.*, bad men and savages, find no such "ought," or else mistake its true character; but then such men do not count. Meanwhile, the "ought" is not merely in us. So we come back once more from what is in our hearts to that supreme "nature of things" which, nevertheless, we must not call by the name "God," except by way of conjecture or poetry, because to do so might be superstitious. Yet we must remember all the while that this supreme "nature" is nothing merely physical.

So many paradoxes together would form a more serious defect in such a work were they not, as every philosophical student knows, very deeply rooted in the nature of this most perplexing region of speculation. We call attention to them here (we repeat) for a reason as practical as Mr. Salter's own intentions. The Ethical Societies have doubtless their own mission to fulfil, and we hope that they may prosper in that mission. But if they address "men and women who are in the toil and stress of life," they also address for the most part intelligent and reflective persons who, for some reason or other, have abandoned traditional creeds. In such persons the leaders want to arouse moral enthusiasm. Would it not be well to arouse it by means of less obscure and vague accounts of what morality after all is? Noble sentiments and the "nature of things," and even the brute fact of the "survival of the fittest," may be good to appeal to in this lecture or in that; and doubtless this whole movement is more dependent on the personal power of the leaders than on any system of ideas; but is there not danger in these endless paradoxes and unexplained self-contradictions of one's teaching? Would not a systematic and even somewhat speculative theory of ethics be of use to the teacher, and that, too, even if he kept it in the background in his daily teachings? To be all things to all men is, indeed, the privilege of an apostle; but to appeal to anything and everything plausible except theology as a support to morality—is this enough? If one leaves behind what one takes to be superstitions in tradition, may not one end in making one's morality itself a superstition? And if the laymen of the Ethical Societies should chance to note such an outcome, what result could be more lamentable? We hope that Mr. Salter will soon develop the "philosophical views" of which he speaks in his preface.

THE AUSTRIAN STATE.

A History of Austro-Hungary, from the Earliest Time to the Year 1889. By Louis Leger. Translated from the French by Mrs. Birkbeck Hill, with a preface by Edward A. Freeman. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1889.

A LITTLE more than forty years ago, the cynical Metternich wrote in a despatch, "Italy is

only a geographical expression." No better phrase could be applied to that very Austrian Empire of which Metternich was then, in all but name, the ruler. A State made up of four distinct races—the German, the Magyar, the Slav, and the Romance—not to mention Jews and Mohammedans, and each of these races split up into smaller divisions, as (among the Slavs) the Poles, the Bohemians, the Croats, and the Slovenes—such a State has no parallel in modern times. Other governments are kept together by centripetal forces; the Austrian Government has maintained itself during the past centuries by cunningly neutralizing the centrifugal forces of its component parts. *Divide et impera* has been the motto of its statecraft. The sole continuous element in all this history is the House of Hapsburg (written Habsburg throughout this translation); and it would have been better had M. Leger made the chronicle of the Hapsburgs more prominent, and that of the Polish, Bohemian, and Magyar dynasties, which were finally absorbed by the family of the Austrian Archduke, more subordinate. As it is, he is forced to bring up the history of each in sections, as a general of artillery who is short of horses has to get his batteries into line one by one. So we follow the affairs of Bohemia, for instance, from the fifteenth to the eighteenth century; then we go back to Hungary and help her forward, and so on. Perhaps this is the best method for treating so confused and artificially related topics; certainly only an historian of the first rank, a Gibbon, could succeed by the other method of progressing simultaneously along the whole line.

Owing chiefly to this confusion and to these difficulties, the history of the countries which now form the Austrian State is too little known by western Europeans and by Americans; yet it is, nevertheless, very interesting. If you draw roughly a line from the mouth of the Oder on the Baltic down to the Adriatic, you will have the frontiers along which the wave of Slavic barbarians broke when they pressed westward after the Teutonic invasions; and almost in the middle of this line the Magyars—a Mongolian race, wholly unallied to the Aryan Slavs—drove a wedge which has been the torment of central Europe for a thousand years. The customs of those tribes in their early state—the slacker influence of the old Roman civilization over them than over the Teutonic conquerors in Italy and the West; their conversion to Roman Christianity, in spite of which they retained more local independence than Germany or France in religious matters; their oscillation between the feudal conditions of the West and the Oriental conditions of the Byzantine Empire; their implacable and incessant quarrels among themselves, whereby they finally became the prey of a tyrant who could hardly have conquered one of them but for those quarrels—these are some of the general points of interest dealt with in M. Leger's book. The student of comparative government will find in it much significant material. He will find, for instance, conclusive evidence that an elective monarchy cannot be stable. The reason why Poland, and Bohemia, and Hungary, each of which States had its period of strength and brilliance, fell asunder was that no family succeeded in establishing for any long time an hereditary rule in any of them. So fierce was the rivalry among the nobles that they often chose a foreigner to be their king, and they even allied themselves with the Turks in order to gain an advantage over their Christian neighbors.

The lack of an influential *bourgeoisie*, added to this lack of dynastic solidarity, hastened the downfall. We deplore the annihilation of the Polish State, but really the Polish nobles were incapable of organizing a civilized society, and between them and the peasant serfs there was no intelligent middle class. The lesson we get from the history of Poland, Bohemia, Hungary, and Croatia is, that aristocracies cannot maintain a government adapted to the needs of the modern world. The student of religion cannot afford to neglect the Bohemian Reformation, which preceded by a century the German Reformation led by Luther, and which proved that in intelligence and spirit the Czechs (whom Mrs. Hill phonetically writes *Chekhs*) were worthy to rank with the highest races of the west, and that they might have done so but for their hopeless political condition. Finally, the economist will meet many instructive object-lessons of the banefulness of high protection, as illustrated by the misery into which the component States of the Austrian Empire were plunged whenever an unwise Emperor prohibited foreign trade. At times, the Chinese wall of protection was erected not only on the frontiers of the Austrian State and the rest of Europe, but also between one internal kingdom and another—between Bohemia and Hungary, for example—with the result of beggaring *both* Bohemia and Hungary. The annals of those countries which the Hapsburgs acquired record many heroic deeds and noble episodes; not to go back to the half-legendary Arpád, and to the early Premyslids, we have in historical times the exploits of the Jagellons, of Matthias Corvinus, of Ziska, of Zápolya, of Stephen Bathory, of John Sobieski, of Francis Rákóczy, of Gabriel Bethlen—names as familiar to Slavs or Magyars as those of Cromwell and Marlborough are to Englishmen.

In the later period of his history, from the accession of Maria Theresa down to the present time, M. Leger is usually satisfactory. His account of the reforms of Joseph II., which anticipated many of the reforms of the French Revolution, but were speedily followed by a reaction from which Austria has not yet recovered, is clear and fair. Upon occasions when French vanity or partisanship might be looked for—as in the description of Napoleon's campaigns against Austria—he displays no chauvinism. That well-known historical snarl, the revolution of 1848–'9 in the Austrian State, he disentangles very cleverly, making prominent, but not more prominent than is just, the dog-in-the-manger policy of the Magyars, through which they wrecked not only their own but the efforts of the Croats and Czechs to regain independence. The conflict between Austria and Prussia, between 1850 and 1866, is less adequately treated: a reader who relied solely upon M. Leger's book could hardly understand the relations between the members of the German Confederation, nor the intrigues by which Austria strove to prevent Prussia from usurping her supremacy. One serious defect in the book is the absence of references; many state papers are quoted, and many historians, but we are not told the work and page where we can consult the original.

Mr. Freeman, in his preface, furnishes, in that dry and condescending manner peculiar to him, some general information in regard to the proper titles of the Austrian rulers. Of course, only beginners need to be warned that the expression "German Emperor," when applied to the successors of Charlemagne, is wrong, and that "the Holy Roman Emperor" is right; or that the present Emperor of Austria is really only the Archduke of Austria, which is but a small part of his heterogeneous State. These, and similar facts, Mr. Freeman enlarges upon, perhaps more than is necessary.

The translation is by no means worthy of the substance of the book. We can excuse some awkward phrases, but there is no excuse for the confusion and blunders in the proper names. The very title, "A History of Austro-Hungary," is an absurdity; meaningless, just as "A History of Anglo-Scotland" would be. Why did not Mrs. Hill simply translate M. Leger's title, 'Histoire de l'Autriche-Hongrie'? From such a beginning we might have inferred that when Mrs. Hill came to Slav and Magyar proper names, she would lose herself in solecisms and inaccuracies. In spite of the assistance which, she says, she had from two professors, there is no uniformity, no reason, in her method. Her only rule seems to be to give the most outlandish forms which can be found. It is, admittedly, very difficult to decide how to print foreign names in English, but surely the rule of common sense is to be as simple and consistent as possible; a Polish or Magyar town which we know by its German name, or for which we have a recognized English equivalent, ought not to be given in its Polish or Magyar form. Every reader of history has heard of the Congress of Laybach, but in what history or geography accessible to English readers could we find Ljublanja? or Olomouc for Olmütz? or Brno for Brünn? or Plzn for Pilsen? or Kromerice for Kremsier? Has not Tokay wine been drunk long enough in England to make *Tokaj* look strange? And why call the patron saint of Bohemia, Vacslav? Wenceslaus is the English equivalent; and St. Vacslav (or even Wenceslaf, Mr. Freeman's version) sounds as odd as St. Istvan for St. Stephen. Occasionally Mrs. Hill invents a form of her own, as when she translates the French *Gorice*, Gorica; and she keeps to no single form even when she retains the Slav or Magyar spelling. Two, and sometimes three, varieties of spelling are met with, often on the same page. Thus Casimir is turned into Kazimir (p. 203) and Kasimir (p. 212); Zara is Jadera or Jadara; Ladislaus is Vladislav, Wladyslaw, and Ladislas; Peterwardein is Petervarad and Petervardin; Lemberg is Liwow, Lwow, and Lwów; the Magyar *fo ispan* has several variations, viz.: *fõispan* and *foïspanak*. German words are treated with equal carelessness; here are a few blunders: Insbrück (p. 16); Landesauschuss (p. 511); Windischgratz (p. 530, 545); Zwetschgen (p. 363); Küfstein (p. 413); Wittenburg (p. 323); Königsburg (p. 105, 423). Italian words are also twisted, as for example, Montecuculli (p. 272); condottiero (p. 319); Scarlati (p. 281); Guistiniani (p. 266); Guastella (p. 457); I Miei (for *Le mie*) Prigioni (p. 471); Bocche *de* (for *di*) Cattaro (p. 585); and we are to choose between Capristan (on p. 207) and Capistrano (p. 235). We find, further, such forms as Paskievitch, Schwartzenburg, Machiavelian, Parthenopian, Egean. There are three allowable forms of the Rhenish town and former electorate—Mainz (German), Mayence (French), and Mentz (English); Mrs. Hill invents a hybrid form, Maintz (p. 106). So, too, she wavers between Basel (p. 126) and Basle (p. 405). Eugene being an English name, it is just as unnecessary to write "Prince Eugène" as to write "Albrecht" for "Albert." Why prefer the Latin Misnia to Meissen, Moldava to Moldau, Tisza to Theiss? Would a letter addressed to Dubrornik reach Ragusa, or one to Rieka reach Fiume?

These examples of verbal inaccuracies and inconsistencies must suffice. Misstatements of fact are more serious, and of these we must mention a few: Rhine for Danube (p. 17); Henry IV. for VI. (p. 99); *Ulrich* for *Wolfram* of Eschenbach (p. 124); Reinar for Reimar (p. 139). Pius II. died in 1464, therefore he

could not have excommunicated the Bohemian King in 1468 (p. 210). Charles of Anjou did not defeat both Conradin and Manfred in 1268, but the former only, the latter having been killed in 1266 (p. 218). Comenius died in 1671, not in 1670 (p. 306). Wallenstein took the title of "Admiral [not General] of the Baltic" (p. 307). Zápolya died in 1540, not in 1560 (p. 316). Maria Louisa did not retire to Schönbrunn after Napoleon's first abdication, but to Parma (p. 457). The battle of Metz was fought in 1870, not in 1871 (p. 540). The Franco-Prussian war was in 1870-71, not in 1861 (p. 587). Felix von Schwarzenberg died in 1852, not in 1853 (p. 554). Sadowa was fought July 3, not July 4 (p 569), Lissa July 20, not 16. The preliminaries of peace were signed at Nikolsburg, July 26, not 16, and the peace of Prague August 23, not 3 (p. 570). The date of Solferino is June 24, not June 23 (p. 559).

Convenient tables of sovereigns and of the territorial losses and gains of the Hapsburgs are appended; also an ethnographical map of Austria-Hungary, but its colors are so indistinct as to make it of little value. Four or five good maps showing the extent of the various kingdoms at critical periods would be better than many pages of print. If Mrs. Hill will correct the errors in date and fact, and if she will adopt a uniform spelling for her foreign names—keeping the forms already Anglicized, and preferring those familiar to western Europeans rather than those which only a Slav or a Magyar would recognize—the future editions of her translation will be useful alike to the student and to the general reader. So much good material concerning the history of the Austrian State cannot be found in any other popular work with which we are acquainted.

Narrative and Critical History of America. Edited by Justin Winsor. Vol. VIII. The Later History of British, Spanish, and Portuguese America. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

In this last volume of a magnificent series the editor bears, as usual, the laboring oar, not only maintaining the critical and bibliographical portion, but contributing to the narrative, with chapter iv., on Spanish North America. Spanish South America's colonial history and wars of independence are summed up by Clements R. Markham, but the history of Brazil is allotted no treatment separate from the bibliography, and is accordingly looked after in small type by Mr. Winsor. Mr. Markham's strait-jacket of 48 pages of large print (really only about 25 or 30 when the illustrations are deducted) implies a very condensed relation, and Mr. Winsor's supplementary bibliographical note is hardly adequate. Thus, Markham mentions the great Paez, the heroic companion and equal of Bolivar, in but a single line, when his elevation to the Presidency of Venezuela is recorded without any characterization whatever. The romance of Paez's life has not been surpassed by that of any historical American—the moral greatness by few—and he wrote his autobiography while living in this city in 1867. Gervinus had already held him up for admiration in his 'Geschichte des neunzehnten Jahrhunderts.' Neither of these works is referred to by Mr. Winsor, and no one consulting the volume before us would suspect Paez of being anything but a political name—say the Franklin Pierce of a line of Presidents, instead of a Washington. This instance is typical of the defects of the coöperative method of writing history.

There is another instance in the account of Canada from 1763 to 1867, by Prof. George Bryce of Manitoba College. Prof. Bryce knows of no settlement on the River St. John, N. B., except of refugee loyalists—"a military section" of these. This ignores the interesting colony planted in 1763-'4 near Fredericton by voluntary emigrants from Essex Co., Mass., and which was so far from being loyalist that it made its own Declaration of Independence in 1776 before that at Philadelphia, and entreated help from Massachusetts, holding out till British war-vessels came up the river and made resistance hopeless. Glimpses of this settlement are to be had from Hatheway's rare little 'History of New Brunswick,' as well as from the Stickney Genealogy; and the effort to save the St. John and New Brunswick to the future territory of the United States has been authoritatively shown by Frederick Kidder in his 'Military Operations in Eastern Maine and Nova Scotia during the Revolution.' Prof. Bryce is his own bibliographer, and in his long note on the sources we can detect neither Hatheway nor Kidder. Before passing from this chapter, we may remark also the scanty mention of the case of the *Caroline* in the Canadian rebellion—an affair which came near embroiling us with our neighbors and with England. To be sure, it is the subject of a diplomatic footnote in vol. vii., but one could not infer from either narrative how great an excitement was caused by it on both sides of the border.

There remain to be enumerated two of the most readable chapters, having well-defined topics replete with picturesqueness and adventure, namely, "The Hudson Bay Company," by the Rev. Geo. E. Ellis, and "Arctic Exploration in the Eighteenth and Nineteenth Centuries," by Charles C. Smith. Our sole comment on these will be a pictorial one: the portrait of Capt. Cook on page 82 is taken from a French edition of his Third Voyage (1783), instead of the well-known engraving from the standard English oil portrait. In this case the authentic has been sacrificed to the curious; and the criticism we believe to hold good of not a few of the portraits in this series. To the professional iconographer no plate is indifferent, but in an historical work the best should steadily be preferred, unless in the case of a person of whom good likenesses abound and are readily procurable, when, of course, a rare one may be properly rescued from oblivion. In portraiture, charts, views, etc., this final volume, it should be said, is as well equipped as any, and Mr. Winsor shines in his chapter on the historical chorography of South America.

His *pièce de résistance*, however, is his Appendix, with its all but one hundred closely printed pages, indicating the MS. and printed sources of United States history. This is simply invaluable, no matter what shortcomings may be discovered in it—and we should put first of all the absence of bold topical headlines, or some sort of an index. This laborious guide to the student and bookmaker is followed, and the volume concluded, by a very full and convenient "Chronological Conspectus of American History," beginning with Homer's geographical views in the tenth century. This is really an index, for each event entered has its reference to the text, and its limitations arise from that cause. Thus, to take the year 1865, we have only these three items: "Faillon begins his record of the Sulpitian labors in Montreal in his *Colonie Française en Canada*"; "Reciprocity Treaty between U. S. and Canada"; "*Life and Public Services of Samuel Adams* published." The downfall of the rebellion and the death of Lincoln are excluded by the scheme of the Conspectus.

We must say a word of the General Index, which does indeed cover the whole eight volumes, but by no means swallows up or supersedes the several volume indexes. The case of the *Caroline* is again in point, being omitted here, though indexed in the seventh volume. We understand perfectly well the enormous labor and expense and the chance of error involved in an attempt to combine so many indexes, and we regret without reproaches its abandonment. No little service has been rendered under the rubrics Colleges, Discoverers, Forts, Indians, Lakes, Maps and Mapmakers, Military Events, Periodicals, Portraits and Statues, Portraitists, Religious Bodies, Rivers and their Valleys, Societies, Treaties, Conventions and Conferences, United States, etc. To crown the whole, we would have had at the end a *table des matières*, for the several tables of contents are typographically confused, and the title-pages by no means sufficiently enlightening—the backs of the covers not at all so, being distinguished only by the numerals.

Mr. Winsor and his colaborers can never be adequately either thanked or rewarded for their high and scholarly endeavors; but they have made their monument. The editor himself, unexhausted, is, as our readers are aware, already on the eve of producing a work embracing all we know (and more than any one person knows) about Columbus.

Catalogue of the Fossil Fishes in the British Museum (Natural History). Part I., Elasmobranchii. By Arthur Smith Woodward, F.G.S., F.Z.S. London: Printed by order of the Trustees. 1889. 8vo, with cuts and seventeen plates, pp. xlvii, 474.

This catalogue is made up from the specimens in the British Museum and from the many scattered notes, references, and descriptions in the literature. The skeletons being cartilaginous and perishable, the species are usually represented by the teeth—frequently by a single tooth, rarely by an approach to a complete set; and as these differ in shapes and sizes in the two jaws, as also on different parts of each jaw, the difficulty in identifying a species and determining its affinities is often excessive if not impossible. In view of the arduous nature of his task, of the fact that this is a first attempt, not a revision, and of the manner in which he has carried through an undertaking of so much importance in zoölogy and geology, we are inclined to praise the author very highly, numerous points to which we should take exception notwithstanding.

The Elasmobranchii are here placed as a subclass under the fishes, and divided into two orders—the Selachii, including the sharks and the skates, and the Ichthyotomi, which he characterizes as follows: "Endoskeletal cartilage permeated throughout with granular calcifications. Notochord rarely or never constricted; calcifications of the sheath arrested at the most primitive 'rhachitomous' stage, except in the caudal region. Neural and haemal arches and spines long and slender; no intercalary cartilages. Pectoral fins with long segmented axis ('archipterygial')." The original Ichthyotomi were characterized thus: "A basioccipital bone and condyle. Occipital, ? pterotic, and frontal bones distinct. Supraorbital (or nasal) bones present." Like others, Mr. Woodward rejects the idea that there are distinct bones in the skull, but, with different characters and contents, clings to an old name for his group, though certain to produce confusion by doing so. He includes the Pleuracanthidae (*Xenacanthi*), from which the features are taken, and the Cladodonti, which

will not agree in the more essential points, though likely to do so in those common to all the early types. By this the Cladodonts are put in a different order from that of their descendants among recent sharks.

Zoölogists will regret that the author did not use his opportunity to dispense with much that is inconsistent and arbitrary in the nomenclature. A proper application of the rules of priority, by himself invoked in places, would displace 22 of the 105 generic names adopted. Add to this several names wrongly credited as to authorities, ten dated (from their third publication) 1841 instead of 1837, two others dated 1841 instead of 1838, etc., and one may get an idea of some of the possibilities in misleading.

From the condition of the specimens, there are many cases in which identification must remain doubtful until further discoveries. Species of this character were better kept separate; for throwing them together as identical may have the force of positive recognition in preventing study by others and thus perpetuating error. As a whole, the work is very commendable, the objectionable features being made the more prominent on this account.

Our Asiatic Cousins. By Mrs. A. H. Leonowens. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

THIS illustrated duodecimo volume tells the children about the people in the various countries of Asia, from the Phœnicians to the Japanese. No fewer than eighteen nations are described with some detail. The human and personal traits occupy most of the author's attention, though history and traditions are not forgotten. Having herself lived in one of the countries of peninsular Asia, Muang Thai, or Siam, the author has read her authorities with more sympathy and intelligence than the average maker of books for the young. The result is a very readable book, and one calculated to interest boys and girls. The slovenliness in transliteration and inaccuracies which abound are therefore all the more inexcusable; nor will the attempt to make Asiatic lore interesting succeed very well while so many uncouth names, hideous misprints, and the orthographical vagaries of all grades of European authors, in several languages, are left in an English book. Apparently the author has sought out the most bizarre spelling possible, as Ibrhi for Hebrews, Areib for Arabia, T'sing T'song T'sue for the Chinese, Siet-Eish-Ieu for Japan, etc., etc. This is cruelty to the innocents. The history of Asian kingdoms is repulsive enough without such orthographic caricature. A list of misstatements and strangely mistaken ideas found in the author's pages would be formidably long. She calls Corea "the chosen land," evidently taking the native term Chō-sen (morning-calm) as an English word meaning elect. The same dynasty under different names has ruled this peninsular country for three thousand years, according to the author, which is as true as if a similar statement were made about Great Britain. The Corean names, like the Japanese, are nearly unrecognizable; Hainang Seyool for Han-yang Séoul, T'siangtouwini for Tseng-hou-ni, Khanghon for Kang-hoa; Rose for Roze, the French Admiral's name; Jummi for Jimmu, Jeengho for Jingu, Ohjeeu for Ojin, etc., etc. The statement about the Aino tongue (p. 280) is several years behind the facts, while that about the ronin (p. 301) twenty years after date. Hara Kari should be harakiri. The sacred lake, "overhung for miles with bamboo trellis-work, over which droop vast clusters of wistaria forming an unbroken roof along its banks, under which are placed all kinds of floating pavilions," etc., etc., which the author locates "at Tokio," is a myth, though the original of this marvellous phantasmagoria may possibly be the pond at Uyéno, or Kaméido.

In many respects, Mrs. Leonowens's book is admirable, and is well worth revision and representation. We have pointed out only a few of scores of errors which detract greatly from its value.

The Campaign of Königgrätz: A Study of the Austro-Prussian Conflict in the light of the American Civil War. By Arthur L. Wagner, 1st lieut. 6th U. S. Infty., &c. 12mo, pp. 121.

LIEUT. WAGNER, the author of this little book, is one of the instructors at the United States Infantry and Cavalry School at Fort Leavenworth. It had its origin in a lecture on the Königgrätz campaign of 1866, the "six weeks' war," in which Prussia first took the place of the leading military Power of Europe. The lecture has been wisely expanded into the neat volume before us, and has been illustrated with a profusion of maps unprecedented in American publications; a round dozen of general and special maps enabling the reader to follow with unusual ease the military narrative.

The material for the Königgrätz or Sadowa campaign is so abundant and authentic that the author's chief labor was to make a judicious condensation from the Prussian Staff History, Hosier's two volumes, and other special treatises. But it is no trifling task to make a readable and clear sketch of so great events within the limits which Lieut. Wagner had assigned himself, and he deserves the high praise of saying that it has been done thoroughly and intelligently. If, then, this had been the whole, the abridgment of the history of the great campaign would entitle him to the thanks of his readers, and especially of his brother officers in the army, for a compact and cheap means of acquaintance with events which in Europe ushered in a new epoch in military affairs.

Lieut. Wagner has done more than this. He has, as commentator upon the campaign, pointed out the numerous instances in which our own civil war furnished important military lessons which the Germans learned from our experience, when they did not, by a more costly method, discover for themselves the improvements and inventions, in tactics and in arms, in which we had anticipated them. These portions of the book, though brief, do equal credit to the author's acumen and to his patriotism. They give it an original value far beyond that of any mere abridgment, however well done. They show that some, at least, of our young officers are studying our own history, in comparison with others, with an intelligent and thoughtful analysis which produces valuable fruit, and which will do much to teach the world that our civil war is, as a military history, well worth studying. It proves also that there may be found in this history higher examples of tactical combinations and field fighting than would be possible if veteran skill and courage in the ranks had not been led by generals of really great ability.

Inorganic Chemistry. By Ira Remsen, Professor of Chemistry in the Johns Hopkins University. Henry Holt & Co.

THIS volume forms the "advanced course" of the series of chemical text-books by Prof. Remsen. While the others are small books of 266 and 382 pages, respectively, the one before us is a portly volume of over 800 pages. It is in no sense, however, a mere expansion of its predecessors. Its distinctive feature is the fulness with which general relations and principles are discussed. "Attention is constantly called to analogies between properties of substances and between chemical reactions," and the importance of the bearing of the phenomena accompanying chemical changes on the interpretation of chemical action is continually emphasized. Prominence is naturally given to the general relations discovered by the periodic law, and for the first time we have a considerable text-book whose classification is based on this law. To the periodic system itself a chapter of fourteen pages is devoted, in which three tables, showing as many of the proposed arrangements of the elements, are included. A generous appendix gives details of laboratory experiments (244 in number) in illustration of the text, and contains all but 14 of the 78 cuts. This plan of bringing together, at the end of the book, descriptions of apparatus and directions for experimental work, makes a more connected and logical text possible, and in such a work as this is much to be commended.

On pages 461 and 462 the author proposes an interesting hypothesis in regard to the constitution of the double salts of the halogens. Calling attention to the analogy between these salts and the oxygen salts, and finding as the result of careful study "that the number of molecules of potassium or sodium chloride which combine with another chloride is limited by the number of chlorine atoms contained in the other chloride," he makes the suggestion "that the halogen contained in them [the double salts] has a valence greater than one, and that a double atom" of the halogen "plays the same part that oxygen does in the oxygen salts." He thus assumes the power of two halogen atoms to unite with the formation of a bivalent group, such as -Cl-Cl-or -Cl=Cl-, and this group is considered to act like the linking oxygen atom in oxygen salts. The formula for the double chloride of sodium and aluminium, (NaCl. $AlCl_3$) for example, therefore becomes $Na(Cl_2)AlCl_2$, analogous to that of sodium aluminate $NaAlO_2$ or NaOAlO. On this hypothesis the double chlorides are chloro-salts, and the name of that just given in illustration would be sodium chloraluminate. The evidence on which this view rests has, since the appearance of this volume, been fully presented by Prof. Remsen in the *American Chemical Journal*, and is certainly very strong. But in this, as in all other matters of theory, the author is singularly and admirably free from dogmatism. He discusses the bearing of the facts in evidence in an eminently cautious and philosophical manner, and insists on the tentative, and even speculative, character of many of the theoretical explanations which are given. This conservatism is perhaps most strongly marked in the treatment of the constitution of compounds. Structural formulas receive considerable attention, but in every case the facts which they are intended to represent are given, and the student is made to see clearly just how much and how little they really express.

The style of the book is that of the lecture rather than that of the treatise, and Prof. Remsen is well known as an excellent lecturer. If, in some instances, the text seems unnecessarily simple, it is a fault which the student will readily forgive. As in his former books, the author shows here that he thinks clear and straight, appreciates the difficulties of the student, and knows how to meet them in plain, direct statement and discussion. It is a book which no advanced student of chemistry should

fail to read. It will clear his vision and prove helpful and suggestive at many points.

One does not expect the first edition of a book of this scope to be wholly free from mistakes in matters of detail, and the 'Inorganic Chemistry' contains its full share. We had noted a considerable list, but they are for the most part in matters of minor importance, and do not seriously impair the value of the work.

Essays on the Work entitled Supernatural Religion. Reprinted from the *Contemporary Review.* By J. B. Lightfoot, D.D., D.C.L., LL.D., Bishop of Durham. Macmillan & Co. 1889.

A Reply to Dr. Lightfoot's Essays. By the Author of 'Supernatural Religion.' Longmans, Green & Co. 1889.

THE author of 'Supernatural Religion' made a double mistake when he was so rash as to charge Prof. Westcott with a literary and controversial dishonesty. It was bad enough that, in doing so, he made it evident that his own scholarship was not sufficient to save him from such a blunder as confounding *oratio obliqua* with direct narration, and taking an infinitive for an indicative. But it was still worse for him that this wanton attack roused a friend of Dr. Westcott's, who has long been known as one of the greatest of English scholars, to take in hand the loose and pretentious 'Supernatural Religion,' and riddle it with criticism. Bishop Lightfoot's articles in the *Contemporary* may almost be said to have given the book its death-blow, for it soon passed out of sight, much discredited so far as its critical value and its scholarship were concerned. These articles, together with one on "Some Discoveries illustrating the Acts of the Apostles," make up the first of the two volumes that we have in hand. They do not call for any extended notice, for most students of the New Testament are, we fancy, already familiar with them. To such as do not know them it may be said that, although they are incomplete, and in some sort almost fragmentary, they are precious as the work of a man of vast learning, whose criticism is both acute and enlightening. Such a paper as that which stands second in this volume, on "The Silence of Eusebius," is an example of an almost faultless critical method, as well as a model of controversial writing.

Not so much as this, nor half so much, can be said of the author of the 'Reply.' He chose to make serious charges on the strength of passages which, it has been shown, he misunderstood not because they are obscure, but because they are written in Latin and Greek. No outcry about pedantry can help his case. Indeed, he half gives up the case himself by silently withdrawing or changing parts of his book which his opponent had fatally shaken. He falls back at last upon his inner line of defence, the antecedent incredibility of miracle, which remains just about as strong as Hume left it and this author found it. One thing he has added, not in this volume, but in 'Supernatural Religion' itself: that is, a setting forth in a more vivid way than we remember to have seen elsewhere the universality of the belief in miracles, and the constant expectation of them, in Judæa in the time of Christ. The air was charged with miracle, and a new religion arising at that time would be certain to claim divine attestations of this sort.

When Dr. Lightfoot's book appeared some months ago, it was hailed by many as an assurance of the recovery of the Bishop of Durham from an illness that threatened a great loss to English learning. Unhappily the event has not justified the hopes that then sprang up, for Dr. Lightfoot died on December 21, 1889.

D. M. Ausonii Mosella. Édition critique et traduction française. Par H. de la Ville de Mirmont. Bordeaux: G. Gounouilhou. 1889.

BORDEAUX has always been proud of her poet, a fact attested by a long line of students of Ausonius who have lived and worked in his birthplace. Not one of them all was ever more painstaking than the present editor, and his book has been evidently a labor of love. It differs from most critical editions in an important point: the editor disclaims personal acquaintance with the MSS., but accepts the collations of Schenkl and Peiper upon which to base his studies. In a doctoral thesis he has already considered important questions relating to the verse-structure, date, and style of the poem. In the present work he concentrates his attention upon the printed texts of the 'Mosella.' In an introduction covering two-thirds of his book he gives a full literary history of them all, with a most minute collation of their differences, and five facsimile pages from the most important early editions. Then follows the poem itself, that polished and often beautiful description of the Moselle country. To this is added a French prose translation of merit, a critical appendix, and full explanatory notes. A new map of the country is provided. Ausonius is an author very little known in this country, but to his readers this edition will be a perfect storehouse of materials and information. It is printed on fine large paper, and the press-work is most artistically executed.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, G. Falling in Love, with Other Essays on More Exact Branches of Science. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.

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Carroll, L. Sylvie and Bruno. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.

Catherwood, Mrs. Mary H. The Story of Tonty. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.

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Henry Irving Shakspere. Vol. VII. Scribner & Welford. $3.

Ibsen, H. Prose Dramas. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.

Lagrange, Dr. F. Physiology of Bodily Exercise. D. Appleton & Co. $1.75

Souvenir Volume of the Centennial Celebration and the Catholic Congress, 1789–1889. Detroit: Wm. H. Hughes. $2.50.

Stedman, E. C., and Hutchinson, Ellen M. Library of American Literature. Vol. X. Chas. L. Webster & Co.

Steele, J. Old Californian Days. Belford, Clarke & Co.

Stephen, L. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XXI. Garnett—Gloucester. Macmillan & Co. $3.75.

Stokes, W. Supplement to the Anglo-Indian Codes, 1887. 1888. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

Swinburne, A. C. A Study of Ben Jonson. Worthington & Co.

Tales from Blackwood. Third Series. White & Allen.

Taylor, W. F. England under Charles II. (1660–1678). Extracts from Contemporary Records. London: David Nutt.

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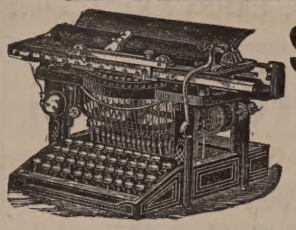

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The Nation.

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The Week.

THERE never was a more striking illustration of Philip drunk and Philip sober than is afforded by contrasting Mr. Reed's position now with his position ten years ago:

PHILIP SOBER.

If it was my purpose to reply to the gentleman who has just taken his seat, it seems to me that it would be a suitable and proper reply to say to him that the constitutional idea of a quorum is not the presence of a majority of the members of the House, but a majority of the members present and participating in the business of the House. It is not the visible presence of members, but their judgments and their votes, that the Constitution calls for.—*Thomas B. Reed, January 30, 1880.*

PHILIP DRUNK.

The clerk announces the members voting in the affirmative as 161 and 2 who voted in the negative. The Chair thereupon, having seen the members present, having heard their names called in their presence, directed the call to be repeated, and, gentlemen not answering when thus called, the Chair directed a record of their names to be made, showing the fact of their presence, as bearing upon the question which has been raised, namely, whether there is a quorum of this House present to do business or not, according to the Constitution of the United States.—*Thomas B. Reed, January 29, 1890.*

Speaker Reed's performances are quite as novel as the manner of robbing the Sixth National Bank, so that it is difficult to form an opinion as to the course the Democrats should follow. There has been nothing quite like them in parliamentary annals. There have been cases of great tyranny on the part of majorities, and there have been cases of occasional unfairness in rulings on points of order on the part of Speakers, and there has been a case where a Speaker was held down in his chair to prevent his abandoning his post before a motion was put; but there never before has been a case where a persistent refusal of the majority to adopt rules of procedure was followed by the assumption on the part of the Speaker of complete control of the procedure without regard to rules, and by the daily display of contempt for the minority and disregard even of their customary parliamentary rights. Consequently the Democrats have no precedents to guide them, and are placed in a position of some difficulty. To leave the House in a body, as has been proposed, would be a clear abandonment of their duty to their constituents. They are as much bound to stand their ground and oppose the present course of the Speaker and the majority, day in and day out, as they are to participate in orderly legislation. But what kind of opposition? Well, every kind short of violence. They are bound to obstruct by all peaceable means the transaction of business until rules are adopted, and protest against the Speaker's conduct, persistently and vociferously, whenever the occasion arises. In short, everything should be done to make outrages of this sort in parliamentary government slow and difficult in their operation, and at the same time clear and comprehensible to the country. We are, with hardly a doubt, witnessing the death-throes of the Republican party, and the Democrats must make the scene as hideous and uncomfortable as the death of a hardened old sinner ought to be.

The last Republican Speaker before Mr. Reed was chosen in December, 1881. In November, 1882, a new House of Representatives was elected. The *Tribune Almanac* for 1883 thus stated the membership of this new House: Democrats, 191; Republicans, 119; other parties, 13. The incident lends point to these remarks by that independent Republican journal, the Philadelphia *Ledger:* "Mr. Reed thinks he has won a great victory over the Democrats. Well, let us wait and see. An appeal lies to a higher court, whose decision may oust Mr. Reed from the Speaker's chair at the end of the present Congress."

The Republicans finally rallied a quorum of their own members on Monday, and utilized it to seat a Republican who contested the seat of a Democrat from West Virginia. The procedure appears to have been abundantly justified by the facts, the Democrat's claim to an exceedingly narrow plurality resting upon the Governor's interpretation of the letters "twe" in a clerk's return as twelve instead of two, which the evidence showed that they stood for. It is reported that there is so much dissatisfaction on the Republican side against going along indefinitely under the "one-man-power" system which Mr. Reed has established, that the Committee on Rules will soon make their report and allow the House to "determine the rules of its proceedings," as it ought to have done the first thing after it met last December. Mr. Carlisle has made an exceedingly strong presentation of the Democratic position, in demanding the adoption of rules as the essential preliminary to the transaction of any business in the Fifty first Congress, as in every one of its fifty predecessors.

Mr. Wilson of West Virginia made on the same day a powerful speech upon the anomalous state of things in the House, and brought out very clearly one point which has not yet been much thought about—the bearing of "the one-man-power" system upon the question of the lobby. "In this new era [acting under general parliamentary law]," he said, "the lobbyist would be a power in legislation. He [the lobbyist] would not be obliged to go around and give checks to individual members. What had members to do with legislation? The Speaker passed the bills; the Speaker approved the journal. The lobbyist would have to come here, not to bother with members, but to 'see' the Speaker as a much more effective and cheaper way of lobbying." The truth is, that there never has been seen under representative institutions a display of such power as Thomas B. Reed would enjoy if things went on through his term as for the past few days. It is a power which ought not to be wielded even by a George Washington.

The "Bill to Promote Mendicancy" was on Monday made the regular order in the Senate. Four years ago it passed the upper branch of Congress by a vote of three to one. Two years ago it secured but ten majority, so that a change of five votes would have prevented its passage. This time it ought to fall far short of a majority. The country will hail such a result almost without a dissenting voice; the representative organs of public opinion, both North and South, being now next to unanimous in declaring their opposition, and urging the Senate to reject the scheme. "Nobody Wants It" is the title of an editorial article in the St. Paul *Pioneer Press*, which rejoices over the fact that "there is every probability that it will be defeated as it should be. There has, indeed," it says, "seldom been an instance where public opinion suffered or experienced a change so considerable, and where the people spoke so emphatically against any measure before Congress." In the same tone, the Keokuk *Gate City*, a leading Republican journal of Iowa, says that "it would be a Pandora gift to the South, both whites and blacks," and that "it has already done much harm and hindrance to the cause of public education in the Southern States by making the people think that Congress was going to take the work, and duty, and expense off the people." The *Gate City* declares that "the people of Iowa and Illinois can scarcely be expected to foot the bill for the public-school work that is to be done in the South," and adds that "they may make it unpleasant if any of their Congressmen or Senators should vote to have them do it."

The plan proposed by the silverites in Congress—it has not yet been introduced, but there is no doubt that it will be offered as a substitute for the Windom bill—contemplates the withdrawal and cancellation of all outstanding gold certificates and silver certificates as fast as the Government can get hold of them, and the issue thereafter of "coin certificates" only. This is one of Senator Beck's odd fancies. It has been introduced by him several times. The object of it is to abolish the distinction between gold and silver, so far as the law can accomplish this purpose, but, singularly enough, the distinction reappears in another part of the same bill, where it is provided that "coin certificates" may be issued on silver bullion "when the *market price* of such silver bullion is not less than 99 cents for 412½ grains." Of course, this means market price in gold, and thus the distinction between gold and silver which it is sought to repudiate and extinguish, comes in again, like the bottle imp which the wicked ma-

gician never could bury so deep or throw so far that it would not come back to him. But what would be the working of the measure if it should pass? Holders of gold certificates would draw the gold at their leisure—they need not be in any hurry about it—and when they wanted to make a fresh deposit of gold, they would put it in a bank instead of in the Treasury vaults. The banks will furnish ample facilities for receiving it and paying it out on checks. For their own purposes the banks will use clearing-house certificates instead of Treasury certificates, and business will go on as before. The "coin certificates" will all be silver certificates. The bill proposes to make the coin certificates legal tender. This would be a measure not covered by any Supreme Court decision yet pronounced. What the Court has decided is, that the Government may make its own debt legal tender. The certificate is a warehouse receipt, not a debt. There is a plain distinction between it and the greenback. Perhaps the Court would hold that the warehouse receipt might be made legal tender also, but perhaps not.

In one of the saddest leading articles that ever appeared in a newspaper, the *Times* of Tuesday came to the conclusion that the World's Fair project is dead. So deeply was the editor affected by the disastrous ending of a campaign in which he had been so vociferous a leader, that in passing final judgment his usual calm judicial equipoise failed him. He says in his opening paragraph that the project has been "killed by the poison of politics administered by the New York Senate at the command of Thomas C. Platt," and then, in a most illogical manner, goes on to say that the legislation which the poison killed would of itself have killed the Fair if the poison had not been administered. The passage in which this complicated view of the situation is taken is so comprehensive a confession of the blundering policy of the entire campaign that we give it in full:

> "But the opposition to this legislation on other grounds than those afforded by politics might have proved fatal to its purpose. The owners of property whose interests were affected, through the counsel who appeared at the Committee hearings in Albany, avowed their intention of contesting its validity in the courts and fighting the issues which they raised to the tribunal of last resort. Considering the facilities for causing delays in such a litigation as was threatened, and the uncertainty of a prompt decision by the courts, it would hardly have been possible to proceed with the necessary expedition under the proposed law. There could have been no assurance until the contest was decided that the proposed financial aid of the city could be relied on. It would not have been practicable to issue the bonds, for if the authorities were not prevented by injunction from taking action, bonds could not be sold when their validity was open to question. The combined opposition of Republican politicians and self-interested property-owners has doubtless killed the plan of legislation under which it was proposed to operate. Does this mean that the whole project is dead? We are very much afraid that it means just that. It does unless a new departure can be taken upon other lines."

There is scarcely a statement in that confession which was not as apparent six months ago as it is to-day. The "whole project is dead," because the lines upon which it has been pushed since its inception in July last were foredoomed to failure.

Senator Saxton has made an extraordinary confession in regard to his course on the $10,000,000 Fair Bill. The bill appeared in the Senate on Friday, January 24. An effort was made to rush it through both houses on that day, but was not successful. It was passed by the Assembly on the following Monday. On the next day a public hearing upon it was held by the Special Committee of the Senate. The bill was by that time lying in printed form upon the desks of all members, including Mr. Saxton's. At Tuesday's hearing, Mr. James C. Carter's unanswerable argument against it was presented, and was also distributed in pamphlet form among the members. On Wednesday the bill came up for passage in the Senate. Mr. Saxton was present and had a copy of the bill, for he made an amendment changing its phraseology in a comparatively unimportant particular. He also heard the manly speech of Senator O'Connor against it. Yet he voted for its final passage. He now confesses that he examined the bill for the first time carefully on Saturday, and is frank to say of it: "A more outrageous one I never read," and to confess: "I am ashamed that I did not join Senator O'Connor and vote against the bill."

It was evident at a glance that the drafters of the Fair Bill relied for escape from the Constitutional "snag" in concealing the real nature of the measure. It will surprise many of our readers who have had no opportunity of seeing the bill, and who probably think that it is filled with provisions for the holding of a World's Fair here in 1892, that there is only one mention in it of any such scheme, and that an incidental mention. The title is, "An Act to Provide for Exhibitions of Arts, Sciences, Manufactures, and Products of the Soil, Mine, and Sea in the City of New York." There is not a word in it about Columbus or the discovery of America, or of a celebration of any kind in 1892, until we get to the twenty-eighth section, near the end, where it provides, *en passant* as it were, that the use or occupation of lands seized on under the act may be granted "to any corporation that may be incorporated by an Act of Congress for an international exposition." This is the sole allusion to the great "World's Fair." The rest of the bill provides for the seizure of lands for the purposes of a permanent fair-ground at the upper end of the island, for all sorts of exhibitions, under the control of a permanent commission. The object of this concealment is, of course, plain. It is to "get around the Constitution" by keeping out of sight the real nature of the bill. Mr. Carter, in his opinion, points this out, saying that the bill was "drawn with great skill and adroitness, and apparently with a view to obviate what were felt to be serious difficulties."

The complaint is heard in Boston that Senator Dawes goes frequently to the White House to hold long consultations with the President concerning the distribution of the Federal offices in Massachusetts, but that he is not bestirring himself at all to get a hearing from either the President or Congress for the demands which Republican manufacturers are making for free raw materials. What excuse he offers to the complaining manufacturers for his apparent indifference to their sufferings is not stated, but it may be similar to the one which his colleague, Senator Hoar, is credited with having made to one of the most persistent of them, who was assuring the Senator that unless he had free raw materials he could not continue his business. Mr. Hoar's reply is said to have been a confidential assurance that relief would come soon by means of reciprocity with Canada—in other words, that while the Republican party in Congress is ostentatiously shooing free trade away from the front door, it is slyly preparing to let it in by the back door.

A Washington correspondent of the New York *Commercial Bulletin* tells us that "the Supreme Court has decided in favor of the legality of the act of March, 1839, by which the right to appeal to the courts was denied to importers." Not at all. The majority of the court said that the law of 1839 left to an importer an action of trover and of replevin, wherein the legality of a customs tax could be tested; but the McKinley bill cuts those away. The correspondent adds:

> "The Republican Senators who framed the Senate Tariff Bill say that they took the opinion of many eminent jurists upon these points, and are satisfied that leaving the determination of facts to an executive board is within the Constitution. The right of trial by jury is so precious, however, to the American people that Congress may not care to take it away in these customs cases, even though convinced that they have the constitutional power."

Who were those "eminent jurists"? We wish we could see such an opinion in writing from even one of them.

The part borne by the Supreme Court in settling the Government of the United States has been made the subject of many learned tomes, and is as far from being exhausted as the greater subject of the development of constitutional government in England, which embraces our own institutions as well. No subject is more worthy of study, since it includes the larger part of the machinery by which society is kept in its proper orbit. The celebration this week of the Supreme Court's centennial will give a new impulse to this study, and supply a fresh stimulus to that undoubting faith in the permanence of our institutions which upheld us in the great struggle of a quarter of a century ago, and which now binds the uttermost parts of the republic together. As long as the Supreme Court retains the confidence of the people in its rectitude, its learning, its industry, and its courage, the country has a sheet anchor which even party rage—the most dangerous menace to free government—cannot dislodge. It is agreed upon all hands that the present court possesses this confidence as fully as any of its predecessors. The court over which Marshall presided, and which had more to do with hewing the Constitution into its present shape than all its successors, enjoyed a much smaller measure of confidence, not because

it deserved less, but because the substructure of the Government was not yet hardened. It is the glory of Marshall and his associates that they made a strong foundation for those who should come after them. It is the glory of the present court that they have built upon this foundation with intelligence, firmness, and integrity commensurate with the noble ground plan supplied to them.

The operations by which the Sixth National Bank, one of the soundest institutions in the city, was partially gutted and closed, have come upon the community like thunder out of a clear sky, and every one is asking whether every bank in the United States is exposed to a similar peril, and, if not, why not. Here was an institution having deposits of $2,000,000, a large surplus fund, and a reputation of the very first class, (its stock selling at 400 in the market), suddenly extinguished by the simple process of a transfer of a majority interest in its shares. The shares of all banks are salable. Nobody is required by law to refuse a satisfactory offer for his property invested in such shares. Persons who have acquired a standing in the community by a long career of probity and prudence in business are under only moral obligations to preserve that a priceless possession. It is needless to say that the national-banking system lives only by virtue of the rigorous enforcement of the safeguards that have been thrown around it. These cover every kind of fraud that a bank officer can commit. The offence committed by Claassen looks like embezzlement, for which the law provides a penalty of not less than five years in the penitentiary. There are other provisions of law which appear to have been violated as soon as Claassen got his hands on the assets of the bank. One such provision is, that not more than one-tenth of the subscribed capital of a bank shall be loaned to any one person or firm. The capital of the Sixth National is $200,000. Yet Claassen made three loans of $60,000 each to himself, on very bad security. If the security had been good, the law would still have been violated. It appears further that Claassen had never been legally elected President of the bank, his acts being, therefore, entirely unauthorized, even if they had been proper in themselves. Here is a case, if there ever was one, for making an example of bank depredators, and we have no doubt that the enginery of the law will be put in swift operation.

The letters of Presidents Adams and Hughitt withdrawing their roads from the Inter-State Railway Association have an undertone of defence against the prevailing opinion of railroad men that the Union Pacific and the Northwestern, by their contract, violated both the letter and spirit of the inter-State agreement which both gentlemen exerted themselves to form. It is evident, also, under the conditions of withdrawal mentioned in the letters, that both roads expect the Association to be reorganized upon lines which will permit alliances between members. What the actual effect will be upon the railroads of the Association must be a matter of conjecture. The Northwestern has always been conservatively managed, and is not a rate-cutter. The danger is in the effect of these combinations and alliances upon the shorter lines. The Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul has no line west of Omaha. Theories of the rectitude of the Union Pacific-Northwestern contract will not restore to this road the proportion of traffic it is losing. It cannot be expected to bear this loss patiently for the general good. It will claim, rather, that the general good requires a surrender of a fair share of business to itself. Now, when all roads are doing a good business, the break-up and re-formation of the Inter-State Association is a matter of speculation only; but when traffic falls off later on, the roads outside the much-discussed contract may think that rate-cutting is the only salvation for them. It is a difficult problem for all concerned, and the contracting roads, by insisting on their agreement at whatever cost, and not even suspending the operation of it pending reorganization, have certainly not helped to clear the general situation.

A double-leaded editorial article upon "The Southern Problem" in the Topeka *Daily Capital* of last Wednesday holds out in its opening sentences the hope that this question has been taken in hand by a master. The editor commends Senator Ingalls's recent speech as a great one, but open to criticism in the fact that it failed to point out a remedy, and thus increases the reader's confidence that he has at last found the man who comprehends the necessities of the situation. This confidence grows when one reaches a sentence which begins with the words "The first step"—for here surely is something practical:

> "The first step towards legal and political justice to all men in the South is to recognize that the problem affects the constitutional rights of men all over the South regardless of color, and that the remedy can only come through the Republican party and national legislation. The time has come for the Republican Senators and Representatives to say to the South this MUST stop, and to follow their utterances with such legislation as will bring it about. Empty platform utterances do not meet the case. Double, treble, and quadruple the Federal courts if necessary, with powers to protect citizens against the outrages, legal and political, that have made Southern States Democratic monarchies for the past fifteen years."

But, after all, the reader is disappointed. It is easy enough to talk about such legislation as will stop the trouble, but what kind of legislation would that be? Would it be such legislation as the Kuklux Act and the Civil-Rights Act? The Republican judges of the Supreme Court declared those acts unconstitutional. Surely, the editor of the *Capital* would not have Republican Senators and Representatives waste time in passing laws only to have Republican judges annul them on the ground that they are not constitutional. What he should do is to formulate a bill which Mr. Justice Miller and the other Republican justices of the Supreme Court will not throw out because it interferes with "the autonomy reserved to the States under the Constitution," to which, by the way, the last Republican National Convention reaffirmed the party's "unswerving devotion."

An interesting illustration of the influence of the railroad in cultivating a distaste for farm life is furnished by a writer in the Concord *Monitor*. Coös County is the northernmost county of New Hampshire, lying almost entirely above the White Mountain range, and for the most part without direct communication with the outside world. The *Monitor* writer describes his observations of deserted farms in the southern part of the State, and emphasizes the absence of young men upon the farms, declaring that almost invariably the men who are working the farms are men of middle age and past that age to old men. But in Coös County, he says, the situation is different. Up there "vacant or deserted farms are hard to find. The young men are with their fathers on the farms, and take their places when they get through with this world and its cares and pass into that world where the fields are ever green; and when the home place is left, many of them build a log house or a small frame one, and make them a new farm out of the wilderness. Perhaps if they were nearer the large cities and manufacturing centres, they would do as the young men in the counties further down in the State do—leave the farms; but the fact remains that they stay on the farms and occupy their fathers' places, and that deserted or vacant farms are scarce in Coös County, while further down in the State, where the farms are nearer a market and advantages in many ways are greater, the boys leave the farms, and vacant farms are more or less plenty." It is thus one of the anomalies of the situation that the building of a railroad, instead of operating to improve the status of the farmer, tends to make him dissatisfied with his occupation, so that fewest deserted farms are found in that county of a State which has smallest railroad privileges.

The awful calamity that has come upon Secretary Tracy's family moves every one to ask what is to prevent a like calamity in any household in the land. Only a few can build fire-proof houses to live in. Hardly anybody ever does build such houses. On the contrary, the fashion is to build with the greatest amount of woodwork, and oil, and varnish, so that when the flames get hold of the structure they spread with the utmost rapidity. In this case it appears that the house servants, or some of them, were about their work while the fire was licking up the polished wainscotting of the parlor and stairway, all unmindful of what was going on, and that when they perceived the fire it was too late to save the lives of those who were still sleeping. Slow-burning construction has been applied to factories without much addition to their cost. Ought not this calamity to teach the guild of architects how to apply slow-burning construction to private houses? If it does not have that effect, it will be a costly lesson that brings no return.

"THE VERY BRINK OF A VOLCANO."

In the closing days of the Forty-third Congress, the radical wing of the Republican party, under the lead of Gen. Benjamin F. Butler, sought to push through the Force Bill, a measure designed to enable a Republican administration of the Executive Department to secure the return of a Republican Congress by Federal interference with elections in the South. The Republicans had a large majority in the House, but a number of their members—including such men as Eugene Hale of Maine, Henry L. Dawes of Massachusetts, William Walter Phelps of New Jersey, and Charles Foster of Ohio—did not sustain the Butler programme. The opponents of the Force Bill, following an unbroken line of precedents since the meeting of the First Congress, attempted to defeat its passage by refusing to vote when their names were called, although present in their seats, and thus preventing its friends from securing the votes of a quorum on their side when the roll was called.

On the 24th of February, 1875, the Butler wing became convinced that they could not secure a majority of the whole House, although it was evident that a majority of the whole House were present in the chamber, and they resolved to try a new experiment in parliamentary methods. On one question the vote stood, yeas 142, nays none, not voting 145—so that the roll showed the presence of less than a quorum, although everybody knew that there were many more than a quorum in the hall. "I call upon the Speaker," thereupon said Gen. Butler, "to declare the presence of a quorum, if he believes there is a quorum in the hall." James G. Blaine was then Speaker of the House, and he promptly replied: "The Chair cannot declare a quorum against a yea-and-nay vote," pointing out that "when the roll-call is resorted to, that is the last mode of certification, from which there is no appeal." Gen. Butler tried to argue the matter with the Speaker, insisting that the latter knew, by the evidence of his own eyes, that there was a quorum present; but Mr. Blaine could not be shaken from his position. "The gentleman," he answered, "sees the utter absurdity, if he will excuse the expression, of the Chair putting an opinion in against a record on the roll-call. He only knows there are 142 present."

Mr. Coburn of Indiana came to the support of Gen. Butler, and urged that, when a member was present, but did not answer to his name, another member might point out the fact of his presence and ask that his name be recorded, and that a record might thus be made that the member in question was present and not voting. We quote *verbatim* what followed (*Congressional Record*, Forty-third Congress, second session, vol. iii., part 3, page 1734):

"The Speaker—The Chair never heard of that being done. He begs to remind the House, whereas that might and doubtless would be true, that there is a quorum in the hall, the very principle enunciated by the gentleman from Indiana has been the foundation probably for the greatest legislative frauds ever committed. Where a quorum, in the judgment of the Chair, has been declared to be present in the House against the result of a roll-call, these proceedings in the different legislatures have brought scandal on their names.

"Mr. Coburn—It would be a record made by the House.

"The Speaker—*There can be no record like the call of the yeas and nays; and from that there is no appeal. The moment you clothe your Speaker with power to go behind your roll-call and assume that there is a quorum in the hall, why, gentlemen, you stand on the very brink of a volcano.*"

A similar question arose in the House of Representatives on January 29. That body now consists of 330 members, and 166 are required to constitute a quorum. The roll was called on a motion to take up an election case, and resulted in a total of 161 yeas and 2 nays—three short of a quorum. The point that no quorum had voted was immediately raised, but was overruled by the Speaker, who directed the Clerk to record as present and refusing to vote the names of a number of Democrats whom he had observed to be in their seats. This action was promptly and justly denounced by Representative Breckinridge of Kentucky as "revolutionary," and various other speakers on the Democratic side showed clearly that it was without a shadow of precedent in the hundred years during which there has been a Congress. The ruling of Speaker Blaine just cited was quoted. There was also quoted a speech by Gen. Garfield, who, when it was proposed, ten years ago, to allow the presence or absence of a quorum to be determined by "ocular demonstration," said: "The Chairman of the Committee of the Whole or the Speaker of the House is to see with his own eyes that there is a quorum present. Who is to control his seeing? How do we know but that he may see forty members more for his own purposes than there are here in the House? And what protection have gentlemen if the Speaker says he sees a quorum if he cannot convert that seeing into a list of names on the call of the roll by the clerk? I think my friend from Virginia will see that he lets in the one-man power in a far more dangerous way than ever has occurred before in any legislative assembly of which he and I have any knowledge. Sir, the moment you get over the line, the moment you cross the boundary of names, the moment you leap over the iron fence of the roll, that moment you are out in the vague, and all sorts of disorders may come in." Worst of all for the Speaker, there was quoted his own speech on this very point only ten years ago, sustaining the very principle which he now rejects, as having been recognized "since the foundation of the Government," and as one which must always be sustained in order to secure good government.

To oppose a century's unbroken array of precedents in the House of Representatives against him, Speaker Reed had only to present a ruling of "Dave" Hill when presiding over the New York Senate years ago, that he might order recorded the names of members present but not voting; and a similar decision by a Speaker of the Tennessee House. Of course, neither of these precedents had the slightest parliamentary bearing upon the proceedings of Congress, which acts under the Constitution of the United States, and not under the Constitution of New York or Tennessee; while from the moral standpoint nothing could be imagined more ridiculous than the idea of a Republican Speaker at Washington seeking support in a revolutionary position by quoting the authority of the "peanut politician" at Albany.

THE STRUGGLE IN THE HOUSE.

It is a mistake to suppose, if anybody does suppose, that the public look with indifference on the struggle now going on in the House of Representatives at Washington. Although everybody understands that it cannot last for ever, very few are unconcerned about it, and nearly everybody is trying to make out the merits and to divine the motives on either side. That the House ought to have rules is acknowledged on every hand. The clause of the Constitution which says that "*each* house may determine the rules of its proceedings," was inserted evidently not for the purpose of giving them authority to establish rules, but to negative the idea that both houses must have the same rules. Authority to establish rules is inherent in deliberative bodies because business cannot be carried on otherwise. All political and all religious conventions have rules which they adopt for their own guidance and government. Even the prize-ring, the race-course, and the cock-pit have rules, because nobody can know what he may do and what he is forbidden to do without them. The presiding officer of the deliberative body is the interpreter of its rules, subject to the superior judgment of the body itself, taken under an appeal from the decision of the chair; but rules are necessary to determine how and when an appeal may be taken. In the absence of rules, the will of the presiding officer stands in the place of rules, and this means that it stands in the place of legislation. If the Speaker can declare that a quorum is present when the roll-call shows the contrary, he can declare that a bill is passed when the roll-call shows the contrary.

To what must we attribute the present turmoil in the House of Representatives? First, of course, to the absence of rules. But why have there been no rules? We will presume, until a better explanation is offered, that the Speaker and his party wanted to decide certain contested elections before adopting rules, so that they might be reasonably sure of having a quorum on hand at all times without the presence of any Democrats. There have been occasions in the past when the House was more evenly divided between parties than it is now, and when party spirit was at higher tension than it is now, but it never occurred to anybody before to attempt to do business without rules. Probably nobody before Mr. Reed's time ever thought such a thing possible. But if anybody did so think, he must have thought also that the remedy to be invoked against a turbulent and obstructive minority was to put them in the wrong before the people, or let them put themselves there, and then take judgment against them at the next election. This is the American way, and the rational way, and the only practicable way to deal with a minority which behaves itself in a repre-

hensible fashion. The minority must first be shown to be acting reprehensibly, and then the people may be trusted to take care of them.

Speaker Reed and his supporters have taken the opposite course. They have not given the minority any chance to put themselves in the wrong. We will suppose that the Democrats had it in their hearts to filibuster against the reports of the Committee on Elections, using the customary rules for this purpose, and that in order to prevent filibustering the rules have been kept back. It will not do for Mr. Reed and his backers to go before the people nine months hence and say that they feared there would be filibustering, and that filibustering is revolutionary. They must be able to show some act; and even if they could show it, it would be a fair argument to say that revolution is a disorder to be doctored by the people at the polls, and not by setting up an arbitrary power in the Speaker's chair unknown to any civilized country. But no such act can be shown to have taken place prior to the revolutionary acts of the Speaker himself. The Speaker's apprehensions cannot be accepted in lieu of the facts which might be relied upon to justify him.

And what are the grounds for his apprehensions? Two months have passed without any rules for the government of business in the House. During that time several bills have passed, one of which was extremely distasteful to the minority. Nothing more distasteful is likely to come before them than the McKinley Administrative Bill, which abolishes trial by jury in customs cases. Yet they showed no factious opposition to it, they resorted to no obstructive tactics. They tried to amend it, and they voted against it as a whole, but they did not filibuster against it. There is no reason to suppose that they would filibuster against the reports of the Committee on Elections. Neither party has ever done so in the past. Everybody knows that filibustering does not take place upon personal grounds, because the people would not sustain a party on such grounds. It takes place on such measures as a Union Pacific funding bill, or a subsidy bill, or a national-bank bill, or a land grant, or a measure of some kind that "has money in it," where a few members think that they can gain some éclat at home by making a tremendous battle against "Wall Street." Both parties have demagogues and strikers who are up to this kind of business. The filibustering in the last House was obviously not in the interest of the Democrats, because they were then the majority. They contributed their quota, but the Republicans contributed theirs also. There is no reason to suppose that filibustering in the present House would be on party lines, or that Mr. Reed fears that it would be.

Whatever his motives may be, he is doing enormous harm to free institutions by destroying the good understanding which enables free institutions to work. Parties carry on government by pulling and pushing against each other within certain prescribed limits. Beyond these limits they cannot go without involving themselves in a common ruin. They must not, for example, abolish the Supreme Court or impeach the President merely because the incumbents are distasteful to them. They must not attempt to legislate without rules, since that procedure substitutes the will of one man for the will of Congress. All such acts lead to chaos. Mr. Reed's acts have led to chaos already. They have produced a state of feeling which has not been known in the halls of legislation since slavery disappeared. The minority cannot be expected to succumb to the new and strange dispensation in the Speaker's chair. They must fight against it at all hazards and to the last extremity. The only safe outcome is the adoption of rules for the government of the House. This is a remedy which can be applied at any time. Then, if the Democrats adopt obstructive tactics, the people will know how to teach them good manners. So, too, will they know how to instruct Mr. Reed and his party if they persist in attempting to set up an unheard-of one-man power in the House of Representatives.

The unfavorable comments of the unmuzzled portion of the Republican press have drawn from Mr. Reed a sort of apology for his conduct, which he has seen fit to send out through the Associated Press instead of delivering it from the floor of the House, as he has the right to do, and as he ought to do. Such a proceeding on his part shows clearly that he is "rattled," and he well may be. What he has to say in defence of his conduct is embraced in two paragraphs, all the rest being in the nature of invective against the supposed wicked intentions of the Democrats. He says that Mr. Carlisle frequently put motions and declared them carried when less than a quorum of members voted—when, for instance, 80 members voted aye and 20 voted no. He might have added that motions are frequently carried and bills passed when nobody votes on either side. By parity of reasoning, therefore, the House might transact business when nobody but the Speaker was present, and to this complexion is Mr. Reed coming very rapidly. The passing of bills *nem. con.* is a method of legislation sanctioned by immemorial custom and by common sense. When nobody objects to a bill, everybody is understood to assent. When nobody raises the question of a quorum, everybody is understood to agree that a quorum is present. What everybody agrees to is the law parliamentary everywhere.

The other point made by Mr. Reed is that the House is acting under a body of rules that the American people use in all their assemblies. What are these rules? Is the following one of them?

> "When the *roll-call* discloses the absence of a quorum, the Chair cannot go outside of the record in deciding as to the presence of a quorum." (Smith's 'Manual,' page 364.)

A precedent of some note in the present controversy which has not been drawn into the debate is the one set by the Speaker of the House of Commons when Charles I. presented himself in that body with a file of soldiers to arrest five members. The members had received warning, and slipped out before Charles came. "Where are they?" demanded the angry King. "The Speaker has eyes to see and ears to hear only what the House, whose servant he is, shall decide," replied Speaker Lenthall. If Mr. Reed had been in the chair, would he have answered, "I saw them slip out of that door just before you came in"? If not, why not?

SMUGGLERS AND UNDERVALUERS.

WHY is it that the Republican party commits itself to legislative projects which exclude taxpayers from the courts, banish juries, and deprive New York importing merchants of rights held in this country for a century and in England for more than five centuries? What are the essential limitations of legislative and executive powers which the Republican leaders and the Harrison Administration endeavor to obliterate?

The reckless imposition of customs taxes by Congress since 1861 has worked results similar to those produced in England down to 1841. It has elevated smuggling and undervaluing into an industry and an art. Any history of English taxes and taxation and any history of English crime will tell what happened in that country during the era of protective taxes. During the eighteenth and the early years of the nineteenth century, defrauding the customs revenue became in England a national trait and pastime. A great smuggler was a civic hero. Adam Smith wrote of a smuggler and an undervaluer as "a person who, though no doubt highly blamable for violating the laws of his country, is frequently incapable of violating those of natural justice, and would have been in every respect an excellent citizen had not the laws of his country made that a crime which nature never meant to be so." Charles Lamb said, "A smuggler is the only honest thief." English courts upheld contracts to evade the customs laws of a foreign country as not illegal. But after Peel had well begun his great work of reducing taxes on imported goods, the crime of smuggling and undervaluing fell into comparative insignificance, and is now chiefly confined in England to tobacco.

The United States is going through a similar experience of attempting to stop, by severe penalties and punishments, of which the McKinley bill is a type, evasions of the customs revenue. The dodging of present customs taxes is not everywhere in our country considered immoral. Thorold Rogers, in one of his lectures delivered at Oxford in 1887-'8, said he had four times crossed the Atlantic, and "always met people of American descent who *reckon* that they will pay the price of their passage tickets by the difference at which they will buy clothes at Poole's in Savile Row, as compared with the price in Broadway." No customs law can be enforced when women and clergymen see nothing immoral in its evasion. What they do, importing merchants are not likely to consider very reprehensible. They will look on tariff taxes as on the horse-cars when crossing Broadway—as things to be

avoided and evaded. The paying of money to a custom-house inspector by an arriving traveller is a State's prison offence, but who regards the law excepting slyly to disregard it?

When our customs taxes on a woman's gown costing in Paris $200 are $160, Mr. McKinley's proposed law to *simplify* the collection of that tax will be in vain when aimed at charming women—their husbands, brothers, friends, and admirers. Where is the protectionist who would hesitate, if a customs inspector were not in sight, to bring for a friend a dutiable seal-skin jacket or coat across the Canadian border, and thus evade or defraud our revenue? Would Mr. McKinley? Does not the fact that the beneficial effects of protective taxes have not yet generally received moral recognition or cognizance prove a great deal?

Taxes, to be collectible, must be equitable, and not inflicted only for the benefit of a class. Secretary Windom's screed against defrauders of the customs revenue reads like what was said in the days of mediæval England, and by sovereigns of the houses of Tudor and Stuart, and in the early days of the house of Hanover, before Peel and Gladstone put decency and good sense into the system of British taxation.

And now what is the answer to the second question asked at the beginning of this article? It can be seen in Blackstone, and in every accepted writer on the constitutional history of England since the days of Henry VII. We will quote from the early pages of Hallam, which describe the boundaries that determined the prerogative of the sovereign, the liberty of the people, and the rights of the taxpayer:

"The essential checks upon the royal authority were five in number: (1.) The King could levy no sort of new tax upon his people, except by the grant of his Parliament. (2.) The previous assent and authority of the same assembly were necessary for every new law, whether of a general or temporary nature. (3.) No man could be committed to prison but by a legal warrant specifying his offence, and, by an usage nearly tantamount to constitutional right, he must be speedily brought to trial by means of regular sessions of jail delivery. (4.) The fact of guilt or innocence on a *criminal* charge was determined in a public court, and in the county where the offence was alleged to have occurred, by a jury of twelve men, from whose unanimous verdict no appeal could be made. *Civil rights, so far as they depended on questions of fact, were subject to the same decision.* (5.) The officers and servants of the crown, violating the personal liberty or other right of the subject, *might be sued* in an action for damages to be assessed by a jury, or, in some cases, were liable to criminal process; *nor could they plead any warrant or command in their justification, not even the direct order of the King.*"

The first of these checks the Treasury has violated since Harrison came to power. The fourth and fifth Mr. McKinley, egged on by the Harrison Administration, proposes to overthrow in this country.

PRESERVATION OF THE YOSEMITE VALLEY.

ALTHOUGH the æsthetic sense is the highest product of civilization, and less developed in the average man than even the moral sense, it has on occasion proved a victorious antagonist of even the utilitarian and business instinct. Were it not for the sentiment for the beautiful and sublime, Niagara Falls would have been utilized long ago for flour and saw-mills, and the geysers of the Yellowstone Park converted into Chinese laundries and steam factories. But perhaps in these cases a patriotic pride in having the biggest wonders in the world coöperated with the æsthetic sense in securing the desirable result of Government protection. An opportunity will soon be afforded for a fresh exercise of these sentiments. It is being gradually recognized that a mistake was made by Congress in 1864 when it reserved merely the Yosemite Valley and its immediate surroundings as a public park, and placed it under the protection of the State of California. Perhaps it would have been better had it remained national property, like the Yellowstone Park. But one thing is certain—the grant should have included a much larger territory. Those who have visited the Yosemite, and have had time to inspect not only the valley itself, with its precipitous surrounding peaks, but also the neighboring cañons, cliffs, and lakes, or who have read a description of them in Prof. Whitney's admirable manual (now unfortunately out of print), are aware that the Yosemite Valley is merely the grand climax of a series of cumulative natural wonders which make the heart of the Sierra Nevada Mountains the most romantic and sublime region in the world. It needs no argumentation that these neighboring wonders also should be reserved for all time as national property, for the benefit of the thousands who in future generations will spend their summers here in pursuit of health and pleasure.

At a meeting of the Yosemite Commissioners last June, it was suggested that the National Government should enlarge the Yosemite grant, making it include about fifty square miles instead of eight. Unless this is done, the lumber-men will ere long despoil these wonderful mountain-sides of their superb forests, as they have the shores of that gem of mountain lakes, Tahoe, for the purpose of supplying Carson City with fuel and Virginia City with planks for the mining shafts. It is expected that Senator Stanford will introduce a bill during the present session of Congress in accordance with the suggestion of the Yosemite Commissioners, and if this is done it should enlist the active support of the entire press of the country, for it must be borne in mind that the disappearance of forests in the vicinity of the Yosemite would cause the snow to melt much sooner, and thus dry up very early in the season the many waterfalls which are the chief glory of the valley.

The laudable action of the Yosemite Commissioners in urging an additional grant cannot, however, disguise the fact that the past management of the valley has been open to serious reproaches. The sensational attacks on the management printed last winter in a San Francisco newspaper were too obviously prejudiced and exaggerated to do any good. But the January number of the *Century* contains an editorial article and letters by Mr. R. U. Johnson, G. G. Mackenzie, and Lucius P. Deming, which give a startling picture of errors of commission and omission in the treatment of the valley. What takes the matter entirely out of the field of controversy, and shows that the allegations are bare facts, is the circumstance that Mr. Johnson is in possession of about a hundred photographs on which the sins committed in the valley are recorded indelibly. We have seen these photographs, and can testify from them and from personal observation last May that the strictures in the *Century* are not exaggerated or fanciful. Notwithstanding the Congressional enactment that "the premises shall be held for public use, resort, and recreation," a portion of the floor of the valley has been fenced in and the ground made to bear, instead of the beautiful flowers and grasses which naturally clothe it, hay for the horses of the transportation company, although it has been proved that the hay could have been more cheaply brought in on wagons. Horses and cattle have also been turned loose and allowed to trample down the wild azaleas and other flowers that constitute one of the special attractions of a trip to the Yosemite. Some of the finest trees have been needlessly destroyed, and Mr. Mackenzie writes that "there are places in the valley where one is forced to wonder why the axes themselves did not turn and smite the men who were putting them to such base uses." Mr. Johnson writes that "near the Yosemite Falls an unnecessary swath has been cut through the forest, to the sacrifice of some of the noblest oaks in the valley, the bolls of which lie where they were felled. The object of this is represented to have been to open a vista from the bar-room of Barnard's Hotel, to rival the natural view of the same fall from the Stoneman House."

Among the artificial attractions of the valley last spring were the carcass of a horse, and several huge piles of cans, one of them just behind the chapel, where all tourists pass on their way to Glacier Point. The State hotel was so badly constructed that it has been condemned as unsafe. One of its outhouses is a pigsty, which is sometimes so offensive that tourists are obliged to leave the piazza. The hotel is surrounded by a field of blackened stumps, and its location is as inconvenient as possible to all the chief sights, obviously to compel tourists to hire carriages or horses. The roads and bridges are laid on the principle of convenience, without reference to specially artistic view-points; nor are there any foot-paths or benches. It is said, however, that the poetic Governor who is at the head of the Commission, has suggested the introduction of horse-cars for the convenience of those who are too poor to hire horses; and an active member of the Board has threatened to cut down all the trees under thirty years old, because "underwood" is dangerous in case of fire; in reply to which it may be stated that dead logs and heaps of dry bushes, which are much more liable to spread a fire than green underbrush, are lying about everywhere. Some of the grossest nuisances in the valley will doubtless be remedied now that the venerable pioneer, Mr. Galen Clark,

has been appointed guardian; but after all he is only an executive officer subject to the orders of the Commissioners. These Commissioners receive no salary, and meet only twice a year, and cannot be expected to give to the valley the attention it needs. It is therefore imperatively necessary that a salaried landscape expert be appointed to superintend the valley, and a provision for his salary should be included in the proposed new grant.

PARÁ, THE PORT OF THE AMAZON.

PARÁ, Brazil, December 23, 1889.

To the radical, positive-minded American, determined at any cost to have something definite, to know at least the altitude of his star of destiny, Brazilian politics must, it seems, continue inexplicable, guided by a spirit whose motions are to him incomprehensible. At a distance of 3,000 miles, some dimness was to be expected in our view of the situation. We were ready to infer many active plans of reorganization which despatches failed to reveal. We could not but hope that great things were rapidly evolving out of the old imperial system. We looked forward to witnessing the stir of a new-born era. But, landed here in Pará, the signs of change and reconstruction are yet more indistinct, as a dim picture examined with a lens loses even the form which appeared to the unaided eye.

The recent history which Brazil has been making for herself is a series of unaccountable acquiescences. An Emperor is deposed by a soldier in the name of the people. The Emperor bows, gives his benediction, and departs. There is no grand rallying of the populace following this event, no enthusiastic ratification meetings—merely a quiet acquiescence, accompanied with some surprised rubbing of the eyes. The work the Republicans had contemplated doing in some uncertain future was accomplished for them, and they smiled good-naturedly and accepted it. Next comes a decree from the Provisional Government declaring universal suffrage. This might be fraught with grave consequences if there were elections pending, but what matters it when there *are* no elections—none even called as yet? In almost any other portion of the globe there would have been need for the Government to show good cause for so arbitrary a proceeding. Here it only occasions a shrug of the shoulders, and all bide the next news from Rio.

A Provincial Governor, appointed by Gen. Deodora da Fonseca, is the ensuing act. Dr. Justo Leite Chermont, at one time Brazilian Consul at New York, introduces martial law in Pará, as the incumbent of honors from the President, seconded by a Vice-Governor, Dr. Paes de Cavalho, likewise of Presidential appointment. These are well-known, honorable, and trusted Paraenses, not eager for power; so martial law does not weigh heavily upon Pará. The Brazilians, drinking their café amid much animated political conversation, may seem on the eve of violent opposition; but political crises do not brew thus in Brazil. A smile passes around on the 14th of December when the Provisional Government declares all foreigners resident within the country on that date to be citizens of the new Republic. There is a secret joy over this, and the foreigners find no sympathy in their dilemma. It is a blow aimed at a class whom Brazilians—for a reason comprehensible in the United States—cannot view with composure. The Portuguese, coming in thousands, live and make money, and by and by return to their native land, having in no wise enriched Brazil, and having never assumed any of the duties and responsibilities of citizens. In the event of war this will at least render them subject to draft for the army. It remains to be seen whether the foreign governments may not have a word to say on this matter, if the case comes to an extremity.

All that has been done has been by dictatorial decree. Laws have been made, and suffrage has been extended to thousands, from whom, whether advantageous or ruinous, it can never be wrested. Brazil is setting hard problems for herself to solve in the years to come. Meanwhile steps have been taken for organizing a constitutional government. It is currently believed that the Constitution will be, not only similar to that of the United States, but an exact copy of it. This is a hasty conclusion of over-confident Republicans, showing ignorance of our institutions, and of the human soil which nurtured them. They imagine that the same loom will weave the same fabric out of Brazilian fibre; in short, they fail to recognize the fact that, however faithfully they may endeavor to approach to our system, the conditions of life and the social traditions in Brazil give birth to peculiar national needs, with full cognizance of which their Government, to be stable, must be designed.

As a case in point, one rumor, recently circulated, has startled many people here, and elicited some mutterings that savor of resistance. The Provisional Government, in its alteration of the old régime, has, it is said, taken under consideration the question of severing Church and State. Should this decree be issued, the northern provinces, Pará and Amazonas in particular, might prove wanting in allegiance to the new Republic. These provinces have long recognized their great importance as a revenue-producing territory for the central Government. Successive famines and derangement of the sugar market have practically ruined the trade of Ceará. Maranham, Pernambuco, and Bahia have tributary to them provinces of comparatively small extent, while Pará and Manaos are the depots for the products of the richest valley in the world, whose vast resources are accessible by not less than 50,000 miles of inland waterway. Being fed thus by the great valley of the Amazon, controlling the rubber market of the world, exporting large quantities of cocoa (cacáo), able to furnish a hundred articles of value, woods, nuts, and spices, medicinal plants, oils, and perfumes, these cities, standing representative of the two provinces of the Amazon, occupy a position entitling them to consideration and respect. Their importance is enhanced by the Brazilian system of deriving support for the Government solely from export and import duties, and from fees of two principal kinds. There is no taxation upon either real or personal property, but when a piece of real estate is sold, the purchaser is required to pay a fee to the Government of 5 per cent. on the selling price. All stores are obliged to obtain a license, for which a fee is exacted, the amount varying with the kind of trade. The duties are extremely heavy; that upon exports of rubber being 23 per cent. ad valorem, and that upon cocoa 14 per cent. The total exportation of rubber from the two Amazon ports, Pará and Manaos, amounts approximately to 15,000 tons annually, having a value in round numbers of $13,000,000, which alone would yield a revenue of $2,990,000. Of cocoa 6,000 tons are shipped annually to France, worth in the aggregate about $1,000,000, yielding $140,000 revenue. There are also exported 120,000 hectolitres of Brazil nuts (castanha), worth $500,000; 20 tons of copaiba oil, at 750 reis per pound, footing up $16,000; $15,000 worth of tonka beans, representing an exportation of fifteen tons, together with hides, isinglass (from the fish Gurijuba), farina, tapioca, piassaba (invaluable for stiff brushes and brooms), and many more, swelling the sum so that, in the absence of exact statistics, it may still be safely estimated that the tax upon exportations alone will exceed $4,000,000.

A still greater revenue is obtained from importations, so that these two provinces must send not far from $10,000,000 yearly to the public treasury at Rio de Janeiro. This from a population, exclusive of savage Indians, amounting to somewhat less than one and a half millions, is enough to give these provinces a value to the nation such as to cause them justly to feel entitled to consideration and respect, and to a voice in the Government that rules them. So it behooves the new rulers to see well to it that disaffection does not arise in Grão Pará and Amazonas. It is to be hoped that their best interests will not be opposed by insistence upon the increased tax on rubber, by which it is said the new Government has sought to subsidize a single company, and that a constitution will soon be in force binding the Brazils into a united people for the good of all.

There are immense possibilities attainable for Brazil if legislation be only directed with intelligence towards facilitating the development of her gifts of nature. In 1851 the value of the exports from Pará was $1,424,801. This is small beside the outward commerce of to-day, but a comparison of gross values alone is deceptive. The increase has been in rubber only. In every other case there has been a marked decrease. Cocoa in those days brought no more than three cents per pound in Pará, and yet 8,000 tons were sent across the seas. It is now worth over eight cents, and the shipments will not exceed 6,000 tons. There were then shipped 400 tons of sugar, 38 tons of sarsaparilla, 12,000 bushels of rice, 400,000 hides, 55,000 feet of lumber. To-day none of these articles appear on the bills of lading, save a paltry 30,000 hides. Rice is now brought from abroad to a country which can produce a quality as fine as that of our Carolinas; cattle are shipped to a province abounding in fertile pastures; lumber forms the cargo of ships from New York to a land possessing, scattered in lavish profusion over thousands of square miles of unbroken forests, sixty-seven varieties of the most valuable woods for structural purposes in the world. Something is radically wrong where such paradoxes exist. The answer lies not so far off as the explanation of Brazi ian politics. Nature's prodigal efforts have been undone by restrictive tariffs, which have tied the hands that would have opened the resources of the Amazon to commerce. What was raised was taxed; what was bought was taxed; duty was levied upon the product of labor, and once more upon the payment for that product; so the world simply could not buy of the Brazilian, and the Brazilian had nothing with which to purchase from the world. Thus the industries that were kindling into life have been stifled; the cattle ranches have not prospered; cocoa plantations one by one have been abandoned to the encroaching forests, and the chief occupation in the interior has become the gathering of rubber, a wild business, adapted to the Indian and partaking very little of that spirit of true husbandry which, by creating estates and wealth, gives dignity and strength, and builds up a class of citizens fostering the arts and refinements of a progressive and cultured age.

Pará, instead of 80,000, might as easily furnish homes and employment for 800,000 people. Awaking from her dull, half-slumber, she might attain the prosperity which her position favors. The city is built within the angle between the rivers Pará and Capim. Its cathedral towers above the red-tile roofs—a cathedral in name, but abandoned to the decay which speedily follows upon disuse. A fine architectural pile it is, however, and splendid buildings cluster around it and spread away to the south and east, with the domes and belfries of other churches rising above them, while the feathery tops of the palms wave over them all. Following the narrow streets, filled with men in cool garments of gleaming white, the northern eye is surprised at the sight of rows of buildings faced with glazed tile of delicate hues of blue and brown and pink. It gives an appearance of elegance, of sumptuousness even, which is heightened in the residence portion of the city, where these exquisite houses, product of the combined arts of potter and architect, peep from the luxuriance of tropical gardens, overhung by palms, and embellished by surrounding clusters of gorgeous bloom. The streets here are wide, and rows of splendid mangos (dense, heavy-foliaged trees) arch overhead, forming these mblance of a nave wherein a cathedral twilight reigns throughout the sunniest day. There is a singular charm about Pará. Its soft, balmy airs, laden with perfumes; its daily cleansing showers, quaint streets, and lovely vistas—all impress a newcomer with delight. But ever present is the dread thought of fever, the great bane of this favored spot. When at last there shall be done here what has been done in Calcutta, and a system of sanitary protection, sewerage, and quarantine, vigorous to the ultimate detail, be adopted, then will Pará be perhaps the most delightful city in the world.

THE TUDOR EXHIBITION AT THE NEW GALLERY.

London, January 13, 1890.

Last year at the New Gallery a series of historical exhibitions was inaugurated by a show of Stuart pictures and relics, which was noticed at the time in your columns, and which proved one of the most popular ever held in London. This year the Tudor Exhibition which has succeeded it promises to be no less successful. This success is not to be wondered at, since both shows have appealed less to the artistic sense than to sentimental and historical interests, which Englishmen can best understand. That which insured the popularity of the Stuart experiment was not so much the no small number of really fine Vandykes and Lelys as the plentiful supply of bits of hair and shreds of raiment of the Stuart martyrs and rakes. For those who then visited the New Gallery principally to see these relics, the Tudor Exhibition provides a very similar assortment. The tooth of Katharine Parr, the tippet, stained with blood, which Anne Boleyn wore at her execution, the baby clothes Elizabeth made for Mary when the latter thought she was about to become a mother—these, and many other treasures of a like nature, will satisfy the expectations of the general public. But, on the other hand, the hitherto unparalleled collection of Holbein portraits and drawings would alone give artistic importance and distinction to any show, however trivial. It is but fair to add that, even without the portraits, this Tudor gathering would not be altogether trivial, since it also includes a fine display of arms and armor, of coins and medals, of MSS. and printed books. Still, the fact remains that the chief artistic interest of the show centres about the Holbeins.

Of course, the exhibited portraits begin before the Holbein period, with Henry VII., the first Tudor sovereign. But the small group which marks his reign is interesting (on the whole) historically rather than artistically. The pictures in this group which have also an art value are by Jan de Mabuse and one by Lucas van Leyden. But several attributed to the former artist were most probably never painted by him, or else have been all but ruined by ill-judged restoration; while it is difficult to understand why Van Leyden's "Card-Players," noteworthy as it is for its brilliant color, its attempt to deal with light, the expression and movement of its figures, should be included in a Tudor Exhibition. The finest Mabuse is a portrait of Henry VII., lent by Earl Brownlow, in which the color is unusually good; this and several others of the King show the same refined, sad, intelligent face, with long, thin nose and firmly-set mouth—such a contrast to the coarse, sensual, brutal head of Henry VIII. The others are notable almost entirely either for their subjects—as, for example, the pictures of Henry's mother, Margaret Beaufort, his Queen, Elizabeth of York, his sister, Mary Tudor, in which the conventionality of the early painters is but aggravated by the stiff female costume of the day (the diamond-shaped head-dress reducing all the faces, young and old, to one conventional type), and the portrait of Prince Arthur of Wales, wearing the badge of St. John the Baptist, by an unknown artist, the only one of the young prince in existence—or else they are interesting as historical or artistic curiosities, as in the case of the "Marriage of Henry VII. and Elizabeth of York," which belonged to the Strawberry Hill collection, and which Walpole explained to his own satisfaction, but not at all to that of modern critics, who declare it does not represent a marriage, and was not painted by Mabuse, as he asserted; or the picture of "Henry VII. and his family," with the royal sons and daughters (as on so many old fifteenth and sixteenth-century tombs) kneeling in two rows behind the King and Queen, while in the heavens above are St. George and the Dragon and allegory enough to suit those modern artists and art critics who would reduce all art to a system of symbolism; or the portrait of Sir Thomas Wyat in prison, with the cat whose love he won, according to the old story, bringing him a pigeon. But it is only with the next reign that the portraits begin to be valuable as works of art for all time.

Whatever may have been the faults of Henry VIII., he must at least be given due credit for having had the sense to appoint as court painter Holbein, whom he discovered when the artist was in this country visiting his first English patron, Sir Thomas More. As a consequence, while, later, Elizabeth's reign was destined to be one of the most glorious literary periods England has ever seen, Henry's proved one of the most brilliant artistically. His name is so closely associated with things which have absolutely no relation to art, that one is apt to forget him in his character of art patron. But it is thus he figures at the New Gallery, where the walls of the largest room—save for the small space reserved for Henry VII.—are hung with portraits (the greater number of note and a few masterpieces) painted during his reign. Of these, fully one-half are attributed to Holbein. That all are his work, however, is more than doubtful; there is nothing in many to suggest his technique, and never was a painter made responsible for so many canvases by lesser artists as he was. Some were probably done by his pupils and assistants, and were never even touched by the master. To others his name was attached in a later generation, when it became the practice to call almost all portraits of that date Holbeins. Unfortunately not a few, about the genuineness of which there can be no question, have suffered from long centuries of neglect and from restorers of larger enthusiasm than knowledge. But there still remain many in a fair state of preservation, and it must be remembered that Holbein's finest portraits were painted in this country, where he remained for years devoting himself so entirely to this branch of his art that Englishmen are apt to overlook the fact that he also could and did paint subject pictures, for which, indeed, he is best known on the Continent.

There are three in particular here which, if they alone had been exhibited, would still have given the show its artistic distinction. The third Duke of Norfolk—from the Windsor Galleries—in velvet and ermine, with the wands of office, is a triumph of delicate modelling, exquisite finish, rich color, and dignified composition, and is usually considered the best of the several Holbein portraits of the same nobleman. The Christina, Duchess of Milan, the simple, graceful figure in rich black robes, against a dark background, the hands twisting a glove, the sweet pale face set in a close-fitting black hood, is the property of the Duke of Norfolk, but has for some time been hanging in the National Gallery, and therefore, fortunately, is one of the best-known Holbeins in the country. It was to this masterpiece that Zucchero referred when he said he had seen nothing so good in Rome. The third is the beautiful study of Sir Thomas More—not quite spoiled by the retouching of the face—with its fine feeling of repose and dignity, and bits of brilliant color in the costume; the one from which copies have so many times been made.

There are innumerable Henrys ascribed to the same master, several of well-sustained authenticity. Though it is plain that Henry, with Elizabeth, attached chief importance to a faithful and careful rendering of his gorgeous dress—of the slashed doublet, the feathered cap, the jewelled bands—it was impossible for Holbein to make of him a mere figure of convention, such as Elizabeth became in the hands of Zucchero. For all his silk and satin gorgeousness, for all his insignia of royal office, Henry is every inch a man, and a very common, hopelessly sensual man at that; for the German showed him with the honest realism with which he rendered all his subjects, though for doing so, were he a modern, he probably would have been treated in the same fashion as Bastien-Lepage when he really painted the almost equally fat and coarse present Prince of Wales. It is curious to contrast with Holbein's frankly vulgar Henry the portrait of the same sovereign by Paride Bordone — the somewhat famous "Henry VIII. with scroll," painted in 1535, the year "the King commanded all about the Court to poll their heads; and, to give them example, he caused his own head to be polled, and from thenceforth his beard to be knotted and no more shaven," in which fashion his beard and hair are here treated. The Southern painter, more refined in conception if not in execution, evidently sought to subdue the repulsive grossness of his royal sitter, and to trim down his superfluous flesh, with the result, however, that commonness and fat are, if anything, more pronounced. This painting hangs ordinarily in that marvellous old hall of the Merchant Tailors in the

City. Of all the Henrys by Holbein, one of the most noteworthy is the large, vigorous cartoon made for the mural picture destroyed with the Palace at Whitehall in the fire of 1698, and owned by the Duke of Devonshire; it contains portraits of both Henry VII. and Henry VIII., the latter in his favorite position, legs stretched apart, his "good calf" showing, arms akimbo. Scarcely less important is the "Henry VIII. granting the Charter to the Barber-Surgeon's Company," in which the King stands surrounded by seventeen figures, almost every face in the group stamped with an individual character. Holbein did not live to complete this picture, but the composition, as well as the greater part of the work, is his.

It would be here impossible, and perhaps useless, to mention the other distinguished examples by the same master, but I must at least refer to several which are simply catalogued "Of a Man," but which, as a rule, are marked by strong character, as if Holbein even felt greater freedom when painting ordinary mortals; and also to the "Henry VIII., Anne Boleyn, and Others," known as "The Dancing Picture," in which, according to Sir Peter Lely, the male figures were painted by Holbein, the female by Janet (François Clouet).

I believe that in the National Portrait Exhibition of 1866 there were as many genuine and so-called Holbein portraits as there are now at the New Gallery. But that which gives double interest to the present show is the fact that it includes the marvellous collection of Holbein drawings from Windsor Castle, exhibited to the public for the first time. There are eighty-two of these drawings, many being the original studies for portraits hung on the near walls, so that an unequalled opportunity is now presented for the study of Holbein's methods. The drawings are made as a rule with colored chalks or crayons on white paper, which in many cases has been first covered with a pale salmon-tinted wash. In some a man's hair or beard, in others a woman's head-dress or the decoration on her collar, is worked out or suggested with pen and ink, now in a few bold, vigorous lines, and again by much careful work, expressing all the modelling of the head or the growth of the beard, or the design of an intricate pattern. In the simplest, as in the most elaborate, will be found the same breadth of treatment, simplicity and delicacy of modelling, reserve and dignity of pose and composition which characterize Holbein's finished portraits, many of which were painted from these studies and not from nature. It can only be regretted that a collection so valuable to the student should not, instead of being hidden away at Windsor, be given to the nation and placed on permanent exhibition at the National Gallery or the British Museum.

After Henry VIII. the artistic interest of the show begins to grow gradually less. Among the very few portraits representing the short reign of Edward VI. there are two by Holbein, who painted that monarch when he was a chubby baby, but as the artist died when Edward was in his sixth year, the others attributed to him, showing the King as a boy of ten or eleven or older, can hardly be considered genuine. Queen Mary's reign does not boast of a large number of portraits. Sir Antonio More had become court painter, and he is responsible for most of the pictures of the Queen arrayed in a dress which, for stiffness, can vie with Elizabeth's more elaborate costume, and with a face strongly marked with the Tudor energy, developing into fierce cruelty in the curious "Hungad Petition," by Lucas de Heere. A small Philip II., with the Austrian mouth very marked, and a certain richness of color, is ascribed to Titian; and there is a curious Cranmer, by Lucas Cranach, with parchment-like face, contrasting with the sensual features so conspicuous in all other paintings of him.

When we come to Elizabeth's reign, we find the portraits far exceeding in number those of Henry VIII.'s period, but Zucchero takes the place of Holbein, with the result that the pictures are of far less importance. Whether, however, this Queen would ever have submitted to the frankness and realism of a Holbein, is a very doubtful question. In all her existing portraits—and she was painted, if anything, oftener than Henry—even in those which show her as a child, she appears as a mere royal dummy on which to hang the most marvellous costumes, the most gorgeous stuffs and rarest jewels. Set in by great masses of reddish hair and enormous ruffs and headdresses, the face is invariably colorless, expressionless, and lifeless. In her portraits, therefore, it is the dress at which one looks, and Zucchero's painting of costume, of brocades and embroidery, is simply wonderful. No pre-Raphaelite ever approached, or even attempted, such careful and accurate working-out of detail as that which one finds in his rendering of her hideous short, wide skirts of gold and silver brocade, her jewelled stomachers, her barrel-like sleeves, her high-standing lace ruffs. His portraits of her might serve as working drawings for the embroiderer or the silk-weaver at his loom. Perhaps the only one in which there is the least suggestion of something human is by the same artist, painted on the background of a cabinet, on the doors of which are, curiously enough, the busts of her four courtiers, Leicester and Essex, Lord Burleigh and Sir Walter Raleigh.

While the greater number of the Elizabethan group are characterized by the same artificiality, they naturally are not without a very decided historical value. No matter how badly they may be painted, one cannot look with entire indifference at Essex, with his "goodly person," or Sir Walter Raleigh, bearded and bronzed, his son standing at his side, or Lord Burleigh, or Leicester, or Lord Bacon, or the many other great Elizabethan courtiers, statesmen, and heroes. But of all, the most interesting are unquestionably the seven reputed portraits of Shakspere. Hanging together are the doubtful Felton or Fenton portrait, just showing the head, with its vast brow and without the familiar short beard of the others; the better-known Zucchero, in which the painter of courtiers gives him a courtier-like face and bearing; the fine Charlcote head, the badly drawn "Burbage" portrait, and the one with the earrings which most fully realizes the popular ideal of the poet. There are also two heads of Ben Jonson, with full red lips and ruddy cheeks; and two of "Poet Fletcher," with a mass of yellowish hair falling about in confusion above a fair face with short, fair beard. But it must be admitted that, after the Holbeins, even these seem insipid enough.

One can but hope that Mr. Cameron, who made such superb photographs of many of the Stuart pictures last year, will preserve a similar record of the most notable in the Tudor collection. His photographic studies often have the richness and color of mezzotint, and he has never surpassed his Stuart series.

I have left myself but little space in which to speak of the many other exhibits. But the truth is, the portraits lead so enormously in interest that they first claim and hold one's attention, while the other articles exhibited mount into so many hundreds, those of importance often being lost in a sea of commonplaceness, that it is impossible really to look at them all. However, I must say a word about the arms and armor which most picturesquely fill the main hall. The Elizabethan was the most glorious age in arms, and all the finest collections in the country have been borrowed from. Famous suits of armor, like that of the Baron de Cosson, considered the most beautiful example in England, are here; and a group which must attract every visitor to the gallery is that formed by the russet and gilt cap-à-pie armor worn by the Earl of Pembroke at the battle of St. Quentin, and the blue-steel, elaborately gilt, colossal suit of De Montmorency, Constable of France, and the russet and gilt suit of the Duc de Montpensier, Pembroke's two prisoners at the same battle, their armor having from that day to this remained in his family. Coming, however, fresh from the reading of Mark Twain's 'Yankee at the Court of King Arthur,' it must be confessed that this armor, exquisite as it is in design and workmanship, suggests chiefly the discomfort and awkwardness of the wearers. There are also many curious and interesting examples among the large collection of swords, rapiers, and daggers, and queer old wheel-lock guns and pistols.

While the selection of MSS. does not show very great discrimination, many letters and official documents are of decided interest; and in the cases of Printed Books are to be seen valuable first editions of Bibles, Missals, and Layman's Prayer-Books. But these, as well as the coins and plate—I must at least mention the Cellini shield presented by Francis I. to Henry VIII., and lent by the Queen—would require a letter to themselves. Of the relics I do not purpose to say anything. A few, as for example Queen Elizabeth's famous fiddle, with its wealth of carving, are not without artistic merit; but as a rule they bear to the Holbeins very much the same relation that the jewelled bambinos in Italian churches have to the masterpieces over the altars.

But though much that is trifling finds a place in these historical exhibitions, taken altogether they have one advantage which cannot be overestimated: they give the average Englishman a chance to learn many things about the history of his country which he might otherwise never be able to study for himself so pleasantly. For, thanks to a strong and influential committee made up of leading names, which in England count for so much, with the Hon. Harold Dillon as Secretary, all the great old English houses and royal palaces have been drained of their treasures—treasures often unappreciated even by their owners, which have hitherto been uncatalogued and absolutely out of reach of the common man. And nowadays so many of just such treasures, hitherto handed down as heirlooms in the old English families, are being dispersed, owing to the indifference or impecuniosity of their present possessors, and bought up by men of genuine taste like the Duc d'Aumale, for example, that one wonders if in a few more generations such loan exhibitions will be even possible.

N. N.

A CONSUL TO BE REMEMBERED.

ALGIERS, January 1, 1890.

ALGIERS is becoming a favorite winter resort for the English and Americans. Its charming views, its agreeable climate, its interesting people, its opera, libraries, schools of science and literature, churches, shops, furnished and unfurnished villas, present an unusual combination, in which the attractions of

a French capital are added to those of a half-civilized Oriental town. The mail steamer comes daily from Marseilles, bringing advices from Paris that are only forty-eight hours old when they reach Algiers. This week a new sign of progress has been seen. The great English steamer *Orizaba*, of more than 6,000 tons burden, came within the mole for the first time, making here its second stop on the long voyage from Plymouth to Sidney.

As we drew near the shore in this fine ship, and were surrounded by the boats of the Algerines, dressed in Oriental garbs and chattering in a strange mixture of tongues, as we saw them fight and quarrel for the persons and property of travellers, it was easy to believe that these Arabs were descended from the pirates who were the terrors of this coast three and four-score years ago. We were not very far from the scene of those great achievements of our brave countrymen, Decatur and Bainbridge, which preceded and led up to the subsequent victory of Lord Exmouth, and began the triumph of civilization over barbarism which the French at length effectually completed.

But except to a reminiscent eye there is nothing in the harbor or in the streets of Algiers to remind the American of the famous exploits of his countrymen. One-half of Algiers remains Moorish, while the foreign half is as truly French as Marseilles or Bayonne—French in language, laws, schools, cabs, boulevards, newspapers, cafés.

Thinking over the wonderful transformation of the tyrannical government of the Deys into the republican ways of France, I went on Sunday morning into the English Chapel, which stands just within the upper walls of the city, not far from a statue which commemorates the exploits of Marshal Bugeaud. One of the guide-books says that the chapel is built "in the Anglo-Saxon style," and I expected to find a very simple early-English structure. It is rather Romanesque than Anglo-Saxon or Gothic, pleasing in appearance both without and within, and it was beautifully decorated at the time of the Queen's Jubilee with a dado of Algerian marbles. I had hardly taken a seat when my eye was arrested by a large white-marble tablet inscribed with these words:

WILLIAM SHALER, M.A.,
Consul-General United States of America at Algiers from 1815 to 1829.

During his residence here he displayed great ability under trying circumstances. His valuable work, 'Sketches of Algiers,' was translated into French, and served materially to insure the success of the Expeditionary Force which captured Algiers. In it the first suggestion was made that, in the event of any future operations against this city by a Christian Power, the landing should be made at Sidi-Ferruch instead of to the East.

He subsequently became Consul at Havana, and died there 29 March, 1833, æt. 55.

Erected as a tribute of respect to his memory by R. L. P. 1878.

I almost rubbed my eyes as I read this simple eulogy, signed with the well-known initials of the British Consul, Sir Lambert Playfair; and, as I turned around, another tablet, of red marble, placed face to face with a tablet which commemorates the Queen's Jubilee, arrested my attention. This read as follows:

In memory of a distinguished citizen of the United States of America, Commodore Stephen Decatur, who, in connection with Captain W. Bainbridge and W. Shaler, Esq., concluded a treaty with the Dey of Algiers, thus being the first to break through the intolerable bondage in which many Christian Nations were held by the Barbary States.

This tablet is erected 20 June, 1887, by citizens of the United States grateful for the privilege of associating this commemoration of their countrymen with the Jubilee of that Illustrious Sovereign Lady, Queen Victoria, who has made the name of England dear to children and to children's children throughout all lands.

There were many other memorial tablets upon the walls, two of the most interesting bearing the names of the celebrated African explorer, Bruce, and the noble British clergyman, Rev. Devereux Spratt, who would not accept the ransom from Algerian slavery that was offered him because he preferred to stay and cheer by his presence his companions in bonds.

But my mind kept recurring to the Consul, William Shaler, whose name is not on everybody's lips, like the names of Decatur and Bainbridge, but whose brave services in this distant land have been so conspicuously honored by her Majesty's representative. I knew the name of Shaler and the general story of his career in Algiers, but I was curious to know more; so, early on Monday morning, I found my way to the American Consulate to inquire into the records which are here preserved. Here I found a representative of the United States, Mr. Grellet, who fully appreciates the honorable services of his predecessor, and who placed in my hands, with commendable pride, two large volumes, bound in leather, containing copies of consular accounts and of consular despatches during the official career of Tobias Lear, and of his successor, William Shaler. If I understood him correctly, later archives were sent to Washington long ago, but these two volumes were astray. At least, they were hidden in Marseilles, and it is only within a short time that they have been recovered and replaced in the Consular Office in Algiers. In addition to these books there are many original letters and papers pertaining to the American Consulate upon the Barbary coast. Among them are several letters of Charles Folsom, who was Chargé-d'affaires at Tunis in 1818–'19, and others which bear the signature of Commodore D. Porter. Sir Lambert Playfair, the British Consul, has made ample use of these manuscripts in preparing the later chapters of his book on the 'Scourge of Christendom' (London, 1884). "Not a single document," he says, "connected with Lord Exmouth's victory exists in the British Consulate, but the admirable despatches of Mr. William Shaler fully supply the deficiency." "At my urgent solicitation, Mr. Alexander Jourdan traced them out, and rescued them from the oblivion of a garret at Marseilles." This remark applies to one of the volumes; the other was recovered subsequently by Mr. Grellet.

I have taken a great deal of pleasure in poring over these original records. Here are the items of "boodle" distributed among the courtiers of the Bashaw, in addition to the stipends paid in person to "his Highness" (as the barbarian was styled by all the Christians), in order to secure his good will, or rather to lessen his animosity. Here are the memoranda of the interviews which the Consul had with the Dey. Here are copies of his official reports to the United States Government, and of his private letters to James Monroe, the Secretary of State. Here is a narrative of the circumstances under which the treaty of peace was negotiated at the end of June, 1816—the first effective limitation of the power of the Dey by a Christian force; and here is the diary which Shaler kept during the English attack upon Algiers a few months later.

As I have no access to printed books, I do not know what parts of these documents have already been published, and so I hesitate about making long extracts from them, particularly as my object is only to bring to mind the services of a forgotten Consul, who ought to be held in grateful remembrance by all Americans, but especially by those who visit this salubrious resort. Shaler was here in a very critical period, when piracy and barbarity were giving way to modern ideas of law and order, and he bore himself with dignity, manliness, and good sense, contributing not a little towards the advent of Christian civilization.

In the official commission authorizing three Americans to negotiate a treaty with the Dey of Algiers, the name of Shaler precedes that of Decatur and Bainbridge. The two naval commanders had prepared the way for negotiation by their captures on the open sea, and the presence of a strong squadron in the Mediterranean was a great auxiliary to the work of diplomacy. Nevertheless, it required vigor, tact, and bravery to bring the Dey to terms. All these qualities were manifested by the American Commissioners, who compelled the Bashaw, in the course of two days after their arrival in the port of Algiers, to sign the memorable treaty by which the Dey renounced his claim for tribute or payments of any kind; agreed to restore the property which had been taken in violation of the former treaty; promised to release the American captives, and to place the United States upon the footing of the most favored nations.

After this treaty was negotiated, Shaler remained in the position of Consul-General for a period of fourteen years, a period of innumerable difficulties and annoyances. In this difficult position he was of the greatest service not only to his own countrymen, but to the Europeans who from time to time required his aid. Lord Exmouth, the British admiral, warmly acknowledged these services at the time they were rendered, and so did Mr. McDonnell, the British Consul; and recently they have been brought to mind by the inscription which has been already quoted, and by the writings of Sir Lambert Playfair.

Shaler's other claim for remembrance—his sagacity to perceive, and good sense to publish his perception, that Algiers could best be attacked by European forces, upon the west, at a point known as Sidi-Ferruch, and not, where other attempts had been made, in front or toward the east—is traceable to a book which was published in 1826, and soon afterwards translated into French. His suggestions were acted upon by the French in 1830, when they made their successful descent upon this coast. There is good authority for saying that they used the volume of Shaler as a handbook during their famous expedition.

Indeed, the contemporaneous papers show that Shaler, without any pretence or bravado, was a brave man, full of resources, conscious of the dignity of an American representative, undismayed in the presence of a cruel and unscrupulous despot, able and willing to protect and shelter the people of other countries, as well as his own compatriots. He was a capital public officer, holding his station contrary to his own preferences, for an inadequate compensation, under the most trying circumstances, simply that he might serve his Government and be useful to his fellow-men. To his firmness, tact, and intrepidity is largely due the abolition of Christian slavery in Algiers, and to him, indirectly, perhaps, the subsequent successful conquests of the forces of France.

I have never met Sir Lambert Playfair, and it is doubtful whether these lines will ever fall under his notice; but if they should happen to do so, I wish they might convey to him the gratitude of a small party of Americans, spending New Year's Day in Algiers, who have

been instructed by him in an interesting chapter of their country's history, and who admire the generous candor with which the British representative in Algiers has commemorated in such enduring ways the services of an American consul who might otherwise have been forgotten by the English, the French, and even the American visitors to this reconstructed capital. D. C. G.

Correspondence.

THE SEPARATE PARTY COLUMN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It seems to us in Massachusetts that you do not understand the quarter part of the evils of the method of separate columns for parties under the Australian ballot system. You say: "The objection to it is that it is in the interest of strict party voting, thus acting as a check upon complete independence of action by the voter in marking his ballot." The real evils of this method are more fundamental. It deprives the system substantially of its secrecy. A voter who votes a straight party ticket has to be in the marking compartment but a few seconds, while one who votes independently, even as to one candidate, has to stay in the compartment one or two minutes. Now, the question usually is, not which party a man belongs to, but whether he is going to vote "straight," or to scratch (for example) Gov. Hill on the Democratic ticket or some particular candidate on the Republican ticket. This the party workers can ascertain under the party-column system almost as well as under the old system of party ballots. In Connecticut the way it was told whether a voter voted his party ticket or altered it was on the same principle—by noting the length of time spent in the booth; and it worked to a charm wherever there were any active party managers on the watch.

Another disadvantage is, that it practically admits the use of party ballots, because, as there has to be on the official ballot a blank column in which any voter may paste names, it is only necessary to furnish to each voter a blanket paster with the names of the party candidates or any combination that may be got up by a trade, and this the voter is quickly to paste on to this blank space, and pass through the compartment. Indeed, it may be an advantage for a party to make no nomination for the official ballot, so that all its members *must* use the blanket paster. That pasters can be readily used with great success was shown in two of the city elections in Massachusetts last December. But with the Massachusetts official ballot a blanket paster cannot be used, as pasters can only be put in the separated blank spaces at the foot of each list.

The above objections seem to us the most serious; but, in addition, will there not be wrangles as to who shall be entitled, as between Tammany and County Democracy, for example, to the regular Democratic column? The board that has the summary decision of this question will have a vast power in its hands. —Yours respectfully, R. H. Dana.

Boston, January 31, 1890.

PARTY NAMES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The communication from "J. J. J.," in No. 1282 of the *Nation*, was in general sufficiently answered by that of "C. B. W.," which just preceded; but permit me to add one specific point in reply.

In Columbus, Ohio, from which "J. J. J." writes, is located one of the leading colleges of that State. I have known a number of young men who went there Republicans and left Democrats, but I have never heard of a single change in the opposite direction. This change is not due to any influence exerted by those officially connected with the institution, but to an intelligent study of practical economic questions, added to the general liberalizing tendency of higher education. A great many young men learn while at college that party names are less important than party principles, and that while the party names remain the same, party principles change. Naturally, these young men gravitate to that party which offers them a living principle.

"J. J. J.'s" estimate of the proportion of Republicans among professors and college students would not have been extravagant ten years ago, but it is true no longer. In one of the State universities of the West, in a strong Republican State, one-fifth of the Faculty are former Republicans who will no longer act with that party on national questions. There is no doubt that the proportion is greater in the large Eastern colleges.

One of the Converted.

January 27, 1890.

HISTORY AS IT IS WRITTEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It may be of interest to your readers to see the following extracts in close connection:

During the last thirty years of her protective system, and especially during the twenty years from 1826 to 1846, Great Britain increased her material wealth beyond all precedent in the commercial history of the world. Her development of steam-power gave to every British workman the arms of Briareus, and the inventive power of her mechanicians increased the amount, the variety, and the value of her fabrics beyond all anticipation. Every year of that period witnessed the addition of millions upon millions of sterling to the reserve capital of the kingdom. . . . At that moment Great Britain had reason to feel supremely content.—*James G. Blaine, in North American Review for January, 1890, pp. 30, 31.*

England is full of wealth, of multifarious produce, supply for human want in every kind; yet England is dying of inanition. . . . With fifteen millions of workers, understood to be the strongest, the cunningest, and the willingest our earth ever had, . . . some baleful fiat has gone forth saying, "Touch it not, ye workers, . . . no man of you shall be the better for it; this is enchanted fruit." . . . Of these successful skilful workers some two millions sit in workhouses, poor-law prisons, or have "out-door relief" flung over the wall to them, the workhouse Bastille being filled to bursting. . . . In thrifty Scotland itself . . . there are scenes of woe, and destitution, and desolation, such as, one may hope, the sun never saw before in the most barbarous regions where men ever dwelt.—*Thomas Carlyle, in Past and Present, chapter 1 (written in 1843).*

Surely the champion of a system which is so loudly asserting its love for the laboring man, must have forgotten himself in saying that "Great Britain had reason to feel supremely content" at a time when, "as every schoolboy knows," the destitution among the working classes was general and most deplorable.

Tariff-Reformer.

THE TREASURY ACT OF 1789.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The original Treasury Act of 1789 created an accounting department to consist of a Comptroller, an Auditor, a Treasurer, and a Register. This was apparently in imitation of the ordinance of September 11, 1781, "for the more *effectual execution* of the business of the Treasury, and the settlement of public accounts," which established similar offices. Can you or any of your readers inform me from what State or colony, if any, this system of checks was borrowed? The system requires the stating of accounts by one officer, their revision and certification by another, their filing and the recording of the certified balances by a third, and their payment by a fourth, not upon presentation of the settlement certificate itself, but upon a distinct warrant issued by the head of the department, reciting the settlement, which warrant must be countersigned by the Comptroller and recorded by the Register. In the multitude of checks there is safety!

E. I. Renick.

Washington, D. C., January 27, 1890.

THE SWISS CABINET.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If enough has not already been said on the subject of Cabinet Government, allow me to point to a country where the Federal Executive appears to occupy ground midway between the parliamentary and the congressional systems.

The Federal Council of Switzerland is a committee of seven members elected by the Federal Legislature in joint session, not, however, to serve as long as the majority pleases, but for a definite term of years, namely, three. Of these officers, one is designated, also by the Legislature, to act for one year at a time as President of the Confederation. Executive power, however, is not vested in one man, but in the Committee as a whole. Individual discretion is of course called for in the administration of the departments, but in law the Council is supposed to act as a unit.

In addition to the routine duties of executive secretaries, the Committee is charged with the proposal of legislation; it has no autocratic rights of initiative, even within its own party. Any member of the Chambers may move the adoption of a bill, but all are submitted to the Council for an opinion, and must be returned within a certain time. The Budget is especially its work. It may propose any class of legislation. In short, all bills, whatever their source, at some time pass through the hands of the Council and are stamped with its approval or disapproval. Legislation does not thereby escape the scrutiny of members of the Chambers. The representatives of the people may examine projects as much as they please, but, at some time in their progress, laws are reviewed by those who are actually in the executive saddle and comprehend their bearings upon existing institutions. Members of the Cabinet have the right to explain their motions in either house, and are liable at any time to interpellation upon matters of public policy.

When, however, bills urged or approved by the Council are rejected by the Legislature, the ordinary parliamentary result does not take place. No one feels obliged to resign. The Cabinet is elected for a given time, and, being thus established, sudden and frequent crises are avoided. In fact, such a thing is hardly known. Men who have proved capable administrators are kept in office term after term. Of the Cabinet of 1889 one had been in service since 1863, another since 1866, and nearly all more than one term. It is needless to mention the good effect of this on the conduct of business.

This long tenure has been partly due to the fact that the same party, or some shade of it, has been in power most of the time; but parties have not always upheld the projects of their own ministers and have yet given them reëlection. They have kept them in office

because they knew the business, and it has happened that good executive qualities have brought men of different parties into the same cabinet.

Whatever may be thought of such a result, the chief objection to party government—violent and rapid changes of ministries—would seem to be overcome by a compromise which secures both responsibility to the majority in the Legislature and a known tenure of office.

J. M. V.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.

CHAUCER EMENDATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your kind words about Dr. Skeat's edition of Chaucer's 'Legend of Good Women' will be approved by all that are glad to see the great poet made more easy of approach. In respect, however, of v. 415, the difficulty in scansion of which both you and Dr. Skeat speak, is not, I think, real. For this verse is but one of a somewhat large class of verses in which Chaucer gives double length to the second accented syllable of his pentapody, by cutting off the unaccented part of his second trochee. Thus the line, if the stress syllables be italicized, is found to read,

"Yet *hath* he *mad* ‖ *lew*-ed *folk* de-*ly*-te,"

a form that demands no emendation. Here, while the first stave is iambic, the second is trochaic, a variation that Chaucer much loves; and the second stave has his favorite alliteration on L. The same syncopation of the second foot is found in vv. 91, 195, 218, 251, 272, 286, 342, 5 and 40 of the Prologue, and doubtless in many others, both masculine and feminine.

In Shakspere also this form is common, *e. g.*:

"Poor *Cassio's smiles* ‖ *gestures* and *light behaviour*."
—*Othello, iv. 1. 103.*

"On *horror's head* ‖ *horrors accumulate*."
—*Id. iii., 4, 370.*

Respectfully, THOMAS R. PRICE.

COLUMBIA COLLEGE, January 30, 1890.

Notes.

THE third and fourth volumes of Henry Adams's 'History of the United States,' which relate to Jefferson's second Administration, will shortly be issued by the Messrs. Scribner. They announce also 'Emigration and Immigration,' by Prof. R. M. Smith of Columbia College, and 'Literature and Poetry,' by the Rev. Dr. Philip Schaff.

Macmillan & Co. have nearly ready 'Problems of Greater Britain,' by Sir Charles Dilke, in two volumes; 'Leaves from My Life,' reminiscences by Montague Williams of the English bar; and 'Notes on American Schools and Colleges,' by Dr. J. G. Fitch. They will be the publishers, in time, of a life of the late Edward Thring, by Prof. George R. Parkin of Fredericton, New Brunswick—the third undertaking of the kind now in progress.

Cassell & Co. publish directly 'Star-Land,' talks on astronomy with young people, by Sir Robert S. Ball.

The Diary of Walter Scott is on the eve of being given to the world; and the Memoirs of Marshal MacMahon are said to be in type, but for printing in an edition limited to the author's family.

The seventh volume of the 'Henry Irving Shakespeare' (Scribner & Welford) includes five plays, with the usual prefaces and notes. The illness of the late editor, Mr. Frank A. Marshall, lessened his share in the work, but he had the good fortune to supply his own hand by that of Mr. Joseph Knight in the preparation of the stage-histories, one of the interesting features of the edition, while Dr. Richard Garnett, Mr. Arthur Symons, and other friends give assistance in the introduction and notes. The work is of the same general high average of discretion and scholarship hitherto shown. We observe that Dr. Garnett argues earnestly for the theory that "The Tempest" was written for the court in the winter of 1612–13, specially for the occasion of Princess Elizabeth's marriage, at which time it was certainly performed. This would make it the last of Shakspere's plays, and his true farewell. Mr. Knight, however, upholds the earlier date of 1610. Dr. Garnett's comments on this play have more originality and literary interest than have characterized the other introductions. The illustrations are of the same inferior character as those that have gone before. Mr. Marshall's death, on December 28, 1889, before the completion of his enterprise, is much to be deplored.

The 'Mirabilia Urbis Romæ,' the mediæval guide-book to Rome, makes its first appearance in English in the translation of Francis Morgan Nichols, under the title 'The Marvels of Rome, or a Picture of the Golden City' (London: Ellis & Elvey). This most interesting topographical and archæological relic dates from the twelfth century, and was in vogue in revised forms for three hundred years. It consists of a list of the principal antiquities then extant, a collection of legends, and a tour of the city. It has been published several times under the editorship of antiquarians, of whose text the translator has made use. He gives the work in its first form, but, by an ingenious arrangement of brackets, includes also the later additions of its revised forms, so that one can tell by the eye the different parts of the text. He also furnishes at the end five cognate papers — the 'Marvels of Roman Churches,' compiled 1375, an extract from the 'Itinerary' of Benjamin of Tudela, extracts from a book of 'Processional Routes,' two topographical bulls, the list of relics in the Lateran, and a map dating from mediæval times. Copious notes are printed at the foot of the page. The volume is small and admirably printed, and bears every mark of competent scholarship. It possesses interest as a memorial of the guide by which scholars and pilgrims saw Rome in the awakening centuries of the revival of antiquity, and also as a record of the city while many ruins now gone were standing. The tone of the work, too, is an excellent illustration of the mind of the time, and its legends, though now grown familiar, are most attractive in their original simple and credulous form.

The town meeting still obtains in Plymouth, Mass. (which, by the way, "was never incorporated, nor ever by any act of colonial legislation created into a municipality"). On April 4 it voted to reprint in one volume the earliest records of the town down to the eighteenth century, at a cost not to exceed $1,000, and in the expectation of a sale which would make the treasury whole. This volume has just appeared in good shape, under the editorship of a committee consisting of Messrs. Wm. T. Davis, Arthur Lord, Chas. G. Davis, W. W. Brewster, and Thos. B. Drew—names which mean competency and accuracy; and is for sale by W. B. Clarke & Co., No. 340 Washington Street, Boston. It covers the period 1636 (for the town was long without a clerk) to 1705, and has been taken verbatim from the original records, but with comparison of official copies made at various times. The enterprise will go on if the town is reimbursed, as it is to be hoped it will be without delay. By far the bulk of the entries relate to grants and bounds of lands, but miscellaneous topics are not wanting, as, cattle marks, the killing of wolves and blackbirds, the impeding of the run of herring and other fish, the restraint of loose swine, tax rates, fort-building, etc., etc. Fines were imposed for slack attendance at town meeting. There are several lists of voters at such meetings. A few notes, historical, topographical, and etymological, have been added, and there is an index of names and things.

The first publication in book form regarding the great Pennsylvania disaster of last May is entitled 'Through the Johnstown Flood, by a Survivor,' namely, the Rev. David J. Beale, D.D. (Philadelphia: Hubbard Bros.). The editor has done his part simply and in good taste, and with much descriptive power, and for a just idea of the catastrophe nothing more will be required. There is a morgue record of names, but the numerous photographic illustrations are as little painful as possible, and not at all sensational.

The third volume of Prof. Masson's new edition of 'The Collected Writings of Thomas De Quincey' (Macmillan) embraces the London reminiscences; recollections of Lamb, Walking Stewart, Edward Irving, Talfourd, Allan Cunningham, etc.; the account of DeQuincey's estrangement from Wordsworth; the Story of a Libel, with Thoughts on Duelling; the Confessions of an Opium-eater, etc. The frontispiece consists of three miniatures of De Quincey's father, mother, and uncle, Col. Penson—his resemblance to the last-named (as to the mother) being greater, one would say, than to his father.

There has been prepared and printed for the members of the Pan-American Conference a report upon extradition, which contains not only much valuable information, arranged in convenient form, concerning the practice and rules of various countries, but a most interesting discussion of the subject in a general way by Mr. John B. Moore, the Third Assistant Secretary of State. No available source of information has been neglected in Mr. Moore's researches, of which the fruits are now made accessible to all. His report contains in its 214 pages every extradition treaty or convention of the United States with foreign Powers. To these he has added an analysis of offences, from which one can learn at a glance what in any given country constitutes an extraditable crime under our treaties with it. More than one hundred pages are given to the practice of extradition in foreign countries — every country with which we have a treaty being mentioned except Spain and Sweden - Norway. The introduction contains some important remarks and suggestions upon the questions: Should citizens be surrendered? Should a person surrendered for one offence be tried for another, before he has had an opportunity to return to the jurisdiction from which he was taken? Which demand should be first complied with when several demands are presented by different governments for the surrender of the same individual? To what extent may a government intervene in behalf of one of its citizens who is in a foreign country and is made the subject of a demand of extradition by a third State?

The delayed October number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* accompanies the January issue. The definitive tracing of the Washington pedigree by Mr. Henry F. Waters in the former number is already known to all our readers, but a large amount of supplementary matter on the same topic is published in the January instalment of

the "Genealogical Gleanings in England." Here, too, we find wills and other data concerning the families of Oxenbridge, Whittingham, Snooks, Pawlett, Alsop, Fairewether, Jobson, Northend, Isham, Tookie, etc. We remark also some genealogical notes on the Lees of Virginia, with a table, by J. Henry Lea.

The *Book-Buyer* for February has a noteworthy portrait of Mr. F. Marion Crawford, the novelist, who is said never to have been pictured in public before. The face will not disappoint his admirers.

Mr. Paul Leicester Ford, in a privately printed pamphlet, 'Who was the Mother of Franklin's Son?' goes over the ground of what he calls this "historical conundrum," and makes a small contribution to its solution, not as decisive, but only as suggestive. A pamphleteer of 1764, writing 'What is Sauce for a Goose is also Sauce for a Gander,' contrives an epitaph for Franklin, which points out "his Hand Maid Barbara, A most Valuable Slave, The Foster Mother of his last Offspring," etc.

At the beginning of the year the Johns Hopkins Hospital opened for the benefit of graduate physicians five advanced courses, viz.: in Pathology and Bacteriology, with special laboratory advantages; in Medicine, including bedside and dispensary teaching, laboratory work, and lectures; in Surgery, in Gynæcology, and in Hygiene. Among the physicians admitted to this advanced instruction are three women, two residents of Baltimore and one from Chicago.

"A. T. L." writes to us from Boston: "Your reference, in your issue of January 16, to the Schuylkill Fishing Company as 'the oldest English-speaking club in the world,' reminds me that we have in Boston a society, the 'Scots' Charitable Society,' founded January 16, 1657, and which had its 235th annual meeting last month. The records of the first meeting, in excellent condition, are in the Society's possession."

— Mr. Bishop's account, in the February *Scribner's*, of the two or three writers of contemporary Spain whom he met in Madrid, is frankly a sketchy article, and yet it may be worth while to point out a few inaccuracies into which he has fallen. His naming 'Doña Perfecta' as Galdós's "first" novel will be rather surprising to the Spanish critic who recently said that the novelist's genius was at once perceived with the appearance of his first work, 'La Fontana de Oro,' in 1868. In fact, 'Doña Perfecta' stands pretty well down the list. 'Miau' is said to be his latest, though at least three have followed it. 'Miau' was the latest at the time that the little biographical sketch of Galdós was prepared for the series of "Celebridades Contemporáneas," and it was from that account of the novelist, by the way, that both his photograph and the facsimile of his manuscript were taken, without acknowledgment, for the *Scribner's* paper. The perilous nature of the attempt to keep tally of the productions of writers of such fecundity as Spanish novelists, is also shown in the reference to the "latest book" of Emilia Pardo Bazán, said to be 'Los Pazos de Ulloa'; it really is 'Morriña.' Mr. Bishop's surprise at hearing of "one Spanish woman at least who writes," would have been somewhat tempered if he had seen the "Notes for a Biographical Dictionary of the Female Writers of Spain in the Nineteenth Century," now publishing in *España Moderna*, and already including several scores of names, though only down to the M's.

—In a recent number of the *North American Review*, Canon Farrar gives the reasons "why he is an Episcopalian." He admits that in order to be the best of Christians one has no need to be an Episcopalian at all, and that Episcopacy has no reason to arrogate the title of *the* Church in any exclusive sense. But among the superiorities which he claims for the Episcopal organization one is progressiveness, and as a conspicuous illustration of this excellence, he points to the Church of America. He adds: "As regards the Church of America, I am told that *alone*, or almost alone, of the religious communities on the Western continent, it is steadily, if but slowly, *adding to its numbers*, lengthening its cords and strengthening its stakes." The growth of American Episcopacy has been rapid. According to Bishop Perry, its standard historian, its communicants, who in 1853 were 105,136, after thirty years, in 1883 or 1886, had become 407,481—almost four-fold. But while rejoicing in this increment, how could the Canon be blind to the advance of other American sects? His own London 'Statesman's Year-Book' shows him in the same column with 407,481 Episcopalians, 3,716,000 Methodists in 1885 — more than nine to one. Has the Methodist increase shown a less percentage than the Episcopal? By no means. The Methodist progress, on the whole, has been more than nine times faster than the Episcopal, for there were many Episcopal churches in the country before the first Methodist church was formed. Nor has *recent* growth among Methodists been unknown, as Canon Farrar fancies. On the other hand, it has been faster than that Episcopal expansion to which he points with pride. Bishop Simpson sets down the Methodists in 1865 as 929,259, which is less than one-fourth their census, as given above, in 1885. Regarding Baptists, Presbyterians, Lutherans, Disciples, and Congregationalists, statistics tell the same story. The six sects which now outnumber what most of them call the Church of England seem likely to do so still.

— A Sabbatarian Frenchman is not so very rare as might be imagined, if we are to believe the *Réforme Sociale* of December 16. That periodical, which is the bulletin of the Société d'Économie Sociale, and of the social peace unions, prints the programme and statutes of "La Ligue populaire pour le repos du Dimanche," and says in its editorial introduction to these that "the unions having for their programme the Eternal Decalogue have always put in the first rank of their *desideranda* the restoration of the Third Commandment." Certain religionists have been in the habit of dwelling fondly on the phrase "the Everlasting Gospel," but the "Eternal Decalogue" is quite another sort of thing, as well as a quite new locution. That Sabbatarianism, properly so called, should establish itself during this or the next century in France, or anywhere else, we do not think likely. It is proper to note, however, in this connection, that the Ligue is not Sabbatarian in itself, though there are some Sabbatarians among its promoters. It is merely a league for the Sunday rest; and Turks, infidels, and heretics are doubtless included in it, as well as Jews and Christians. Especially it has for an object to obtain one free day in the week for workingmen, and it will attempt to demonstrate the necessity and benefits of the Sunday from the point of view of hygiene, of morals, of the family, and of the State. No one doubts, so far as we know, that this will be a useful and praiseworthy undertaking, and the names that are signed to the programme of the Ligue indicate clearly that the support of it comes from no single sect, or party, or church. Among them are those of Jules Simon and Léon Say, of two Protestant pastors, of an apostolic missionary (a Roman Catholic of course), of several managers of railways, of the architect of the city of Paris, and of other persons of distinction in various callings.

—For a hundred and fifty years, Whiston's translation of Josephus has held its place, less from its own merits than from the fact that scholars have shrunk from the labor of constructing a revised text and giving a new rendering. For the 'War,' indeed, we have Traill's translation, which is fairly good, but for the 'Antiquities' there has been up to this time only Whiston. Pending the formation of a better text, a new translation has just been brought out in England (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Scribner & Welford); Whiston's rendering being revised by the Rev. A. R. Shilleto, and topographical notes added by Sir C. W. Wilson, whose geographical work in Palestine is well known. Mr. Shilleto (the translator of Plutarch's 'Morals') seems to have done his work well, correcting Whiston's errors and awkwardnesses of rendering, and dealing freely with his notes, some of which are ridiculous. This first instalment gives us the 'Life' and the 'Antiquities' in three handy volumes; two more volumes will soon follow containing the 'War' and the 'Tract against Apion.' The translator has added a few critical notes, and might profitably have given more, pointing out Josephus's omissions and errors, especially as these have been made clear by recent discoveries. Thus, it might be noted (i, 325) that he fails to mention Gideon's ephod; that the title "Pharaoh" (ii, 99) is not now supposed to mean "King"; that the Assyrian King Pul (ii, 191) is generally identified with Tiglathpileser; that it was not Shalmaneser (ii, 199), but Sargon, who took Samaria; that the Assyrian king whom Josephus describes as besieging Tyre (ii, 200) is thought by George Smith ('History of Sennacherib,' p. 69) to be Sennacherib; that this monarch survived the disaster in Palestine not a "little while" (ii, 205), but twenty years. Such notes would take up little space and would be very useful to the general reader. But the translation, as it stands, is a great improvement on Whiston, and will commend itself to all students of Josephus.

—The twenty-first volume of Leslie Stephen's 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) ends with Gloucester. The four Georges, who are described with a frankness that does not spare the feelings of their numerous living posterity, collectively receive fuller treatment than any other personages, averaging nearly fifteen pages each. An actor, Garrick, gets nearly twelve; Owen Glendower gets seven; Gibbon, who is favorably summed up by Mr. Stephen himself, gets six. Other prominent names in this volume are William Gifford of the *Quarterly Review* (by Mr. Stephen), John Gay, Gillray, Mrs. Gaskell, and Mrs. Gilbert (Ann Taylor). We should also mention Sir John Gladstone (father of the Prime Minister)—"Gladstones" until he got permission by royal letters patent February 10, 1835, to drop the final *s*. The famous Mrs. Hannah Glasse is shown, as the dictionaries have already admonished us, not to have used in her 'Art of Cookery' the instructions, "First catch your hare." Her words were, "Take your hare when it is cased" (*i. e.*, skinned). Thomas Geeran was one of the false centenarians whom the late W. J. Thoms took delight in exposing. Among pioneers here commemorated are William Gascoigne (1612–1644), who invented the micrometer and its application to the telescope; William Ged (1690–

1749), who invented stereotyping; Dr. William Gibbons (1649–1728), who made mahogany fashionable in England; Joseph Gillott (1799-1873), who first employed machinery in the making of steel pens; Thomas Girtin (1775–1802), "the true founder of the modern practice of 'painting' as distinguished from 'tinting' in water-colors," "laying in the object upon his paper with the local color, and shadowing the same with the individual tint of its own shadow"; and Joseph Glass (1791–1867), who humanely suppressed chimney-boys by his unpatented machine for cleaning chimneys (Act of Parliament July 1, 1842). Garrick, too, was the first stage-manager in England to light the stage by hidden lights. There is also sometimes a distinction in being last, and Elizabeth Gaunt, whom William Penn saw burnt alive at Tyburn on October 23, 1685, for treason (she had given money to speed an outlawed conspirator in the Rye House plot), was the last woman executed in England for a political offence. Three names are especially associated with America, viz., Sir Humphrey Gilbert, who planted the first English colony in this hemisphere; Sir Thomas Gates, that Governor of Virginia whose account of his wrecking on the Bermudas helped Shakspere to his "Tempest"; and the much-married Lola Montez (Marie Gilbert), who died in this country, but at Astoria, not at Asteria (p. 333). And since we close with mention of a typographical error, let us revert to vol. xx. in order to point out (in the article on Gen. Thomas Gage) the printing of "John *Harvey*" for John Hancock, as excepted from Gage's offer of pardon, and the assigning the collision of April 19, 1775, at Lexington to the *return* march of the regulars.

— The death of Mrs. Prudence Crandall Philleo at Elk Falls, Kansas, on January 28, removes an historic figure cast in the same mould with John Brown, and an earlier combatant than he with the Slave Power. She died almost to a day on the fifty-seventh anniversary of a decisive interview in Boston with the editor of the *Liberator*, regarding her purpose to convert her flourishing school at Canterbury, Conn., for white girls into one for black, having "for some months past," as she had previously written Mr. Garrison, "determined, if possible, during the remaining part of my life, to benefit the people of color." When these words were penned, such a profession — the most Christian, certainly, that could be made —was unpopular, odious, even "unconstitutional." It was especially resented by an organization pretending to aim at the same object, viz., the American Colonization Society, whose local agent became at once the leading persecutor of Miss Crandall and her school. The story of this persecution, through inhuman boycotting and a law expressly procured from the Legislature, making it penal to bring colored children into the State to be educated, is too well known to be repeated here. The law was repealed in the course of five years, and its victim was, when past eighty, pensioned by the State by way of atonement. She lived to see slavery abolished by the war, and Kansas, her chosen home, peopled by colored refugees from the Gulf States with no law, Federal or State, to hinder. The spirit of caste, however, which evoked the opposition to her benevolent plans, has but little abated at the North since 1833: the higher education of colored Americans, though now obtainable in the first institutions in the country, still leads only to an *impasse* in most employments; political advancement is grudged them, and social equality denied absolutely. Moreover, the old colonization mania, now more preposterous than ever, is revived as the solution of the "negro problem" at the South, where stringent statutes make intermarriage a crime and put a premium on illicit intercourse, and where the endeavor of white educators "to benefit the people of color" is rewarded with social ostracism. Wonderful as was, therefore, the revolution witnessed by Prudence Crandall in her long life, it must be confessed that the people of this country, whatever party name they assume or whatever section they inhabit, are still leagues behind her simple Christian principle and practice.

—The Rev. Dr. Richard Frederick Littledale, who died in London on January 11, was not only a learned controversialist, but an extremely witty and clever and versatile contributor to English newspapers and reviews. He had hardly passed beyond the bounds of middle life, having been born in Dublin in 1833, and having graduated at Trinity College in 1854 with great distinction. He began to write early, and his work with the pen has been continuous for nearly five and thirty years. His chief works of an ecclesiastical sort are his 'Commentary on the Psalms,' a continuation of the work of his friend, Dr. John Mason Neale; a 'Commentary on the Song of Songs'; 'The Petrine Claims'; and 'Plain Reasons against Joining the Church of Rome.' Under the same head may be put his 'Offices of the Eastern Church' and a multitude of liturgical and ritual pamphlets and essays. Dr. Littledale belonged to the so-called "advanced" or Ritualist School of Anglicans, and was a merciless and perhaps not always too scrupulous controversialist on its side. He never could be more than an advocate in writing upon any religious question, and his wit and great learning and ready memory made him a very uncomfortable antagonist to meet. Many even of those who most nearly agreed with him must regret that he did not employ his great abilities and acquirements more steadily in constructive and permanent work. Dr. Littledale was a regular contributor to the *Academy* almost from its beginning, reviewing in it for the most part novels and light literature. His ability to work was astonishing. Besides what he did with the pen, he was all the time actively engaged in clerical work and in lecturing, though for the last twenty-five years of his life he was the victim of an obscure spinal disease that kept him in constant pain.

THE AUSTRALIAN ABORIGINES.

Among Cannibals: An Account of Four Years' Travels in Australia, and of Camp Life with the Aborigines of Queensland. By Carl Lumholtz. Translated by Rasmus B. Anderson. With portrait, maps, four chromo-lithographs, and woodcuts. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1889. Pp. xx, 395. 8vo.

It would be difficult to find a more perfect picture of savage life than this account of the North Queensland black. It is written with great simplicity and directness, and with a descriptive power which is shown especially in the individuality given to the natives. In most books of travel people of a low type have rarely more separateness than the different members of a herd of cattle, while the companions of Prof. Lumholtz, Willy, Jacky, and Yokkai, are as distinct personages as Robinson Crusoe's Friday. This fact alone furnishes strong evidence, not only of the carefulness of his observations, but also of the truth of his descriptions. His familiarity with native life was not acquired easily. For more than a year he lived with the blacks, sharing their grass huts, eating their food, enduring their unspeakably repulsive habits, in constant peril of his life at their hands. One can scarcely imagine a more self-denying life, more full of privations, which were the harder to bear as all the comforts of civilization were meanwhile close at hand. Such enthusiasm in the pursuit of knowledge the reader cannot but feel was worthy a higher reward even than the adding four new mammals to the fauna of Australia, and the raising of an enduring monument to a race which, but for the writer, would in a few decades have perished without leaving a trace of its existence.

Prof. Lumholtz went to Australia in 1880 to collect for the museums of the University of Christiania as well as to pursue studies of his own. After spending several months at a cattle station near Rockhampton, in Queensland, he went some eight hundred miles into the interior. The regions visited did not, however, prove favorable for his purposes. He found that the monotony of the inland scrubs, "with their gray or brown masses of stiff, often shadeless trees," was "rarely broken by the sight of a bird or any other living thing," while the hardships from the fleas and the flies, the bad water, and the heat, were very great. The natives, he says, "astonished me by their bodily structure; neither before nor since have I seen them so tall, and upon the whole so well nourished, as in the tribe near Elderslie. Some of the women were even monstrously large; their hair was generally straight. Their food consisted chiefly of fish, snakes, rats, and clams."

The native police in this region showed great skill in throwing the boomerang, and the author suggests "that the idea was discovered in their games." He says: "I have frequently seen them fold the leaf of a common palm into a square, give the two corners a little twist, one to each side, and throw it into the air, making it skim round and return. A white man told me that his black boys, while round the camp fire, used frequently to amuse themselves with the leaves of the Brigalow-acacia, which have a striking resemblance to the boomerang. They gave them a flick with the finger, causing the leaves to start off, but to return in the same manner as the boomerang." This weapon is of two kinds, the one plain, the other returning. The former only, which is far less curved than the other, is used in war or in hunting, as "it is impossible to aim accurately with the returning boomerang."

Being obliged to relinquish further researches in this region, Prof. Lumholtz took up his quarters at a deserted cattle station some forty miles from the mouth of the Herbert River in Northern Queensland. It was apparently some two days' journey from the nearest sugar plantation, so that, except for the white keeper of the station, who was not many degrees above his black neighbors in refinement, our traveller was entirely dependent upon the natives for companionship. The country was parcelled into districts called "lands," each of which was inhabited by a tribe of blacks, who rarely went outside the limits of their own land. Accordingly, whenever Prof. Lumholtz wished to hunt in any district, it was absolutely necessary to obtain the help of some of the tribe to which it belonged. This added both to his difficulty and to his peril, as the further he went from the station, the wilder were the blacks. These were divided into the "civilized" and the "myall," or savages, upon whom the former looked with great contempt. To be civilized, however, it is only required that they should "know that they will be killed if they

murder a white man, to be fond of wearing the garments and ornaments of white people, and to smoke tobacco"—certainly a not very advanced stage of civilization.

Friendly relations having been established with the tribe in whose land the station was, by judicious presents of tobacco, which takes the place of money with them, Prof. Lumholtz immediately began to collect. He soon found traces of what seemed to be two mammals unknown to science, and a keen search was at once instituted for them. It was his intense desire to obtain specimens of these creatures, called by the natives the "yarri" and the "boongary," more than a purpose to study human nature in its most degraded and repulsive form, that led him to endure the privations and dangers of a fourteen months' close companionship with the blacks. His fruitless efforts to obtain either in the mountains near the station, led him further and further afield, until at length he found himself alone among tribes which have never before come in contact with a white man. Although they were treacherous and thoroughly untrustworthy, the only precaution which he took was to regularly fire off at night his revolver ("the baby of the gun," the natives called it), giving the impression to his companions that he never slept. He secured at length one specimen of the yarri, which proved to be a rare, but not unknown, marsupial tiger-cat. As the blacks insisted that it was a small one, the author is "convinced that there exists a large animal of this kind that has not yet been discovered." This specimen, however, was nearly three feet long from the snout to the tip of the tail, apparently much larger than those previously described. Prof. Flower, for instance, speaks of it as the size of a common cat.

With respect to the boongary, Prof. Lumholtz was more fortunate, though his search was much more protracted. He had hunted for it many days in vain when his companions suddenly declared that it could only be got with a dog. This want it was not easy to supply, as the Herbert River blacks have very few dingoes. These as a rule are of pure blood, being rarely bred in captivity; they are found as puppies in the hollow trunks of trees and carefully reared, and not all receive the special training needed to hunt the boongary. When, with the aid of a dingo, a specimen of this animal was finally procured, it turned out to be a tree-kangaroo of a species similar, though more variegated in color, to those inhabiting New Guinea. The skin of the first one captured was unfortunately devoured by one of the camp dingoes, but several others were taken, which Prof. Lumholtz succeeded in carrying safely to his headquarters. His main object being accomplished, he returned to the coast and to civilization.

The North Queensland black is regarded by our author as the lowest of the human race in point of culture. With this assertion we can hardly agree, although very likely none lower have been so carefully observed and fully described. In both Central and South Africa, and, if we are not mistaken, in New Guinea and some of the East Indian islands, to say nothing of Tierra del Fuego, there are tribes distinctly below the Australian savages in intelligence and habits of life. The latter, for example, though living upon the grossest food, almost invariably cook it, never eating raw meat. Fire is made in a few seconds by what Mr. Tylor happily calls the fire-drill—that is, by twirling a stick rapidly between the hands on a soft piece of wood. They ornament their shields with patterns (which "differ in each man's shield, and thus constitute his coat of arms"), and can draw pictures, though only of the crudest kind, yet "still not without symmetry; the left side [of some human figures] was precisely like the right." Their songs are not mere expressionless sounds, but are words set to different tunes, a few of which are "tolerably melodious," though they have a better ear for rhythm than for melody. "It is a remarkable fact that they themselves sometimes do not understand the words which they sing, the song having been learned from a tribe which speaks another dialect. Thus a good song will travel from tribe to tribe." While the vocabulary is small, "their language is rich in words describing phenomena that attract the attention," there being various names, for example, for flame and coals. A rude form of sign language also exists among them. They send information to other tribes "by the aid of figures scratched on a 'message stick' made of wood, about four to seven inches long and one inch wide." The men plait baskets—the women never—which are "wonderfully fine and strong, and are often painted with red, yellow, or white ochre, and sometimes with stripes or dots of human blood, which the maker takes from his own arm." Now, all this implies a condition many removes above that of the lowest of the human race.

The Queensland blacks resemble the Bushmen in many particulars, but, singularly enough, have no knowledge of the bow and arrow, the principal weapon of this African tribe. In fact, they rarely use any weapons when hunting in the scrub, killing their prey by flinging sticks of wood at it. Spears are used in a wallaby hunt, and huge wooden swords and shields in their duels or tournaments, as they might be called. One of these "borbobys," in which the members of different tribes engage, was witnessed by Prof. Lumholtz, who describes it with great vivacity. The men fight in pairs, using a sword so heavy that the combatant is "obliged to let the weapon rest in front on the ground a few moments before the duel begins, when he swings it back and past his head against his opponent. When one of them has made his blow, it is his opponent's turn, and thus they exchange blows until one of them gets tired and gives up, or his shield is cloven, in which case he is regarded as unfit for the fight." In these combats, where "all disputes and legal conflicts were settled, not only between tribes, but also between individuals," bloodshed is rare, though many women change husbands, the victor taking possession at times of his opponent's wives. They know of but one crime (save the murder of a member of the same tribe), viz., theft, and the most common theft is the stealing of women. "Inchastity, which is called *gramma*, *i. e.*, to steal, also falls under the head of theft." As the women largely exceed the men in number, the more powerful or richest of a tribe have several wives, whom they generally treat kindly, and some even generously. They are fond of their children, and have the redeeming trait of being "very kind and sympathetic towards those who are ill." Prof. Lumholtz, however, regards them as very treacherous, and incapable of the sentiment of gratitude. There was but one among them all who showed the slightest signs of attachment to him, notwithstanding his constant efforts to win them by liberal gifts of food and tobacco. At last he felt that there were few who would not have killed him, if they had dared, for a stick of tobacco.

Their tribal organization is very loose, any man leaving his tribe and joining another if he chooses, and without any acknowledged chief or head man. The most influential, according to our author, is often the one who is most skilful in procuring *talgoro*, *i. e.*, human flesh. Although he gives many instances of their cannibalism, yet it is to be noted that he himself apparently never witnessed or came upon any direct traces of a human feast. In regard to the religious conceptions of the natives on Herbert River, Prof. Lumholtz says: "It is my opinion that they do not believe in any supreme good Being, but only in a demon, and it was even difficult for them to give any definite account of this devil. On the other hand, it must be admitted that the natives are very reluctant to give any information in regard to their religious beliefs. They look upon them as secrets not to be divulged to persons not of their own race." Their numbers are rapidly diminishing under the combined influence of opium, introduced by the Chinese, and the almost universal prostitution and consequent barrenness of the women, as soon as they come into contact with the whites.

We have left but little space to speak of the author's contributions to other departments of science. He brought back with him "about seven hundred specimens of birds, a large number of reptiles and batrachians, numerous fishes, also some insects and lower animals." He discovered four new mammals, a tree-kangaroo, and three opossums. In an appendix is given a short account of the flora and fauna of the country. The book is profusely and excellently illustrated, and contains good maps and an index.

DR. GRISANOWSKI.

Dr. E. G. F. Grisanowski: Mittheilungen aus seinem Leben und seinen Briefen. Von Elpis Melena. Hanover: Schmort & Von Seefeld. Pp. 376. 1890.

THIS is a sketch of the life of a very interesting man, who, had he had more ambition, more selfishness, less modesty and reserve, would have had a world-wide reputation. It is written by a warm friend, Mme. Espérance de Schwartz, a lady of German parentage but English citizenship. It consists also of letters written chiefly to herself during a friendship of forty years. Some may perhaps consider that this friendship has colored the author's views and biassed her estimate of the subject of her memoir; but a large circle of friends and acquaintance in Germany, England, and America will bear testimony to their truth.

Ernst Gryzanovski (or Grisanowski, as the name is usually written) was born in Königsberg, in 1824. He was of Polish descent, although his father and grandfather were also Königsbergers, and of course Prussian subjects. He entered the University at Königsberg, and in 1845, before he was twenty-one, received the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, after an examination in mathematics and Oriental languages. He was also a deep student of the Hegelian philosophy. After leaving the University he went to Berlin, where he was well received by the Minister Von Caunitz; but it was two years before he obtained an appointment. In 1847 he was made attaché to the Prussian Legation in Rome, and there acted as Secretary to the Ambassador Von Usedom. It was here that, in the following summer, he met with M. and Mme. de Schwartz, just returned from a winter in Algeria, to take up their residence in Rome.

Those were stirring times in Italy. The appetite for freedom naturally grew with its food, and reports of popular risings kept the usual influx of strangers at a low ebb. Grisanowski and his friends were on intimate terms with Von Kestner, the Hanoverian Minister, and Geheim-

rath Alertz, physician to the Prussian Legation. These gentlemen had easy access to Antonelli, and even to Pope Pius himself; and to them at least it was no surprise when, after the assassination of Rossi, his Holiness left Rome on the night of November 24 in the suite of Count Spaur, the Bavarian Minister, wearing the livery of his servants, and fled to Gaeta. The legations all followed, and our Doctor was obliged to take up his residence in Mola di Gaeta, an exile from his beloved Rome. That his situation was not agreeable appears clearly enough from his letters, which partake of the flavor of the lemon-juice with which, for secrecy, some of them were written.

What happened in Rome after the Pope's flight is generally known. Mazzini proclaimed the Republic, and Garibaldi prepared for the defence of the city against the French, Louis Napoleon having undertaken to reinstate Pius IX. He found it more of "a big job" than he had expected. After a few months in Gaeta Grisanowski left for Berlin with despatches. By this time he had become disgusted with diplomacy, its tortuous ways little harmonizing with his direct nature. In the following April he threw up his office, and writes triumphantly from Berlin: "*Italiam! Italiam!* I am free." He found his friends in Sorrento, who had managed, with the help of Kestner and Alertz, to escape from Rome in the night. Kestner joined the party later, and a very agreeable summer was passed in that earthly Paradise. It may be interesting to the lovers of Goethe to know that Kestner, then an old man, was the son of Werther's Lotte, famous for cutting bread and butter.

After a residence of two or three years, partly at Rome, partly at Genzano, supporting himself by teaching mathematics, Grisanowski decided to follow a taste which had always been strong with him, and began the study of medicine. He studied in Pisa, Montpellier, and Heidelberg; and at the last-named university took his degree of M.D., "insigni cum laude," in 1855. He practised his profession at different periods in Florence, Pisa, and Leghorn. His residence at Florence was for him a very agreeable one. He found there a constellation of literary stars, *e. g.*, Savage Landor, the Brownings, Trollopes, Villaris, Mignatys, Miss Cobbe, Donati, Karl Hillebrand, Louis Ehlert, etc. This was a society that could well appreciate him. With Americans, too, he had the pleasantest intercourse, and the Motleys, Storys, Crawfords, Nortons, Lowells will all bear witness to the learned Doctor's various accomplishments. He removed to Pisa on the invitation of the English Consul, the official physician there having died suddenly. In 1865 he married an English lady, Miss Wright of Exeter.

If, as his biographer says, he sought happiness, late in life, in marriage, he certainly found it. Whether he chose wisely in his profession, may be doubted. It was the science that attracted him so powerfully, but he was ill-fitted for the practice. In a shifting public, like the foreign population of an Italian town in winter, it is hard to establish a reputation. It is building a house on a quicksand. Other arts are necessary besides medical skill. Dr. Grisanowski was never so happy as when at his desk. It was during this period that he corresponded with the *Nation*, and also, from 1871 to 1877, wrote many articles for the *North American Review*. These may serve as a monument to his admirable English. Indeed, the editor at that time used to say that Dr. Grisanowski was his best contributor; and it was Mr. Adams's habit not to look at his MS., but wait until he saw the article in the proof-sheets! His subjects show a remarkable variety, *e. g.*: "The Rise of Popular Opinion in Prussia," "Regeneration of Italy," "International Workingmen's Associations," "Schopenhauer's Pessimistic Philosophy," "The Roman Church," "Comtism," "Wagner's Theories of Music." The last title is a reminder that Grisanowski was nothing if not musical. In the present Wagner mania, an extract from a letter, speaking of a visit he made to Bayreuth in 1882, may be of interest:

"Wagner's 'Parsifal' has made a deep and abiding impression on me. Who hears with the ear only will certainly get no satisfaction. Wagner, too, does not pretend to give 'absolute music.' But one gets, as compensation, something of a most peculiar kind, which can be compared to nothing before known. Eye and ear become one sense; and the double sense leads, not only to the emotions, but also to the intellect, on which the scenic representation and the combination of mysticism and philosophy in the poem have the highest claim." "The first act seems to me perfect, in spite of its length. I had not expected that the musical *motifs* would impress themselves so easily upon me. They are not melodies, and yet they can't be forgotten. This kind of art is too original to have a future; and Wagner must be received as a *semel factum*."

There are many who will say amen to this.

After Pisa and another trial of Florence, a seaside residence was found better for Dr. Grisanowski's health, and in 1877 he removed to Leghorn, where he occupied a beautiful villa outside the walls. Before this, President Eliot had offered him the professorship of German in Harvard College, which, however, he felt himself obliged to decline. Thinking little of his practice, he now gave himself up to his favorite studies. While in Florence he had become much interested in efforts made by the humane societies in England and Germany to check the practice of vivisection. It was his biographer, Mme. de Schwartz, who first suggested to him to take up the pen in behalf of suffering animals. The members of these societies soon learned to appreciate its power when animated by his sympathetic nature, and the Sage of Leghorn, as he was called, found little rest. The rule is held a good one by these bodies, "not to urge a willing horse," but they forgot that some consideration was also due to the nobler being. The Doctor's willingness is proved by his works, a review of which, by Pastor Knodt, is appended to the memoir.

In January, 1886, Dr. Grisanowski had a slight stroke of paralysis, which his medical attendants attributed to overwork. It was followed, a few months later, by one more violent. It failed to kill, but he was left with the loss of speech and of the use of his right arm and leg. Fortunately, his wife had the aid and companionship of her two sisters, who hastened from England on receipt of a telegram announcing the first attack; and, indeed, all their assistance was required in the complications that followed. It was necessary to give up the villa they had occupied for eight years; a new dwelling was to be found, the furniture to be moved, and the Doctor himself, though in so low a state that his physician would not take the responsibility of the change. The heroic wife was equal to the emergency. After a long search, she found a suitable house near Lucca, distant some thirty miles; she contracted for the moving of the furniture, and at the last moment asked her husband what he would do. "Go," he said—for he was able to articulate single words. A mattress was spread in an open carriage, and he was laid upon it. The change of air revived him, and, in his new abode, he was able to survive for two years. It is situated in a beautiful country; and, though the house has not the charm of his former villa, there can be no doubt that he enjoyed it as much as one could enjoy anything in the state to which he was reduced. The following summer he was taken to the health establishment of Dr. Krüche, near Munich, but with little profit. During these last two years, who can describe the devotion of his wife, by day and night his constant attendant, from whom alone he would receive help or food! At last his heart was affected to such a degree that breathing became more and more difficult, till, at the end, he lay for a week gasping for breath, occasionally uttering the word *sterben* in a tone that must still ring in the ears of all who heard it. The Italian doctor would willingly have shortened his suffering by morphine, but Grisanowski would not allow it. He died on the 31st of May, 1888, and lies buried in the English cemetery at the Baths of Lucca.

Mme. de Schwartz has done her work well.* It has evidently been with her a labor of love. Some may think she has exaggerated the picture of her friend. Not so.

"The more," she says, "the reader penetrates into the intellectual wealth of his letters, the more difficult it will be to take leave of a man whose modest nature, shrinking like a sensitive plant from the world and its applause, concealed an affluence of ideas, an extent of wisdom, a clearness of perception and expression, such as one seldom has found united. His real worth consists in this, that he knew how to combine all these intellectual endowments by the purity of his life, by his extreme self-abnegation, by his warm sympathy for others, into an harmonious whole which entitles him to a lofty place in the ranks of noble men."

Unfortunately, all these letters are written in German, and a translation of them would fail to represent the spirit of the originals. It would be well if the large circle of English-speaking friends with whom Dr. Grisanowski corresponded would make a collection of their letters, and follow out the work so well begun by Mme. de Schwartz.

As the poetical side of this many-sided man has been least dwelt upon, we would remind our readers of some Latin verses, addressed to W. S. Landor on his birthday, which appeared in a late *Nation* (No. 1271). As they may have escaped notice, perhaps an English version of them will not be unacceptable:

TO LANDOR ON HIS BIRTHDAY.

Who taught thee to invoke a foreign Muse?
From whom didst learn to strike the Roman lyre?
Did Sabine nurse perhaps give suck to thee,
Or was it thine to drink from Castaly?
Alas! the ruined temples prostrate lie.
No longer in celestial halls resound
The echoes of the banquets of the gods.
But there, where Homer and where Sappho quaffed,
The gentle murmur of Castalian waves
Is ever heard. Surely Melpomene,
Weeping at sight of ruin such as this,
Forbids the fountain e'er to cease its flow.
Nor can the Goddess brook a vain delay.
After whole ages to the Muse denied,
Landor now claims a cup from Hippocrene.
O fortunate old man (if age can come
After such charms), whose happy lot has been
To live in the enjoyment of these gifts!
Whether thy songs move or to tears or mirth,
Posterity will hail thee gratefully.
Behold, Rome opens wide her gates! Return
The sacred Deities in Cæsar's train!
Vanish the mitred rulers in the realm
Of gloom and sadness! Landor, while thou liv'st,
All love of high Olympus cannot fade;
Nor wilt thou ever, Landor, wholly die.

RECENT NOVELS.

By the Western Sea: a Summer Idyll. By James Baker. Longmans, Green & Co. 1889.

The Spanish Poniard: Being the Story of the Remorse of Ambrose Drybridge. By Thomas R. Pinkerton. London: Swan, Sonnenschein & Co. 1890.

* The reader will naturally not expect any of the stirring adventures which our lively authoress narrates in her 'Recollections of Garibaldi,' but he must not fail to read the Walfisch story on page 136.

The Golden Days of '49: A Tale of the California Diggings. By Kirk Munroe. Dodd, Mead & Co.

With Gauge & Swallow, Attorneys. By Albion W. Tourgée. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1889.

Lily Lass. By Justin Huntly McCarthy, M.P. D. Appleton & Co. 1890.

Standish of Standish: A Story of the Pilgrims. By Jane G. Austin. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Gerald Ffrench's Friends. By George H. Jessop. Longmans, Green & Co.

The Bursting of a Boom. By Frederick R. Sanford. J. B. Lippincott Co.

A Summer in a Cañon: A California Story. By Kate Douglass Wiggin. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Tentée. Par Th. Bentzon. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern. 1890.

'By the Western Sea' is essentially a book for artists. Its plot, incidents, and characters cannot be appreciated except by that marked caste the chief business of whose life it is to look for beauty in nature or man, and immediately think if said beauty can be represented in words, colors, clay, musical notes, or whichever artistic medium comes most naturally to the individual. Almost every one of the art discussions of to-day is touched, incidentally to the idyll—an idyll, by the way, which towards the end gets quite beyond the Theocritean or Tennysonian idyll, and dangerously near the romances of chivalry. But there is a large class not wholly composed of stupid Philistines, and yet not always looking out for beauty or considering how objects "compose." To this class, no less than to artists, the central theme of the story will be touching if not very new; the characters, principal and subordinate, real, breathing men and women, and the knot of events generally well unwound. But it would be a relief to have half the descriptions of scenery bodily cut out; to follow the hero and heroine, their friends and enemies, without eternally having to stop and observe a "bit"; and besides the mischievous boy, who happily is without the slightest feeling for art, to find some prominent character who dares to entertain an emotion, opinion, or passion which has not been awakened through the eyes searching for beauty—in short, to have the minds, hearts, and souls sometimes put into a night express train so as to carry on the story without the possibility of seeing a subject.

'The Spanish Poniard' is a very careful and meritorious, but not very profound or successful, attempt to portray the lives of a number of quiet people living in the town of Warwick in the days of Charles I. They hear very little of all the exciting events of the reign, and yet from time to time are swept into the whirlwind of violent preaching and other resistless forces which were waking up all the great centres of England to an implacable contest. In the intervals of these general furies, the little knot of persons whose life the book tells are kept in excitement by the mystery, not very obscure, of a blind scholar and writer, a drowned Spanish woman, and the Spanish poniard of the title, which is always turning up to make things lively and painful, as if it were the magic sword of one of Ariosto's champions. Only at the very end are the characters swept into the full tide of civil war; and the siege of Warwick and battle of Edgehill are well described. The book is not exactly bad, but the author has laid out a scheme too heavy for him, and the result is tame.

An honest story, somewhat in the old Mayne Reid style, is Kirk Munroe's 'Golden Days of '49,' telling in straightforward English the regular difficulties, failures, and successes, which every one knows by heart now, that attended the "Forty-niners." It reads much like a boy's book, and very much indeed like an old book, revived and vamped up in the hope of its passing as new. The last paragraph, separated by stars from the rest of the book, and wholly unnecessary for the story, begins, "Forty years have passed." But this seems to have been written on. There is not one word in the rest of the book that need have been written since 1850; not one allusion to the development of the country, or to any event or man made prominent since that year. The volume has a gorgeous red, black, white, gold, and buff binding, and is illustrated in the highest form of the "Scotch-mist" style—pictures that do not let you see exactly any man or thing, but merely gauge the different "values" of fog.

Judge Tourgée, in his preface to 'With Gauge & Swallow,' exalts the power of a lawyer in a strain of eloquence that is really too lofty to be quoted, and reads like an address before some very Western law school. He passes on to the commonplace that the lawyers are more likely to become acquainted with the extraordinary incidents of human life than any other profession, and continues with the important remark that neither laymen nor lawyers have succeeded in incorporating such incidents skilfully into a novel—the layman sinning from ignorance, and the lawyer from over-technicality. Hence the popularity of tales where some miracle is made to take place by the complete overthrow of bench, bar, and court officers, and in the teeth of all rules of law. His idea is, that lawyers show their real powers by the skilful handling of what seem to be unmanageable facts; bringing, in fact, the extraordinary and troublesome into the sphere of the ordinary and easy, and enabling not merely law, but ordinary human life, to flow its own peaceful course without having constantly to fight with stumps and rocks. He offers us, then, a series of tales (most if not all of which have appeared separately, but are here arranged to form a continuous romance) as told by a clerk in an eminent law firm which has successively to seize and tame these wild animals that infest our life.

There is a good deal of sense in this preface, but the plan is strangely carried out. True, the case in every story comes into the hands of Gauge & Swallow; but sometimes their dealing with it is a minimum; sometimes the whole arrangements of their office are upset to investigate a strange case, so that the supposed narrator tells us that the ordinary run of a New York office was upset about once a month for some queer case; sometimes the partners or their assistants are turned into detectives. Again, the profound rule of law which is made to control the exciting case is slipped in at the end of a story, and in short the whole book is a mass of wild, sensational magazine tales pure and simple, with just enough law (right, no doubt) thrown in to be evidence, two centuries after the author's death, that a certain romance-writer named Tourgée was probably an attorney's clerk, if not, indeed, an actual practitioner.

The little story called 'Lily Lass' is written in direct defiance of all realistic theories, old and new. It has heroes and heroines of strange and rare beauty, doubly crossed in love, inaccessible castles, secret passages, set fights and sudden brawls, with a very interesting chorus in the person of an elderly Oriental scholar, who surveys nearly all that goes on in this stormy season with curious impartiality. The tone of the whole is certainly inflated, yet the English is very good—not always improved by American proof-reading—and the story runs easily and entertainingly. But—and the "but" is a large one—the aim of the novel is avowedly partisan. The scene is laid in Ireland during the last dropping shots of the uprising of 1848. It is obvious that Mr. McCarthy the younger wrote this book with the expectation and desire of arousing people's strongest feelings as to the rights and wrongs of that contest. His two heroes are both devoted followers of John Mitchell and Smith O'Brien. Few persons in the United States under forty years old have troubled themselves to read the contemporary record of the events in Ireland in 1848; and such opinions as they have are formed mostly at second or third hand. But among those who are older, and have read those records, there are three irreconcilable views of the leaders of the uprising; and none knows this better than Mr. McCarthy. To one party they are exiled heroes; to another, vile traitors, who got off far too easy; to the third, they are hot-heads, in all whose proceedings there is an unquenchable vein of the ludicrous. The first party will read 'Lily Lass' as a noble tribute to the martyrs; the second, as an unprincipled defence of the traitors. The third will inevitably be reminded much less of Ivanhoe than of Rebecca and Rowena.

In a prefatory note to 'Standish of Standish,' Mrs. Austin promises that the tale shall not mislead as to the stern facts of those far-away years when the Plymouth colony was establishing itself in the midst of countless perils—albeit much of the romance woven around them is her own. And, in fact, if nothing else be gained from this book, at least a clearer light is thrown on all the persons and incidents of the time depicted. The delineation of Standish himself is everywhere strong and impressive, particularly in the first description of his outward appearance, and in the tender farewell scene with Rose, his wife. Gov. Carver, too, is drawn with a sure and loving touch. Priscilla Molines, with her coquettish love of fun, and John Alden, "the scholar," are, especially in the well-known love scene, very daintily treated. Although the story can boast no plot and no tantalizing social complications, it is wholesome and effective.

Six stories, or more properly sketches, are covered by the title 'Gerald Ffrench's Friends.' All of the incidents are "based on fact, and several of them are mere transcripts from actual life, with no more material alteration than seemed necessary to throw the veil of fiction over the identity of the characters." Mr. Ffrench, himself an Irishman of gentle birth, goes into journalism on the Pacific Coast, remaining five years. During this time it is his fortune to meet many countrymen in a more or less intimate way. The sketches describe a few characteristic specimens of the native Celt, as yet unmixed in blood, but modified, of course, by the new surroundings; and all of the six are unusually successful and entertaining. The opening one, "The Rise and Fall of the '*Irish Aigle*,'" is the most, indeed the only, purely humorous one; the others are all rather sad. The most sensational is "Queen of the Angels"; but perhaps the strongest is the last, "Under the Redwood Tree," in which the big lumberman is described in a few bold and telling phrases, while his devotion to his little boy, and the child's death, are powerfully portrayed.

It has been said that opening situations are half the battle in writing a book, just as a brilliant first sentence may be in a short article, or a happy title for anything. The situa-

tion in which the hero and heroine of 'The Bursting of a Boom' find themselves at the start is certainly sufficiently striking. The young man discovers that in his journey from Los Angeles to Ventura he has exchanged trunks with some young woman bearing the same initials as his own. The trunks having precisely the same locks and outward appearance, he does not become aware of the mistake until he has opened the trunk in the seclusion of his own room. A tempest of emotions takes possession of his soul as he sees the pretty dresses and bonnets within, and the dainty lace and linen, while he imagines with horror the consternation of the lady—young, of course—when she gazes upon the coats and shirts and shaving-brushes promiscuously tumbled into his own box. Beyond this rather piquant opening the book has nothing noteworthy. Of course, he finds the girl; of course, he duly falls in love and marries her. The history of a Western land "boom," in which this young man gains some sad experience, is interspersed with more or less description of California scenery and manners. The language is far from elegant, often incorrect, while shall and will, should and would, are continually interchanged in the bad fashion of to-day.

'A Summer in a Cañon' is a bright and taking little story, which does not have to be labelled "for young people." It is unmistakably theirs. The fun is infectious, and many of the situations and speeches are irresistibly comical. The bane of American youth, however, is slang, and this otherwise healthful tale does not wholly escape it. Dr. and Mrs. Winship undertake the charge of a dozen or more persons during a camping expedition on a large scale. For three months the happy party live in tents in Las Flores Cañon, under the spreading oaks and sycamores, hung with mistletoe and gray Spanish moss, which temper the perpetual sunshine of a California summer. Evidently the descriptions of the region were written *con amore*—even at the beginning occurs an almost eloquent passage expressive of the early-morning beauty of the day upon which the expedition sets forth. Some entertaining information about the old-style *rodeo*, and the early California days, is given picturesquely "round the campfire."

Mme. Thérèse Blanc, who writes under the name of "Th. Bentzon," has long been a steady contributor to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. She might almost be called the foreign editor of it, if one considers the amount of work she has done in the way of translating and condensing American novels and criticising the authors of them. She is herself the author of sundry novels and tales, one of which Mr. Andrew Lang found worthy to be included in a recent volume of translations. The book that we have in hand is made up of two stories, of which the longer gives its title to the volume. 'La Tentée' is Mrs. James Nevil, the Parisian widow of an Englishman, who makes speedy use of her freedom to leave the land of fogs and chill decorum and go back to the city of her heart. She finds her old school friend married to a literary man of the modern sort—Parnassian, *décadent*, impressionist, Heaven knows what—whom his wife loves, but, as is usual in such stories, does not understand. After the usual fashion, also, Mrs. Nevil sets out at once to make her friend's home happy by flirting violently with the superior husband. This connection, however, stops at about one millimetre this side its natural ending, and the heroine returns to England to marry Lord Melton, and several castles, and countless acres, and a great deal of money in the Bank. The book might quite as well have been called "Tenté." It is of no great value; the English characters being wooden and dead, and the French ones not alive. "Faëlle," the second and shorter story, has rather more merit. It is a tale of the disordered and precocious love of an Italian model of twelve years old for an English walking-stick of a painter, and of her self-sought death. It is not a story to be praised without stint, but there are touches in it of feeling and observation.

Essays on Government. By A. Lawrence Lowell. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889.

THIS little book has an importance that is inversely as its size. It is a duodecimo of scarce 200 pages, but it contains more wisdom than is to be found in many elaborate and voluminous treatises. In fact, we do not know that any writer except Mr. Lowell has clearly distinguished the vital and essential principle of our form of government, and certainly none has stated it so forcibly. It is probably the case that some of our political thinkers, as is indicated here in the essay on "Cabinet Responsibility," were carried off their balance by Mr. Bagehot's comparison of parliamentary with Presidential government. His persuasive power is such that it is always difficult not to be led by him; and when he maintained that parliamentary government was the more efficient it was impossible not to be convinced. Mr. Lowell does not possess the style of Bagehot, nor does he display that incomparable imaginative power which enables such writers as Bagehot and Maine to divine the constitutions of early societies. This brilliant and captivating gift, however, has its corresponding defects. It sometimes misleads the possessor; it sometimes dazzles the beholders; and neither of these remarkable men was an altogether safe guide. In the breadth of his view of the general nature of government, in the solidity of his reasoning, and in the soberness of his judgment, Mr. Lowell will take rank among the first. In the essay above referred to, he points out, in the first place, that whatever the respective merits of the two forms of government, it is impossible to combine them—that a responsible ministry involves the fusion of the legislative and executive functions: and in the second place, that efficiency is by no means the only thing to be thought of in government.

This latter truth is more fully developed in the essay entitled "Democracy and the Constitution." It is almost hopeless to attempt to condense so concise an argument as is here presented, but we may briefly state its leading features. For the development of individual character and enterprise it is necessary that there should be freedom of activity, secure enjoyment of the fruits of labor, and a possibility of calculating the future from the past. These conditions can only be realized under a government of laws and not of men. They cannot be realized where absolute power is vested in any man or body of men, even if this body be the majority of the people. Hence the wisdom of "checks and balances," hence the written Constitutions and Bills of Rights of America. The Constitution of the United States owes its distinction to the ingenuity and success with which limitations upon arbitrary power were devised and applied. It was a deliberate attempt to restrain the power of the majority, and especially to prevent legislative tyranny. Although the Supreme Court has in recent years practically destroyed these safeguards by the Legal-Tender decisions, yet the fact that they endured for the greater part of a century has developed a conservative spirit in our democracy that may for a long time repress the manifestations of arbitrary power.

In illustration of Mr. Lowell's development of this idea, we quote a passage from his description of the process or art of framing a limited government. This art, he observes, consists not only in fostering the habit of self-control, but even more in making that self-control as little irksome as possible. He proceeds:

"Now, there are three devices which are capable of promoting this result: (1) an arrangement such that no organized political body can feel that the laws depend solely upon its own will—can feel, in other words, that it has power to do whatever it pleases; (2) the creation of several independent political bodies, each of which is restrained by the presence of the others; and (3) a process by which every possessor of political power can be made amenable to some final authority which will prevent him from overstepping the bounds prescribed for his action."

The first device means that in a democracy the mass of the people must not be an organized body, and that there must exist no single body of representatives which has absolute authority to express the popular will. The second device means that in the United States power is divided between the Federal and the State Governments, and in each of these is distributed among several representative bodies, deriving their authority from independent sources. The third device is, in short, the regulative control exercised by our courts over our legislatures. This bald statement of Mr. Lowell's argument deprives it of all appearance of originality; but those who follow it out in detail will find, in place of the vague generalities which constitutionalists are prone to indulge in, a lucid, systematic, and singularly compact theory of the Constitution. It is all contained in the sixty pages of the chapter entitled "Democracy and the Constitution."

The essay upon "The Responsibility of American Lawyers," although intrinsically meritorious, is, compared with the rest of the book, rather slight in substance. That upon the theory of the social compact is an historical summary which well deserves to be expanded into a separate treatise. The final chapter, upon "The Limits of Sovereignty," is a trenchant (although not in our opinion altogether unanswerable) criticism of Austin's well-known theory. Of this, too, it may be said that its value would be increased if it were expanded into a volume. It is a grave responsibility, in this age of diffuse writing and innumerable books, to suggest addition and multiplication to any author, but Mr. Lowell has displayed such unmistakable evidences of rare talent in the line of his choice, that a different rule applies in his case. As it is, he has rendered a great and to his own country a patriotic service in his exposition of the true character of the relation between the American Constitution and the American society. Those persons who find themselves disposed to yield to the allurements of modern socialism, although perhaps not intellectually so constituted as fully to appreciate this book, may yet understand from it how it is that clear-headed men look upon the hopes of the socialists as vain, and oppose all tendencies in that direction with unalterable sternness.

Marie Bashkirtseff: The Journal of a Young Artist. 1860–1884. Translated by Mary J. Serrano. Cassell & Co.

THIS much-talked-of diary of a young Russian artist of noble birth, in which she has deliberately exposed her private life as directly and intimately as was in her power, in order to win

what she knew as "fame" after death, is certainly a remarkable book, and its present vogue is not wonderful; it falls in with the appetite of the time for "revelations," and it is highly spiced with sensation. It is very sure, however, that these confessions exhibit to our eyes a very different person from the Marie Bashkirtseff that its author supposed herself to be unveiling. Even to a greater degree than most autobiography, the volume tells more than was meant. It would have been scandalous in another to draw such a picture of this romantic and ungoverned young woman; and it is ungallant at least to analyze and sum up her career and nature from the material she has furnished by admitting all men into the penetralia of her life. Indeed, there is fortunately no occasion to enter upon such a discussion, since her achievement in life was of no real importance, and curiosity regarding her concerns only her individuality, which those who wish will seek for in her own writing. They will do best, it must be said, to seek in the original French, as the present translation is not an excellent one, and falls far below the diarist's own words in vigor, directness, and charm.

It may not be amiss, however, to remark upon the extremely foreign character of her temperament, which happily has but slight analogy with anything in our own intellectual life. She was a "fair barbarian." Though the words may sound harsh, they are accurately descriptive. She was personally attractive, and was besides endowed with a great deal of talent. She was also feverishly ambitious—in the narrowest and lowest sense—not to live nobly, but to live on the lips of men. She was not sparing of industry, and she made an imperious will serve her purpose; she devoted herself to the means of excellence, and accomplished something by her effort. In fact, she died, or at least hastened death, by her wilful persistence in work, where alone she could work, in Paris. She was a varied linguist, and read the masters, but one does not observe in her diary any thinking or any regard for ideas, except in a few pages upon her own subject, art. Of intellectual life, properly speaking, one does not see the traces. Yet, notwithstanding this interest in the things of civilization, she remained a "barbarian." Her contact with them was mainly external.

One realizes this in two ways. In the first place, there were in her nature itself elements which are known to us principally from the Middle Ages. Her religion is not intelligible except by this gloss. She was superstitious, and the forms of her superstition were those of what to us is a long-past age. She intimates that the miracle of her cure at a Russian shrine, which failed to be wrought, might have come about if she had firmly believed in the power of relics. As it was, she resents the fact that she got more cold in the vaults. She gives in charity, and hopes fervently that she will get something back for her money. She is angry with God, like a child, and says she would call him unjust but for the fear of suffering worse things from him in consequence. She prays as to an idol, and with the materialism of a pagan peasant. The whole state of her mind upon religious matters, though confused by knowledge of modern ideas, is a survival from the thirteenth century, and has more affinity with material than with spiritual religion; in a true sense, it is that of the "barbarian." Secondly, there is no moral element in her conception of how life is to be led—none of that sense of responsibility, of that unselfish devotion to noble ends for their own sake, of that ideal of virtue in which the individual disappears by becoming one with the will of heaven, which belong to the modern and civilized mind and heart. This deficiency of the moral idea is the explanation of much in her book which seems abnormal. The traits which divided this brilliant and eager Russian nature from the Paris of which she seemed a part were fundamental; the separation they effected was a great gulf, unknown even to herself.

There is, however, a pervading quality, a femineity rather than womanliness, which lends attraction to her pages. To mention but one phase of it, her frequently expressed delight in the beauty of her person has a simplicity hardly to be rivalled in the books of women. Again, her confessions of her waywardness, of her treatment of her family and her opinions of them, and the repeated acknowledgment of her "second thoughts" in her actions, of her absorption in "the effect," of her consciousness of the lurking question, "What will the reader think of this?" belong to the same side of her nature; and her frankly expressed jealousy of her rival, her bitter words and ignoble thoughts, read more like some character in a play than like the voice of a living woman to a public. The verisimilitude of such passages gains from the liveliness and directness of her style. And here one should speak of her conversations with her lovers, of her confessions about love, of the candidates for her hand, and all that part of the narrative, but we omit reflection upon these. She was romantic, and the treatment of passion and of love by such a one without any discrimination in speech, however innocent and modest in her simple garrulity, can be parried only by the reader's delicacy in silence. She was a brilliant woman, evidently adapted to shine in society and to enchain admiration, convinced of her power and not unwilling to use it, often in a cold way. But she was not content with this natural supremacy, and sought for power of a different sort—the supremacy of genius through its works; she strained after it with all her force, and she gave her life—unnecessarily and imprudently, it is true, but she gave it—with the hope of obtaining personal distinction. One admires much in her; but, after allowing for the alien element in her temperament, there is no inconsiderable part of her confessions about which one keeps silent.

Annales de Domingo Francisco de San Anton Muñon Chimalpahin Quauhtlehuanitzin. Sixième et septième relations. Publiées et traduites sur le manuscrit original par R. Siméon. Paris: Maisonneuve. 1889. 8vo.

Of Mexican and Aztec history a goodly number of volumes have come down to our age, but much of it is contradictory, and what little we think to be true is likely to become modified in many points by the recent publication of Chimalpahin's 'Relations.' Nobody will deny that the history of the Mexicans, like that of all other ancient nations, contains elements of uncertainty on account of the imperfect art of writing, of a deficient chronology (for the early periods), and of the miraculous and legendary element in historiography. From these defects Chimalpahin is more free than his predecessors and contemporaries. He descended from the family of the local chiefs of Amacameca-Chalco, and was born in 1579. Notwithstanding his Indian origin, he made a careful study of all the branches of knowledge then taught in Mexico by the Spanish conquerors, combining with these the history and topography of his own country. The antiquarian Boturini succeeded in obtaining for his collection a part of his manuscripts, and a portion of these finally came into Mr. Aubin's possession. Of these the most important part, extending in time from 1258 to 1612, has just been published, Aztec text and French literal translation standing opposite, by Mr. Rémi Siméon.

What disposes us from the start to think favorably of this work is the fact that it was composed in the native language and by an educated man of the Indian race. His style is neither rhetorical nor diffuse, like that of many contemporaneous Spanish Mexicans, but concise and entirely matter-of-fact. There are two ancient reports in existence concerning the mode by which Montezuma met his death; Chimalpahin agrees with Sahagun in giving the more credible account of this occurrence by stating distinctly that the Spanish invaders strangled him and fled during the night; that they also strangled the ruler of Tezcuco and that of Tlatilulco. Chimalpahin's statement concerning the immigration of the Nahua into Culiacan is more simple than that of other writers: the immigrants, whom he calls Teochichimeca, came in the year 50 of our era from an island of the ocean into Teocolhuacan-Aztlan, a place called by him also Aztlan-Chicomoztoc. Other historians, who found the same names in the annals, made two or three different places of them, and, although our writer says nothing about the position of that island, it seems almost illogical to seek the old home of these immigrating Nahua elsewhere than upon the shores of the Pacific Ocean and in districts other than those where dialects of Nahuatl were spoken in Montezuma's time. Concerning the Mexican modes of warfare, Chimalpahin drops a very interesting remark. He states that sometimes the brunt of the battle bore chiefly upon the leaders and the nobility, while the common warrior was spared; such wars were called wars of the dung-people—tlaçolyaoyotl. But when the warriors alone had to fight and suffer, the men of distinction having "made themselves scarce," such a war was called a flower-war, or xochiyaoyotl.

The date of the Mexican arrival at the lagoon is stated by Chimalpahin to have been the year 1325, and this Mr. Siméon considers to be the correct date. He differs from other writers in the number of years assigned to the reigns of three rulers, Acamapitchtli, his son, Huitzilihuitl, and Quaquauhpitzahuac; and as the differences are considerable, historical criticism will have to consider the matter. The carefulness of the author in registering the exact date of eclipses will perhaps help in clearing up doubtful points in chronology. The profusion of details accompanying certain events testifies to the assiduity which the Mexican scribes used in composing their annals, which afterwards became the originals of Chimalpahin's work. It appears from several passages that some Mexican towns, if not all, had extensive annals of their own.

Of the eight "relaciones" which Chimalpahin composed, the learned editor has selected for publication two only, the sixth and the seventh, for these are much more helpful than all the rest for the study of Mexican history. The appendix joined to the text and its translation contains all the proper names, personal and local, occurring in the text, and to the majority of them the etymology is added.

Fanny Burney and her Friends. Select Passages from her Diary and Other Writings. Edited by L. B. Seeley. With nine illustrations after Reynolds, Gainsborough, Copley, and West. Scribner & Welford.

The vivacious pen of Miss Burney gives excel-

lent material for a volume of this sort, which paints her life among literary and royal persons with as much regard for her surroundings as for her own individuality. The opening scenes, among her father's musical parties and the solitude of his country retreat, are most pleasant; and as soon as 'Evelina' appears, the figures of society add a new interest, and in particular the entrance of Johnson and Burke among her admirers is important, both of these great characters being admirably drawn. The life at court, on the other hand, is melancholy reading, notwithstanding the near view it permits of royalty in its domestic life; one realizes the misery of the situation (and none of it is spared in the telling) too keenly to take interest in the senseless ceremonial routine; and the most vivid sketch of all—that of the King escaping from his keepers and walking and conversing with Miss Burney—is a painful exhibition of a weak and infirm old man. The resignation of her office by Miss Burney comes as a happy relief to all this, though there remained trials enough for her in her wedded life. Readers of the diary will understand how brilliant the page is on which only Miss Burney's most lively and direct passages occur, and may well be tempted to renew acquaintance with her life by such admirable editing as Mr. Seeley has done. The portraits which interleave the pages are excellent reproductions of excellent paintings, and add value; but the attractiveness of the text is due to the extraordinary reality of Miss Burney's writing, her observation of details that are most significant, and, not in a small degree, to the simplicity and modesty of her own character. The book is a delightful résumé of one of the best memoirs of the century.

Some Eminent Women of Our Times. By Millicent Garrett Fawcett. Macmillan & Co. Pp. 231.

MRS. FAWCETT has done a good thing for her sex—that is to say, a good thing for humanity in general—by recounting the stories of twenty-four women who have had a marked effect, in one way or another, upon the time in which they lived. The accounts are brief and straightforward and simple—they were written for the *Mothers' Companion*, and addressed chiefly to working-women and to young people—but the remarkable character of their contents is all the more striking on that account. In nearly every case, from Dorothy Pattison, who was obliged to leave home in face of her father's opposition and to work hard for three years as village schoolmistress, living without a servant and polishing her own grate, before becoming Sister Dora, to Mrs. Somerville, whose mother thought that all a woman needed to know was to write well and to keep accounts, these women who have accomplished important work have done it in the face of active resistance, as well as chill repression, on the part of all their relatives and friends. The loss which has accrued to the world from the fact that many other women have failed to carry out worthy undertakings because they lacked the supreme courage necessary to unsex themselves in the eyes of all whom they loved, cannot easily be estimated.

Sydney Smith, writing in 1810 upon the extraordinary folly of closing to women all the ordinary means of literary education, remarked, as Mrs. Fawcett reminds us, that one consequence of their exclusion was that no woman had contributed anything of lasting value to literature. Sydney Smith had a logical mind; the juxtaposition which the common man usually gives to two such facts is this: Women have never accomplished anything in literature, therefore they must be excluded from all means of literary education. As far as literature is concerned, the battle has now been fought and won: women have, in the first place, entered the field of literary production and taken full possession of it, and they have, in the non-natural order, *afterwards* gained entrance into the great strongholds of literary instruction. As regards the active bettering of the world's condition through agitation and other practical means of reform, they have already made a brilliant record. Elizabeth Fry in prison-life, Elizabeth Gilbert in the condition of the blind, Florence Nightingale in nursing, the abolitionists, the advocates of a better life for women—these have had a marked effect upon the stream of events. But the great nursery of heroic and self-sacrificing action—a family life and a social life in which self-indulgent frivolity is the thing that is frowned down upon instead of a love of action—is a thing yet to be created.

The world changes rapidly: Hannah More devoted the second half of her life to the service of the poor, but she allowed no writing among her protégées, because writing was unfitted to their station. Such a book as this of Mrs. Fawcett's, if it could be put into every family in the country, would have a tremendous effect in making a life of activity and value seem to be an easy and a natural thing to all spirited young girls.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Beale, Rev. D. J. Through the Johnstown Flood. Philadelphia: Hubbard Bros. $2.

General Digest of the Decisions of the Principal Courts in the United States, for the year ending September, 1889. (Vol. IV. of the annual series.) Rochester: Lawyers' Coöperative Pub. Co. $6.

Handwörterbuch der Staatswissenschaften. Parts 4, 5. Jena: Gustav Fischer.

Lawson, J. D. Rights, Remedies and Practice, at Law, in Equity, and under the Codes. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co. $6.

Nicoll, W. R. James Macdonell, Journalist. London: Hodder & Stoughton.

Paul, Prof. H. Grundriss der Germanischen Philologie. Vol. I., Part 3; Vol. II., Parts 1, 2. Strassburg: K. J. Trübner.

Smith, Prof. W. R. Lectures on the Religion of the Semites. D. Appleton & Co. $4.

Thackeray, S. W. The Land and the Community. D. Appleton & Co. $1.

The Scotch-Irish in America: Proceedings of the Congress at Columbia, Tenn., May 8–11, 1889. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $1.50.

The Year's Bright Chain. Quotations from the Writings of Frances E. Willard. Chicago: Woman's Temperance Publication Association. 50 cents.

Tilton, S. W. The First Book in Color. Boston: S. W. Tilton.

Tourgée, A. W. With Gauge and Swallow, Attorneys. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.

Tucker, Prof. T. G. The 'Supplices' of Æschylus. Macmillan & Co. $2.60.

Tuttle, C. W. Capt Francis Champernowne, and Other Historical Papers. Boston: Damrell & Upham. $4.

Twain, Mark. A Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur's Court. Chas. L. Webster & Co.

Wood, Prof. A. Lessons in the Structure, Life and Growth of Plants. Revised ed. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.

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JANUARY 1, 1890.

Premium receipts in 1889.....	$3,739,410 82
Interest receipts in 1889.....	1,781,556 02
Total receipts during the year....	5,520,966 84
Disbursements to Policy-holders, and for expenses, taxes, etc...	4,605,230 50
Assets, January 1, 1890.....	34,805,819 00
Total Liabilities.....	29,060,727 42
Surplus by Ct., Mass., and N. Y. standard.....	5,745,091 58
Surplus by many States	7,450,000 00
Policies in force January 1, 1890, 70,985, insuring.....	110,669,718 94
Policies issued in 1889, 9,873, insuring.....	20,190,098 00

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Statement of Business for 1889.

Net ledger assets, Jan. 1, 1889		$18,214,534 45
RECEIPTS.		
For premiums	$2,628,885 75	
For interest, rents, and profit and loss, less taxes	998,062 35	3,626,948 10
		$21,841,482 55
DISBURSEMENTS.		
Death claims	$1,190,832 00	
Matured and discounted endowments	259,135 00	
Cancelled and surrendered policies	243,064 89	
Distribution of surplus	561,010 73	
Total paid to Policyholders	$2,254,042 62	
Amount paid for Commissions to Agents, Salaries, Medical Fees, Advertising, Printing, Stationery, and all other incidental expenses, at the Home Office and at Agencies	492,326 82	
Amount paid for Accrued Interest on Investments purchased during the year	12,263 95	2,758,633 39
Net Ledger Assets, Dec. 31, 1889		$19,082,849 16
Market value of securities over ledger cost	$1,192,942 55	
Interest and Rents accrued Dec. 31, 1889	219,954 68	
Gross Premiums in course of collection	$183,129 07	
Deduct 10% loading	18,312 91	
	164,816 16	1,577,713 39
Gross Assets, Dec. 31, 1889		$20,660,562 55
LIABILITIES.		
Reserve at Massachusetts Standard, 4 per cent.	$17,871,353 51	
Balance of Distributions unpaid	106,195 15	
Death and Endowment Claims approved	127,245 00	18,104,793 66
		$2,555,768 89

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Premiums on Marine Risks from 1st January, 1889, to 31st December, 1889.....		$4,116,629 40
Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1889.....		1,386,134 87
Total Marine Premiums.....		$5,502,764 27
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1889, to 31st December, 1889.....		$4,144,943 13
Losses paid during the same period.....	$2,553,606 44	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses.....	$705,937 75	

The Company has the following Assets, viz.:

United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks....	$7,274,315 00
Loans, secured by Stocks and otherwise..	2,084,400 00
Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at.....	1,024,000 00
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable....	1,452,990 24
Cash in Bank.....	271,871 00
Amount.....	$12,107,576 24

Six per cent. interest on the outstanding certificates of profits will be paid to the holders thereof or their legal representatives on and after Tuesday, the fourth of February next.

The outstanding certificates of the issue of 1885 will be redeemed and paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the fourth of February next, from which date all interest thereon will cease. The certificates to be produced at the time of payment and cancelled.

A dividend of FORTY PER CENT. is declared on the net earned premiums of the Company for the year ending 31st December, 1889, for which certificates will be issued on and after Tuesday, the 6th of May next.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 13, 1890.

The Week.

THE President has added one more to the list of muzzled newspapers by the appointment of Mr. Charles Emory Smith, editor of the Philadelphia *Press*, to the Russian Mission. It is true that the *Press* had already all the characteristics of a muzzled journal, and in all human probability would never under any provocation have criticised the Administration. But this appointment not only saves it even from all weakness or temptation, but rewards Mr. Smith for past services. Daniel Webster would have condemned the appointment in sonorous language, but we do not. It is a good one for President Harrison—far better than Mr. Thorndike Rice's, which was probably paid for in campaign cash. But—one can praise no act of Gen. Harrison's without the use of a "but" or two—where does this leave Elder Shepard of the *Mail and Express?* He, too, has been a faithful editor to the Administration. He is a powerful writer, and perhaps the foremost publicist in Republican journalism. He is, too, deeply religious, and an evangelist by nature and temperament. The Russians, including the Czar, belong to the Greek Church, and the members of that denomination, we learn from the *Cumberland Presbyterian Review*, are "as destitute of a pure Gospel as the heathen world itself." Now, what a chance of bringing over to the Presbyterian Church at least the Czar and his family, and the aristocracy of St. Petersburg, President Harrison has missed by his failure to despatch Elder Shepard to that corrupt and vicious capital.

Editor Shepard and Gov. Hill are holding a wake over the remains of the World's-Fair Bill, each in his peculiar way. All others are attending the funeral in an orderly manner. The Governor has borrowed the cap and bells from the editor long enough to tell the Legislature that if they will now pass the bill "substantially" as it came from New York city, he will sign it. There is as much latitude in Hill's "substantially" as there is in *Touchstone's* "if." We would advise the Legislature to avoid it. He not only tells them this, but he says *substantially* that if they put the names of the new incorporators into the bill, he will veto it. This is the last nail in the coffin. And then he throws in a whole sermon on the importance of casting aside partisan motives, and the need of taking up the subject in a patriotic spirit. If there is any political capital to be made out of the corpse, the Governor is sure to be the chief mourner. We are still looking for any signs of rejoicing at Chicago and St. Louis over the discomfiture of New York in the competition for the Fair. But, strange it is, the more our chances fade away, the more dim becomes the perspective and the more profound the silence in those quarters. If they want either an editor or a Governor to "keep up the racket," we can spare one of each.

The contributions which Republican leaders are making to the World's-Fair discussion are uncommonly interesting, but not entirely harmonious. Senator Chandler's views easily hold first place both in picturesqueness and originality. He has grave doubts of our ability to get up a World's Fair either in 1892 or 1893, or, in fact, at any other time, because "our high protective tariff is a serious obstacle to exhibitors from abroad," who would be obliged to give heavy bonds either to pay duties on their exhibits or to reëxport them at the close of the Exposition. For this reason he is afraid that we could not get up a Fair which, compared with that recently closed in Paris, would not be disappointing. But what we might do, he says, would be to get up a "United States National Fair" at Chicago, to which foreign countries would be invited, not to bring goods, but to come as spectators "to see how little need we have of foreign goods." This, he is positive, "would overtop all expectations, would be the wonder of the century to foreign visitors and the greatest possible triumph of the protective system." But a World's Fair, even if we could get one, he has reason to fear, would be turned by Tammany "into a free-trade crusade." If Tammany did not do that with it, Mr. Chandler has no doubt whatever that Mayor Grant would use the Fair for political advantage in the Presidential campaign, because he regards the Mayor's act in making the New York city Police Board entirely Democratic the "boldest political wrong of the decade north of Mason and Dixon's line." Mark you, he does not allow himself to be too sweeping. He limits his denunciation to the present decade, and this side of Mason and Dixon's line. He is "amazed" at Mr. Depew and Warner Miller that they have not realized the enormity of the wrong, and insists that no Fair Bill should be passed at Albany which does not contain a provision that the Police Board shall be divided equally between the two parties.

If this addition to the Fair Bill which Mr. Chandler proposes, would not secure a veto in case the measure were passed with it attached, Mr. Depew's latest proposition would be certain to do it. He has a scheme for the addition to the list of Commissioners of as many eminent Republicans as there are Mugwumps now on it, the additional names to be selected by the Mayor and sent to Albany with his approval. Mr. Depew thinks that if the Mayor were to do this, everybody's confidence would be restored, all suspicion of politics in the bill would vanish like dew before the morning sun, and we should have a Fair that would be, to quote Mr. Depew's own words, "the most wonderful thing of the kind the world has ever seen, which will be of incalculable benefit to the city and to the country at large." At this writing there are grave doubts that Mr. Depew's suggestion will be accepted by anybody besides himself. It certainly will not be by Mr. Chandler, because the Police Board reformation is not included. It undoubtedly will be accepted by another Republican leader, Congressman Belden of Syracuse, formerly of the Canal Ring. He says boldly, and with no fear of Chandler before his eyes, that the political aspect of the movement has been absurdly exaggerated, and that his motto is "Anything for the Fair." That has been the motto of all the Fair boomers in these parts for some time, and it is the chief source of all the present complications. It led them to sacrifice first the Central Park, and then the State Constitution, and then the rights of citizens to control their own property. They would have succeeded if they could have swept away the courts, or had the editor of the *Times* been empowered to act during the necessary period as an especial court of last resort, with full authority to revise and correct the judgments of all inferior judicial tribunals. We have not the slightest doubt that he would have accepted the position with alacrity.

Senator Hoar's defence of the removal of the Collector of Boston is, like all that venerable political pettifogger's utterances, chiefly interesting for its calm superiority to anything like a moral obligation in politics. He says:

"The Collectorship of Boston is a political office, the greatest in New England, and its incumbent should be changed with every administration, just as the members of the Cabinet are. The Collector of Boston is the chief representative of the National Administration in New England, and ought to be in political sympathy with it. Then, too, he ought to be a protectionist under a Republican Administration. I would as soon think of getting a pagan to preach the Christian religion as of getting a free-trader to interpret our protective tariff. Again, it was necessary to make this change now, a few weeks before the commission of Collector Saltonstall runs out, because the other Massachusetts appointments depend somewhat upon the chief one. The residence, the age, the civil or military service of the man appointed Collector, must be considered in appointing the Surveyor, the Pension Agent, and the District Attorney. I think Collector Saltonstall should have appreciated this consideration and resigned. There is no question of civil-service reform in this, except to those who do not know the proper limits of that reform."

Plainly stated, this amounts to a confession that the President broke his solemn personal pledge because he wanted a good protectionist for Collector of Boston, in order to secure a basis for getting political possession of other important offices. Mr. Hoar is quite frank and truthful in saying that "there is no question of civil-service reform in this." The full truth in the whole matter was stated in much the same way by one of the Democratic Congressmen from Massachusetts, Mr. O'Neill, who said of the change: "It simply shows how hungry the Republicans are for

office, and how little there is in this civil-service-reform pretence."

There is a story in Wall Street that the Sugar Trust contributed $100,000 to the Republican campaign fund in 1888, on the promise that the tariff should not be altered to their detriment during the next four years, but that the Republican leaders are now going back on the bargain. If any such bargain was made—and we think that the evidence points that way very strongly—it would be well to go back on it as soon as possible, because it was a very one-sided arrangement, being virtually a bargain to sell the privilege of plucking the American people of several millions per year in return for the beggarly sum of $100,000 cash down. The best authorities on international law uphold the right to denounce a treaty, after a reasonable time, if its terms are found to be oppressive to one of the parties. In this case a reasonable time has passed. One-third of the period has expired, and the Trust has been recouped at least one hundred times over for its campaign subscription. No reasonable complaint can be made if one party now gives notice of termination of the treaty. That such notice has been given, or will shortly be given, we infer from a correspondence between the editor of the Washington (Iowa) *Press* and the Hon. J. H. Gear, a member of the Committee on Ways and Means. The editor wrote to Mr. Gear urging him to "knock the tariff higher than Gilderoy's kite" so far as it protected any Trust, but especially the Sugar Trust. Mr. Gear replied in a cautious way, but he did say: "I am in favor of largely reducing the differential or discriminating duties which have existed ever since the foundation of our Government between raw and refined sugars." Mr. Gear also said that he "would much prefer to take the tax off the necessaries of life than that on tobacco, as the tobacco tax is purely voluntary with those who use the noxious weed; the same is true of whiskey." Mr. Gear is an important spoke in the tariff wheel just now.

That rather sleepy body the Chamber of Commerce waked up on Thursday to the fact that a bill has passed one branch of Congress the effect of which would be eminently disastrous to the commerce and prosperity of New York. The high-tariff faction made every effort to prevent any action by the Chamber adverse to the bill, but they were beaten, and beaten, too, by the votes of Republican members of the Chamber. What is wanted now is speedy action by the enlarged Committee on Foreign Commerce. This Committee, by the way, seems to have been originally constituted of a majority of men opposed to foreign commerce, on the principle of *lucus a non lucendo*. In its enlarged state—enlarged for the purposes of the McKinley bill—it comes much nearer to expressing the ideas for which such a committee may be supposed to exist.

The report of Mr. Blair's speech on Thursday suggests serious doubts of his sanity. In face of such facts as the quadrupling of the school fund in Texas within the past eight years, and an increase of 2,400 per cent. in the amount expended for school purposes in Arkansas within the past sixteen years, "he doubted whether the conditions were being improved in a single State." Later in his speech he said that "in the North the common-school system was trembling in the balance, if, indeed, it had not already died." Really, a commission *de lunatico inquirendo* seems called for when a United States Senator talks in this way.

Mr. Halstead's testimony before the Senate Committee in regard to his publication of the celebrated ballot-box forgery in Ohio, during the last campaign, was infantile in its frankness. The most inexplicable thing about his conduct has been from the first his failure to see anything suspicious in the presence of the names of Senator Sherman and Congressmen Butterworth and McKinley on a paper which convicted them of being engaged with leading Democrats in a gigantic swindle. Yet on this point he said on Thursday:

"I told the Governor that I felt so exasperated at the idea of Sherman and Butterworth and McKinley going in with John McLean in such a matter that I felt tempted to explode it under them. It was something more than policy and almost a public duty. But Campbell was the only one before the people as a candidate for public office, and it might, therefore, be proper to use only his name. There was another reason why all of the signatures could not be printed in civilized society at that time, and that was because it was the day of Sam Cox's funeral, and I felt convinced of the genuineness of his signature. So I published part of the paper, with Campbell's signature, which I thought was the proper course. Campbell could not be drawn out on this matter, and I advised Gov. Foraker to leave the matter to me, as I felt more competent to take care of it. It was a cracker that had to be touched off at one end only. I am not insensible to the picturesque effect that attaches to this theory, now that I see the general effect of touching it off."

That makes the matter worse than ever. He not only believed the three leading statesmen of his party were capable of taking a hand in a swindle, but he almost felt it a public duty to expose them. When he touched off his cracker at the Democratic end, his fear was, not that he should burn his own fingers, but that the explosion might extend to the Republican end and hurt the party. It is the picturesque aspect of the failure which amuses him now, and he still thinks it was a "proper use" for an editor to make of a document to publish only such parts of it as would injure his political enemies, and hold back those which would equally injure his friends. The "picturesque" side of that kind of journalism is certainly much stronger than the moral one.

One of the humors of the political situation is the fact that the Hartford *Courant* is quoting, in defence of Reed, a speech delivered by J. C. S. Blackburn of Kentucky in the House of Representatives, in the very same discussion in which Joseph R. Hawley delivered a speech demolishing Mr. Blackburn's argument, and insisting that "we are causing no hardship whatever in taking the ground we do against this new rule [giving the Speaker the power to count a quorum], and I think we do no serious wrong to the country at any time when we sit in our seats and decline to vote. If the majority desire to have a bill passed in opposition to our wishes, then let the majority come here and pass it over our heads." In this same speech Gen. Hawley sustained the old system in Congress on the ground that it was in consonance with the methods employed in many Legislatures, and that "the modern State constitutions are all tending in that direction, that a bill shall not be regarded as passed unless an actual majority of the members elected shall vote for it." It would be interesting to know whether the *Courant* considers this drift of modern State constitutions a drift in the wrong direction; and if not, why it would make it easier to pass a bill in Congress than in the Legislature of New York, or New Jersey, or Pennsylvania, or Illinois, or Minnesota, or California.

The plot to give the Louisiana lottery a fresh start in the new State of North Dakota has broken down under the storm of popular disapproval provoked by the passage of the bill in the Senate, and its supporters in the House took refuge on Monday in its indefinite postponement. The State and the nation are thus saved from a threatened disgrace. There is one moral of the incident which should not be lost upon Congress, and that is the folly of haste in erecting Territories into States. The Senate Committee on Territories has decided to report in favor of the admission of Idaho, but the recommendation ought not to be acted upon. With North Dakota controlled by politicians who are capable of such business as this lottery plot, and Montana presenting a spectacle of legislative disorder, the country is in no mood for more new States at present.

The report of the Public Examiner of Minnesota on the affairs of the American Building and Loan Association—one of the so-called "national" concerns—is only what any one conversant with the subject might have expected. The whole matter may be summed up in a nutshell. By means of building and loan associations, managed strictly on the coöperative principle, hundreds of thousands of dollars of savings have been accumulated by men of small means, and thousands of such men have been assisted to own houses of their own in a most economical way. In the coöperative associations the expenses are a trifle (most of the officers serving without salary); and as the loans of each association are made only in its own locality, there is the safest knowledge of the property loaned on. Taking advantage of the success of this system, persons in this and other States have stolen its good name, and appropriated the special statutes passed in regard to it, to organize so-called building and loan associations which spread their business all over the country, and pretend to offer to investors and borrowers the same advantages that the coöperative associations afford, while at the same time incurring heavy expenses for

rentals, clerks, and agents, and admitting (when closely pressed) that they have in view the accumulation of a fund for the profit of the officers. A bill is making progress at Albany which will check in this State the operation of these "national" associations organized in other States. What is wanted in addition is so plain an amendment to our own existing laws that "national" associations organized in this State will no longer be allowed to masquerade under false colors.

Last month an "Afro-American League" held a convention in Chicago, and last week another convention of colored men was held in Washington. Both gatherings proceeded upon the assumption that the men of black skins in the United States should hold themselves a separate class in the citizenship of the nation, and that they may properly demand the enactment of class legislation in their behalf, such as never would be thought of for any other portion of our population. Both gatherings will strengthen the growing resentment against those blind leaders of the blind who are thus organizing an element which constitutes only about an eighth of our inhabitants, in a way which would be thought intolerable if it were proposed by Irish-Americans, or German-Americans, or Italian-Americans, and which is exactly as inadmissible in the case of Afro-Americans. The lesson that the negro needs to master first of all is that which was taught by the Supreme Court of the United States when it annulled the Civil Rights Act, which had been passed in his interest, and declared that the time had come "when he takes the rank of a mere citizen, and ceases to be the special favorite of the laws, and when his rights as a citizen, or a man, are to be protected in the ordinary modes by which other men's rights are protected."

Señor Castelar, the great Spanish orator, has a letter in *Galignani's Messenger* of January 30, in which he discusses the Pan-American Conference and its objects with considerable freedom. He points out that from the very first the Spanish-American republics parted company with their Northern sister on the question of intercourse with the outer world. They chose free trade as their policy, opened their ports to all the world, and on this have built up an enormous foreign commerce, in which they are prospering, and which they thoroughly understand and will on no account surrender. He says:

"In Uruguay, for example, half of its importations come from France and England, while American productions count only an eighth part of the total importations. How can any Customs Union induce Uruguayans to buy exceedingly dear American products when they can get them in abundance and cheaper from Europe? The South American States are not tempted to imitate the Saxon Republic, where an over-abundance of riches has produced a plethora—'the surplus'—and brought the country into the apoplectic condition of the human body when there is an excess of blood coursing through the veins."

He cannot understand how such a positive people as the Americans should have a minister with such "a Utopian and dreamy intelligence" as Mr. Blaine's, and he insinuates that Mr. Blaine dreams of conquest in the guise of commercial union; but nothing can come, he predicts, of any such scheme. He also pleasantly warns us against attaching much importance to the eulogies on our material growth extracted from the Pan-Americans when Mr. Curtis was carting them round the country. "In such Platonic tributes," he says, "no race can excel ours. In the end, both nations will have spoken much, but nothing will have been accomplished." In short, Señor Castelar exposes the folly of a union based on geographical considerations only, and setting at naught differences of race, traditions, language, religion, and economic ideas. Our treatment of Canada brings this folly out all the more glaringly. We refuse to Canadians—men of our own blood, language, and faith, for the most part—the very things we are trying to force on the Spanish Americans, and we flatter ourselves that the Spanish Americans do not see the contrast and ask themselves what it means.

The explanation of it is simple enough to any one familiar with the workings of the protectionist mind. Canada is neglected or repelled under that curious old mediæval delusion that a great nation cannot profitably trade with a small one, because it offers a large market to the wares of the small one, while the small nation offers only a small market to the wares of the large one, and would thus be able to take more "gold out of the country" than the large nation could get back. In the protectionist imagination, all nations trade as nations *en bloc*, like a family, and sell nothing except for "gold," and find out whether they are trading profitably by counting up their "gold" once a month or so. You cannot get the fact that international trade is barter into a protectionist head without a surgical operation. Even the Custom-house returns make no impression on it. It sees "gold" everywhere, and is always trying to get hold of it. Therefore, the protectionist hates to let any one into his market, especially a small dealer, lest he should get away with some of his "gold." If Canadians are allowed to bring their goods over the border, he feels sure they will take nothing back but "gold." But if he can get down with his goods into the great South American markets, he thinks he can make large sales, and get off with the "gold" before the South Americans notice what he is up to. If you ask him how it is that trade between a big State like New York and a small State like Rhode Island is so profitable, he simply gets angry, calls you a "British free-trader" and an "enemy of the Fair."

We can well believe that the German Emperor's rescript to his Minister of Commerce, affirming that "it is the duty of the State to so regulate the duration and the nature of labor as to insure the health, the morality, and the supply of all the economic wants of the workingmen," has caused a great sensation in parliamentary circles. The sensation will not be confined to parliamentary circles, nor will it be confined to the country over which the young Emperor presides. It is, indeed, the most extraordinary step in the direction of socialism that has been taken by any ruler in our time. The despatches say that the rescript was not signed by any responsible Minister. We should presume not, for although Bismarck has gone further than anybody else in authority in carrying out the dogmas of state socialism, he might well pause before putting his name to a paper which holds out the hope that the state will charge itself with the supply of all the economic wants of everybody. In so far as the rescript looks to the gathering of information and to the establishment of rules for the arbitration of disputes between workingmen and their employers, there is nothing unusual or revolutionary in the rescript. France and Belgium have long had tribunals of arbitration, as also has the State of New York. All civilized communities have machinery for collecting information touching the condition of wage-workers. Our bureaus of labor statistics are in this category. But to go beyond these limits, and to become responsible for the support of any class, or seem to, or hold out the hope of becoming so, is a step of the utmost peril, and one which Germany can less easily afford to take than any other government under the sun.

The reasons why Germany in particular cannot afford to take this step are two-fold. One is that she has taken so many already that she cannot easily turn back when she finds herself in the wrong. She has carried state socialism to a dangerous pass. The workingmen's insurance laws, by virtue of which the taxpayers, the employers, and the workingmen jointly contribute an eleemosynary fund, are only one part of the system. The other and most harmful part is that which seeks to build up trade monopolies inside the empire for the benefit of the employing class. Protection, Trusts, and combinations of one sort and another have reached so high a stage of development that logically something must needs be done for the benefit of the employed, and the misery of the situation is, that there is nobody endowed with omniscience to tell where to stop. But there is one person who, although not omniscient, is omnipotent, or nearly so. That one is the Emperor. And here we find the second reason why Germany is peculiarly exposed to socialistic disorders. The Emperor's rescript is fraught with perils much graver than any which could assail a parliamentary government, where a ministry is responsible to the people's representatives for every step taken and for every word uttered. There are seeds in it whose germination and fruitage nobody can now forecast. That they are seeds of ill to imperialism itself can scarcely be doubted.

HOW "ONE-MAN POWER" WORKS.

In his forcible warning on January 28, 1880, against the suggestion of giving the Speaker power to go behind the roll-call and to count a quorum himself, Gen. Garfield said: "I think my friend from Virginia will see that he lets in the one-man power in a far more dangerous way than ever has occurred before in any legislative assembly of which he and I have any knowledge." Later in the same speech he said: "Sir, the moment you get over the line, the moment you cross the boundary of names, the moment you leap over the iron fence of the roll, that moment you are out in the vague, and all sorts of disorders may come in."

After our recent experience of this "one-man power," it is easy to show that Gen. Garfield's impressive protest was well grounded. On Wednesday, January 29, the roll was called on a motion, and resulted in 161 yeas and 2 nays. According to all the precedents since the first Congress was organized, this was a defeat of the motion, inasmuch as no quorum had voted, and this point was immediately raised by a member. But Mr. Reed, without any rules to justify him in exercising such unprecedented power, proceeded to count a quorum himself. The report in the *Congressional Record* reads:

The Speaker—The Chair directs the Clerk to record the following names of members present and refusing to vote: Mr. Blanchard, etc., etc., *Mr. Outhwaite.*

Mr. Outhwaite—I wish to state to the Chair that I was not present in the House when my name was called, and the Chair is therefore stating what is not true. It is not for the Chair to say whether I shall vote or not, or whether I shall answer to my name when it is called.

In the course of the discussion which followed occurred this passage:

Mr. Outhwaite—If the gentleman will permit me to interrupt him at that point, I want to state in the presence of this House that the Speaker has announced myself as being present at the time the roll-call was taken, when in fact I was not in my seat. I was not on the floor of the House after the beginning of the calling of the roll until the end of the same, yet I am put upon the record as being present and refusing to vote!

Mr. Crisp—Mr. Speaker, I ask again, in the language of Mr. Garfield, "Who is to control his seeing?" The statement just made by the distinguished gentleman from Ohio (Mr. Outhwaite) illustrates at once the force and clearness of the argument of Mr. Garfield when he asks in this debate: "Who is to control his seeing? How do we know but that he may see forty members more for his own purposes than there are in the House? And what protection have gentlemen if the Speaker says he sees a quorum, if he can convert that seeing into a list of names on the call of the roll by the Clerk?"

Before the House adjourned, the Speaker was forced to confess that he had made a mistake in the case of Mr. Outhwaite, attempting to excuse himself on the ground that "his name was pronounced by accident."

On Tuesday, February 4, a vote was taken on a motion, which resulted in 157 yeas, no nays, not voting 172. Less than a quorum had answered to the call of the roll. Thereupon, according to the *Congressional Record*:

The Speaker—In addition to those recorded as present and voting, the Chair desires to announce the following members as present and declining to vote: Mr. Blount, etc., etc., *Mr. Stone of Missouri*, etc., etc. The yeas are 157, the noes none; and there being a constitutional quorum present, the previous question is ordered.

On Wednesday, February 5, after the reading of the journal, Mr. Stone of Missouri rose and said, according to the *Congressional Record:*

Mr. Speaker, I did not hear that portion of the journal read which announces the names of members present and not voting on the last yea-and-nay vote yesterday; but I take it to be the same as appears in the *Record*, and if so, the journal is incorrect. The statement in the *Record* is that I was present and not voting on this last call. As a matter of fact, I was in the northwestern part of the city at the time looking for a house, having recently been burned out.

Again, for the second time within a week, the Speaker had to confess that an error had been made, and that, under the power which he had usurped, he had "for his own purposes," in Gen. Garfield's words, declared present and not voting a man who was at the time in a distant part of the city.

When, fifteen years ago, an Indiana member insisted that the Speaker possessed and should exercise this power of counting a quorum, Mr. Blaine replied for himself that "the Chair never heard of that being done," and added: "He begs to remind the House, whereas that might and doubtless would be true, that there is a quorum in the hall, the very principle enunciated by the gentleman from Indiana has been the foundation probably for the greatest legislative frauds ever committed. Where a quorum, in the judgment of the Chair, has been declared to be present in the House against the result of a roll-call, these proceedings in the different Legislatures have brought scandal on their names." The Outhwaite and Stone incidents are sufficient to show what "legislative frauds" are possible when the Speaker goes behind the roll-call. When such "accidents" as this are possible, under the power which Mr. Reed has usurped, is it not plain that Mr. Blaine was right when he said: "The moment you clothe your Speaker with power to go behind your roll-call and assume that there is a quorum in the hall, why, gentlemen, you stand on the very brink of a volcano"?

Another new rule which has been favorably reported to the House by the Republican members of the Committee on Rules, is one which provides that "no dilatory motion shall be entertained by the Speaker," and proposes to leave it to the discretion of the Speaker to determine what a dilatory motion is. How this would work we can see from the *Congressional Record*, which gives the proceedings in the House on Tuesday, February 4. About the middle of the afternoon a motion to refer a bill to the Committee on the Judiciary having been defeated, Mr. McCreary, a Democratic member from Kentucky, moved that the House adjourn, saying that he understood the Committee on Rules would be able to report the following day. Mr. Reed declined to entertain the motion. What followed is thus given in the *Congressional Record:*

Mr. McCreary—I rise to a parliamentary inquiry.

The Speaker—The gentleman from Kentucky.

Mr. McCreary—My parliamentary inquiry is this: The motion to adjourn having been voted down some time ago, and other business having intervened, if a motion to adjourn is not in order now, when will it be in order?

The Speaker—The Chair desires to say, in response to the parliamentary inquiry of the gentleman from Kentucky, that ordinarily the motion to adjourn is in order when the changed situation of the House is such as to render it probable the House desires to take that action. But the proceedings to-day have been of the same character as those of preceding days, and it is evident to the Chair that these motions are used for the purpose of obstruction and delay. That being the state of the case, and the ordinary time the House has indicated it is its pleasure to adjourn not having arrived, the Chair feels it is carrying out the wishes of the House in making that ruling.

Mr. McCreary rose.

The Speaker—The Chair has replied to the gentleman.

Mr. McCreary—I rise to a question of personal privilege.

Mr. Springer—He has a right to reply.

The Speaker—There cannot be a question of personal privilege pending at this time, the previous question having been ordered.

Mr. McCreary—I made my motion in good faith. I made the motion to adjourn because it is now nearly four o'clock, and because I heard a member of the Committee on Rules say it was probable the Committee on Rules would be able to report the rules to-morrow.

The Speaker—The gentleman from Kentucky must perceive that is not a question of personal privilege.

Mr. McCreary—I make my statement in response to the statement of the Speaker impugning my motives.

The Speaker—The Chair does not impute motives to the gentleman from Kentucky.

Mr. McCreary—I understand the Chair——

The Speaker—The ruling of the Chair is not a personal ruling. It is not personal to the gentleman from Kentucky.

Mr. McCreary—The Chair imputed to me the making of a dilatory motion, when such was not the case; for my motion to adjourn was made in good faith, and because I believe, under all the circumstances, the House should adjourn.

Half an hour later—nothing having intervened but a call of the roll—according to the *Congressional Record*, Mr. McKinley, a Republican member from Ohio, made the same motion which Mr. McCreary had made, the Speaker entertained it, it was passed, "and accordingly (at four o'clock and sixteen minutes P. M.) the House adjourned."

On Wednesday, February 5, according to the *Congressional Record*, "the House met at twelve o'clock M."; the journal was approved by a yea-and-nay vote, after Mr. Reed had corrected the "accident" in Mr. Stone's case; Mr. McKinley moved that the House adjourn; the Speaker entertained the motion, and it was carried; "and accordingly (at twelve o'clock and forty-two minutes P. M.) the House adjourned." The same Speaker who refused on Tuesday to entertain a Democrat's motion to adjourn "at nearly four o'clock"—upon the ground that "the ordinary time the House has indicated it is its pleasure to adjourn has not arrived"—on Wednesday entertained a Republican's motion to adjourn "at twelve o'clock and forty-two minutes P. M."—more than three hours before "the ordinary time"! This is what "the discretion of the Speaker" means regarding a motion which for a century has been held in order.

The proposed changes in the rules are now under discussion in the House. They are important, radical—we may even say revolutionary—changes in the system under which legislation in Congress has been conducted during the first century of our history. They seem to us changes fraught with danger to

our institutions, because they tend to make our Government a government of men and not of laws, and to give the Speaker a power which resembles that of a dictator too closely to be safe.

POLITICAL BLIND STAGGERS.

THE Washington correspondent of the *Tribune* about ten days ago telegraphed the following account, undoubtedly semi-official, of the theory on which Speaker Reed and his followers have been acting during the late series of parliamentary outrages:

"The country wants results, and doesn't care much in what way they are obtained. Hence it was a mere waste of time to quote Speaker Reed himself or Mr. Blaine, or any precedent in the entire parliamentary history of Congress, against the proposal that a minority shall no longer be able to block public business by acting unlawfully."

This sage deliverance has been widely copied by the Republican press as a complete answer to the criticisms on Speaker Reed's performances, and it has evidently got into the heads of a considerable number of the promoters of the Fair in New York as a justification of their extraordinary bill. But we venture to say a more direct attack on the fundamental principles of free government has never appeared in a French, Russian, or Prussian newspaper. The history of Anglo-Saxon freedom is the history of a prolonged, desperate, heroic, and successful struggle to convince rulers that the way in which results were obtained was far more momentous than the results themselves.

The history of American Government is also the history of successful efforts to stake out the path by which Legislatures shall seek results, and to provide punishment for all aberrations from it. The Federal Constitution, and every State Constitution, are solemn declarations by the people that they consider the way in which results are obtained of infinite importance. This is what is meant by the conclusion to the Massachusetts Bill of Rights, which says, in memorable language, that what it aimed at was "a government of laws and not of men." In no country and in no age has such a confession as the *Tribune* utters on behalf of its employers, that "the country wants results, and doesn't care how they are obtained," meant anything but that the people are tired of freedom and wish to put themselves in charge of a dictator. This is in substance what Cromwell said when he turned the Long Parliament out of doors and put the key in his pocket. It is what Augereau said when he arrested the Corps Législatif on the 18th Fructidor, and what Lucien Bonaparte said when, under his brother's orders, he cleared out the Council of Five Hundred on the 18th Brumaire. In fact, the order to the grenadiers was couched in almost the exact language in which the *Tribune* justifies Speaker Reed's usurpations. They were told that the Council was oppressed by assassins and brigands hired with British gold, and were ordered to rescue the majority from this oppression by clearing the hall. So they charged with fixed bayonets.

This, too, is substantially what Louis Napoleon said when he executed the Coup d'État in 1851. He said the country was tired of debate and obstructions, and wanted results by the quickest means. He accordingly dispersed the legislature and abolished the Republic, and undertook to furnish prompt government out of his own head. To this hour the Bonapartists in France preach the Reed doctrine, and ask for a restoration of the Empire on the ground that there ought to be no restrictions on the will of the majority.

The population of nearly every large city in the Union is to-day nearly one-half composed of persons of foreign origin, who knew nothing of constitutions until they came to this country, and do not yet understand their value. Among them, and besides them, there is a vast body of discontented Socialists, Anarchists, and Nationalists, eager to attack vested rights of every description, and, above all, the rights of property, and turn the American Union into a parcel of phalansteries, each presided over by an absolute Boss To all of these the restraints on the holders of power, created by centuries of sacrifice, and consecrated by the tears and prayers and devotion of many generations, are so much useless lumber, to which they would be glad to put the match to-morrow. What they want is results, and they, most emphatically, do not care how they get them.

In the presence of these facts—for none will deny that they are facts—the openly avowed indifference of the native-born Republicans in Congress not only to the rights of minorities, but to the long-standing precedents restricting the power of majorities, is surely an extraordinary and alarming phenomenon. Hardly less so is the openly avowed indifference of the majority of the New York Legislature to-day, and the promoters of the Fair Bill outside the Legislature, to the restrictions of the State Constitution. Not only do they make no account of the constitutional objections to their scheme, although urged by some of the ablest interpreters of the Constitution in the State, but they do not take the trouble to answer or even discuss them. Their mental condition on this subject is apparently very much like that of a French Jacobin club. They dispose of all opposition by an epithet. They tell everybody who shows them the law of the land, and asks them to respect it, that he is "an enemy of the Fair," and that Citizen Depew says it is all right, and that "the country wants results, and does not care," etc.

What is the worst of all this is, that there can be no reasonable doubt that money, simple cash, is behind both these alarming and even dangerous aberrations from the straight and narrow way of American polity. In Congress, behind Speaker Reed's usurpations lies the unvarnished desire to get a majority that will repay money advances made for electioneering purposes by taxation for the benefit of unsuccessful manufacturers, rendered desperate by the attacks made on the help they already receive from the public Treasury. In New York there is no longer any trace left in the Fair scheme either of honor for Columbus or of rejoicing over his great discovery. It has almost from the first become a Fair in reality as well as in name—that is, a place in which to make large sales of wet and dry goods, and boom real estate, in which the undertakers will be guaranteed against loss by the taxpayers. It is for this we are asked to surrender the most valuable thing we have, that reverence for law, and above all for the organic law, which has made America "the land of liberty" par excellence, and without which we should soon get our "results" from a Dictator ruling through forty-two Satraps.

THE SALTONSTALL CASE.

IN his now famous "hearty prayer" which Gen. Harrison "lifted up" while Senator in 1886, he recognized only two lines of policy which a President might pursue in reference to removals from office. One was the "civil-service policy pure and simple and upon a just basis, allowing men accused to be heard, and deciding against them only upon competent proof and fairly"; and the other was the "frank and bold, if brutal, method of turning men and women out simply for political opinion." Senator Harrison's prayer was: "For God's sake, let us have one or the other!" Since his accession to the Presidency, Gen. Harrison has adopted a third kind, which is unlike either of the two he named, and unlike any which his predecessors have followed. It can best be defined as the exact opposite of the "frank and bold" policy. The President made his first conspicuous use of it in October last, in the case of Gen. Manson, a collector of internal revenue in Indiana. Gen. Manson had been a distinguished soldier in the war, and, we believe, had been a companion of the President in the struggle. But he was a Democrat, his office was wanted, and the President was in great distress of mind about it. He went to Indianapolis, ostensibly to assist at the laying of the corner stone of a soldiers' monument, but Manson's office was on his mind all the time, and he was much troubled because he had to return to Washington without having had a private conference with him about it. Soon after his return he sent the General the following letter:

"Mr. Ransdell informed me that you had said to him that you would address me a letter relieving me of a possible embarrassment connected with a change in the Collector's office held by you, and I have been expecting to hear from you. *I do not wish to make any official request or suggestion to you, but a change cannot much longer be deferred, and my desire has been that it might be made in a way as agreeable to you as possible.* This is the object of this personal note. Please inform me of your purpose."

This was brutal, but it was not "frank and bold." It merely amounted to a personal appeal to an old comrade to help a distressed brother out of a tight place. Put in frank, bold English, it would have read: "I want your place for a Republican who is worrying me beyond endurance for immediate possession of it. I cannot remove you without violating the pledge which I made in my letter of acceptance to make no removals save in the 'interest of the public service.' Now,

as you will have to go anyway, won't you oblige an old friend by resigning, and thus spare him the disagreeable necessity of publicly breaking his promises?" Gen. Manson, for reasons which have not been divulged, acceded to the request, sent on his resignation, and that great problem in statesmanship was rolled from the President's mind. He had succeeded in depriving an old soldier and a faithful official of his office, and there could be no clamor about it, since the man had resigned. What mattered it if a little later the correspondence in the transaction got into the newspapers, compelling a former supporter, who had voted for Gen. Harrison because he believed he would be a better civil-service reformer than Cleveland, to exclaim: "The President appears at his littlest in this transaction, and few Presidents have done littler things. He is the President of sixty millions of people, and yet he carries about in his mind, on the most solemn occasions, the edging of an efficient officer out of his place."

Publicity does not appear to have convinced the President of the unwisdom of his new policy, for the correspondence in relation to the Boston Collectorship, published on Friday, shows that he made use of it again there. He has been badgered for months by the two Massachusetts Senators, Messrs. Dawes and Hoar, to remove Mr. Saltonstall before the end of his term, and to appoint Mr. Beard in his place. Mr. Saltonstall was a most efficient officer, who had given entire satisfaction to men of all parties. His term was to expire on May 5 next, and, outside the machine politicians of the party, there were no Republicans who favored his removal before that time. But Messrs. Dawes and Hoar kept on impressing the mind of the President with the need of immediate change. They convinced him early in January that he must not any longer allow his pledges to stand in the way, but they failed to convince him that the "frank and bold, if brutal," course would be the best one to pursue. He tried the opposite, or Indiana one, again, but even less directly this time than before, for he persuaded Secretary Windom to join him in the experiment. The Secretary sent the following letter to Mr. Saltonstall on January 17:

"My Dear Sir: The President is ready to make a change in the Collectorship at Boston, but would be glad to do so in a way that would be most agreeable to you."

It will be seen that the phraseology of this precious missive is almost identical with that of the Manson letter. The President is desirous in both to make the process of decapitation as "agreeable" to the victim as possible, in order that it may at the same time be less discreditable to himself. Mr. Saltonstall was less obliging than Gen. Manson had been. He put the matter straight before the minds of the President and his Secretary by sending a very "frank and bold" reply, containing the following reasons for declining to accept the proposition:

"In reply, I beg to say that, placing entire confidence in the declaration of the President concerning tenure of office, I am prepared to serve the term of four years for which I was commissioned on the 5th of May, 1886, unless removed by the authority of the President for such cause as he has announced to be controlling in such cases. If such cause exists, I respectfully request to be informed of the same.

"In the conduct of this office I have endeavored to perform its important duties with fidelity to the Government, in a manner satisfactory to the merchants of Boston, and to conform to the spirit as well as the letter of the civil-service laws. I therefore cannot stultify myself by any act which would imply the consciousness of dereliction on my part, and prefer to leave the decision of this matter in the hands of the President, to whom I forward a copy of the letter."

The President's reply to this reached the ears of Mr. Saltonstall first in the form of an announcement of the appointment of his successor. Having no "cause" to give for the removal, and having no longer any possibility of accomplishing that object by indirect and secret means, he boldly took the ground of an open violation of his pledge and made the change for political reasons only. There has been a faint pretence in one of the disreputable Republican organs of Boston that a cause did exist, in an alleged inability of Mr. Saltonstall to give his personal attention to the duties of his office, but this was promptly disposed of by another Republican organ, the Boston *Advertiser*, which said on January 22:

"The Collector, in fact, has been remarkably attentive and punctual to his duties at the Custom-house. The talk about his neglecting the duties of his office is simply an excuse, and a very poor one at that, to induce the President to remove him. This is not civil-service reform, nor even fair treatment, and we do not think it will avail."

But this "poor excuse" has availed, and we have the word of the most orthodox Republican organ of New England that in yielding to it the President has taken a step that is "not civil-service reform, nor even fair treatment." Upon that point there can, therefore, be no further discussion. But what have the Republicans of Massachusetts and New England to say of a President who devotes his time to such petty ends and accomplishes them by such means? What have they to say to their two Senators who persuade him into taking such a course? The whole of New England is on the brink of a political revolution because of the failure of the Republican Congress to hear the demands of her manufacturers for relief from oppressive tariff exactions. The petition of one branch of them, the iron and steel-workers, has been signed by 150 names of firms, many of which are the most powerful in their several States, praying for such a breaking down of tariff walls as will save their industry from destruction. Yet Messrs. Hoar and Dawes cannot spare time to listen to these calls upon them to devote themselves to one of the highest duties of statesmanship, the making and shaping of wise and salutary economic laws. The President has no time or thought to give to such an exercise of the functions of his office as to counsel Congress to heed these cries. But the three together give up weeks and months to considering the best means by which to grab an office, decide at first to try to gain possession of it by stealth, and, when that fails, seize it in defiance of personal and party pledges, thus obtaining by methods which cause public scandal an office which would have dropped into their hands in the natural course of events only three months later.

COURTS, TAXES, AND SPOILS.

If all the lawyers assembled in this city on Tuesday last to celebrate the organization of the Supreme Federal Court one hundred years ago had been in sympathy with the McKinley bill, and with Allison, Aldrich, and Beck, who, as a Senate Committee, devised and vindicated that measure in the Senate, some of the speeches on Tuesday week would have been exquisitely droll. Those who uphold that bill, contend that Congress can exclude the judicial power from jurisdiction of any common-law suit whereby the Federal courts can interpret a tariff law or can say that its execution by the Executive has not been what the law has commanded. If Congress can thus exclude the judicial power when the property of the citizen is to be taken by taxes, why not when his property is to be taken under any of the other powers committed to Congress by the Constitution? All agree that a citizen cannot be "deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law."

Protectionists insist that Congress can levy and collect any taxes, duties, imposts, and excises which, in its opinion, the "general welfare" requires, and the judicial power cannot revise the opinion of Congress in regard to the taxing which the "general welfare" requires. Concede all that; but is a taxing enactment "due process of law" which excludes the citizen, required to pay a tax thereunder, from contesting in court the right of the Executive to collect, under that taxing law, the whole sum demanded? It would be inconvenient and intolerable for the judicial power to be permitted to stop, *by injunction*, the collection of a tax which has the color of law, but can Congress prevent the Federal courts from inquiring, by any sort of a suit, after the collection has been enforced, whether or not the Executive has obeyed the law? Can Congress enact that, under certain circumstances, the Executive shall have power to imprison an importer of consigned goods, and the judicial power shall not have power to try the question whether or not the Executive has obeyed the law?

It will not avail to make moot-court discussions over the power of Congress to prevent a taxpayer from suing a Federal tax-gatherer, however illegal the conduct of the latter. The Constitution does not impart jurisdiction to the Federal courts in the absence of a Congressional mandate, excepting in the single case of suits "affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a State shall be a party." Congress can prescribe the only cases in which the Supreme Court can exercise appellate jurisdiction. The "inferior courts" have no jurisdiction whatever over any case till Congress gives it. Only the Federal circuit courts have now by law jurisdiction of suits by taxpayers against Federal tax-gatherers. Congress can take it all away, and the protectionists have shown

they will, when "protection" demands it. The Federal courts are really very weak as against Congress, and in restraining Congress from doing whatever bad thing it wishes to do, provided the doing of the thing is not peremptorily forbidden by the Constitution.

The original Constitution says nothing about jury trials excepting for crimes. Only the severe condemnation of the omission secured the seventh amendment, which the McKinley bill evades and nullifies by refusing to taxpayers a suit "at common law," in which alone a jury is required. How Senator Beck could have tolerated it is inexplicable. On the theory of the McKinley bill, the law can empower such executive officers as collectors of ports and general appraisers to fine importers and imprison them for something said to have been done in making an entry of merchandise, and put the inculpated merchants beyond the protection of the courts. And yet, while all this is going on, or threatened, in Congress, Democrats and tariff-reformers are mute; or, if not dumb, they protest feebly, or, what is still more incomprehensible, vote for the measures.

Apart from the existence of a power in Congress to do what the McKinley bill proposes, why should Congress seek to exclude its own courts from trying, according to the common law, the question whether or not the Executive has taken more money as taxes than Congress authorized? And, especially, why, if our Supreme Court really be what we were last week told that it is? Who has seen an answer to that inquiry? What are the motive and purpose inspiring Windom, McKinley, Allison, Aldrich, Beck, the Senate, and the House? They cannot deny that the Executive has recently collected illegal rates and sums. The six-million case confronts them. In the House the other day, Carlisle and McKinley each confessed, when proposing an immediate amendment of the hat-trimmings law, that the Treasury had levied taxes not permitted by Congress. Is it not odd that straightway Congress goes to work to prevent the judicial power from trying any more similar questions? Why do so if our Supreme Court is really, as ex-President Cleveland said, the "light" of our Federal system and our Federal world? What is behind the effort?

We have read the recent House debate—a most inadequate debate it was—on the McKinley bill in order to discover; but in vain. Levying ad-valorem rates consists of identifying the article by the *name* Congress has prescribed, appraising its *value*, fixing its *classification* in the tariff, ascertaining and applying the lawful *rate*, and figuring out the total tax. It was said that as Congress had always excluded the judicial power from meddling with value, so it could and should with name, classification, rate, and sum. The inference is illogical and not compulsory. No one asks for a judicial meddling with values. And why does the McKinley bill give the courts a limited power over *rates*, and no power at all over names, classifications, sums, and the *facts* on which they depend? If the Executive says woollen is worsted, or silver ore is lead ore, or, as Mr. Edmunds put it, a horse is a cow, why now exclude courts and juries from trying the question as they have for a hundred years? What, we repeat, is behind this concerted effort? Cannot Congress trust its own courts? Is Congress afraid of jurymen? Will the protective system be destroyed if the people, as jurors, are permitted to intervene between tax-gatherers and taxpayers? How droll it all is!

The real underlying motive and purpose we fancy to be these:

The Republican protectionists have now the President and the House. The Republicans think they have the Senate for the next decade. Amendment of the law of 1883, in the interest of higher rates, may be of questionable expediency, but the McKinley bill, once on the statute-book, cannot, as the protectionists believe, be repealed while the Senate is Republican. That bill, if law, will enable the Executive, by its power over the nine new appraisers, to classify imported articles in defiance of the courts, and so, in effect, change rates. No new legislation will be needed to carry out the behests of the manufacturers. A Democratic President can, to be sure, turn out the nine appraisers in 1893, but the Republican Senate could refuse to confirm their successors. The whole taxing business of the nation, the levying of more than $300,000,000 a year, will then swell the scandals of the spoils system and the protective system.

COMPROMISE IN THEOLOGY.

THE most surprising thing about the doctrinal dissensions into which the Presbyterian Church has fallen is the suddenness and unexpectedness of their precipitation. There has long been, it is true, sporadic and unconcerted talk within the Church about the need of revising the creed, but there was no premonition of the present agitation in that. When the matter came up before the General Assembly last May, it was thought to have been shelved deftly by a reference to the presbyteries; at any rate, no one but the professional alarmists pretended to foresee the theological disputes which have followed. The leading Presbyterian divines and newspapers kept on with their customary complacent allusions to the doctrinal solidarity of their Church, and the security it was certain to enjoy from the theological innovations which were troubling others. It is only within three months that the Presbyterian Church has waked up to find itself almost torn in two. Such a result has really been inevitable, we can now see, ever since 1869. The reunion of the two branches of the Church effected in that year was a marriage of incompatibles. Neither old-school men nor new-school men abated their antagonistic views a particle at the time of union. They simply agreed not to fight each other openly any more. They thought they had devised a scheme of doctrinal comprehension broad enough to reconcile opinions which in reality never can be reconciled. Men who cling blindly to the past may, indeed, agree to unite for certain ends with men who have the modern spirit, but such a union must be at the sacrifice of theological conviction and consistency, or else it must prove to be simply a patched-up truce, which open war will be certain to break through as soon as an exciting cause appears.

What is perfectly clear now, has all along been evident to the discerning—that old-school and new-school theologies were only mechanically mixed, not fused. The distinctions have been steadily kept up. Certain presbyteries in the reunited Church have been jealously trained in the old-school tradition and certain others in the new. The case has been similar with theological seminaries, religious newspapers, and elective officers of the various church organizations. The unity all along has been hollow. There has been no real uniformity. Pastors are prominent and honored in New York city who would have been tried for heresy if they had been settled in Pittsburgh, and if they had ventured to preach and publish there as they have done here. If Prof. Briggs were under the jurisdiction of a Philadelphia presbytery, or were a member of the Princeton Faculty, everybody knows—for it has been frankly declared by responsible Church authorities—that his trial for heresy would have come off long ago.

For what ends, then, was this union of theological opposites brought about, and for what ends has it thus far been maintained? Why, in reality, for the sake of material prosperity. It was to make the denomination numerically stronger; to enable it to build more and more costly churches; to prevent the waste of money involved in covering the same field with two branches of the same church; to provide for a more active sectarian propaganda in the West and in New England—in short, to give the Church greater prestige in the eyes of the world. That this is a true description of the facts is shown by the tone adopted now by those who fear a dissolution of the union. They speak of the great prosperity of Zion under the united Church. They refer to the vast property interests now at stake, and deprecate scission, not because it will unsettle faith, but because it will unsettle titles. No voice is heard to speak of any theological advantages that have accrued, of any incitement to profound investigation, of any broadening of knowledge and charity, of any real simplification or unifying of the belief of the Church at large.

The result shows that theological compromises are as dangerous and as fruitful mothers of evil as are political compromises. It proves once again that antagonistic convictions cannot come permanently together on the basis of a mere sentiment. Let us waive our theological differences, said the men who brought about the union of 1869, and unite for practical Christian work. The Puritans knew better than to believe such a thing possible. They were not very lovely, but they were very logical when they said, "How can two walk together except they be agreed?" and carried out that principle to minute shades of theological opinion. Waiving theological differences is only another name for mental reservations, non-natural interpretations of

creeds, ambiguous subscription, and all that miserable feeling of being in a false position, so much of which has been revealed in the current debates.

It is instructive to contrast the history of the Congregational Church, during the last twenty years, with that of the Presbyterian. The former has had its sharp theological discussions. It has seemed at times to be on the verge of disruption. But everything has been all the while open and in the light of day. Innovators have been heard, not suppressed. It has not been thought more important to keep up the rate of yearly ecclesiastical enlargement than to maintain the rights of free investigation and free speech. Meanwhile, the Presbyterian Church has been looking down from its secure fortress upon the troubles of its Congregational friends, devoutly thanking God that it was not as they, and boasting of its inaccessibility to change. Now that the occasion has come, the world sees a generation of Presbyterian laymen educated in ignorance of the real creed of the Church, and revolting at it, and Presbyterian elders and ministers who have gone through the form of subscribing to it, and promising to teach it, now in great numbers repudiating its most characteristic tenets. It appears thus that to check a theological debate really bound to come in the end, is like checking the measles: the disease simply takes a more acute and dangerous turn.

There is warning in all this for those who are given to the great schemes of comprehensive church union, so much in vogue today. If churches can be brought to confess that their inherited theologies are too cumbrous armor for modern warfare, to drop them each for itself, and to make the basis of membership in the separate denominations merely a desire to do all the good possible, then there is hope that the separate denominations can be brought into a union on the basis of desiring to do all the good possible. But if theology really has any vitality, it will not long be kept down by sentiment. Sentimental union without theological union simply leads to mutual distrust, uneasy consciences, and final rupture.

POSITIVIST CHURCHES IN LONDON.

LONDON, January, 1890.

MR. FREDERIC HARRISON'S New Year's address before the Positivist Society in Newton Hall, Fetter Lane, has led to a very pretty war of words. The *Times* of January 2 published a condensed report of the address, and then devoted a leading article, a column long, to pouring contempt on Mr. Harrison and all his works. Mr. Harrison at once sent a brief letter to the *Times*, pointing out that its report of his address was "incorrect," and "entirely altered the sense of much that he said." Nevertheless, the *Spectator* followed up the *Times's* attack with two bitter paragraphs, founded entirely on the report to which Mr. Harrison had already taken exception. This drew from Mr. Harrison a savage article which appeared in the *Pall Mall Gazette*. "Of all actual journals but one," he says, "the *Spectator* is the most untruthful in matters of fact." And of the *Times's* attack on him he asserts:

"I was fully prepared for it, for I knew the rancor of which I am the object for the part that I took in enforcing the lesson of the Pigott forgeries. I am content to leave all decent and honorable men to judge between me and them. And I warn them, to begin with, that the paymasters of Pigott deliberately publish to the world as his 'own words,' in inverted commas, words that a public speaker did not utter, and then proceed to palm off upon him a phrase which is a mere invention of the reporter."

It occurs to me that the echoes of this controversy having probably reached America, there may be some of your readers who, though perfectly familiar with the Positivist doctrine and with the names and writings of its English champions, may yet be quite in the dark as to Newton Hall and the goings-on in that sanctum-sanctorum of Positivists; and that others of your readers may even be surprised to know that there is a sufficient body of "professing" Positivists to require a hall for public worship; for, according to my observation, the Oxford Don is by no means alone in his opinion who described the Positivist movement as consisting of "three persons and no God."

The truth of the matter seems to be, however, that Positivism has been making considerable progress in England during recent years. At present there are at least three places in London alone where followers of Comte come together to celebrate the glories of Humanity, viz., the Church of Humanity, whose High Priest is Dr. Congreve; Newton Hall, already referred to, where Mr. Frederic Harrison and Prof. Beesly are the presiding spirits, and the meeting-place of the recently organized North London Positivist Society. This North London Society is an offshoot of the Newton Hall Society, and, being in direct sympathy with it, needs no further special mention. But, as regards the Church of Humanity and Newton Hall, it must be noted at once that they represent two different schools of Positivist doctrine and practice, and that there is already, to quote Mr. Harrison's own piquant phrase, "a definite bifurcation in those who profess the religion of Humanity."

On the one hand, there are those who hold with Dr. Congreve to the genuine original Comtean ceremonial, and who "insist on putting into practice the entire scheme of Comte textually and immediately"; and, on the other hand, there are certain more moderate and less ecclesiastical spirits, likely Mr. Harrison and Prof. Beesly, who shrink from going the whole length of the Comtean ritual, and regard the development of strong social sympathies and the cultivation of the intellect as the immediate duties of good Positivists. The profane outsider cannot but suspect that the repudiation of High-Church Comtean ritual by these latter Positivists is due rather to their keener sense of the ridiculous than to any other reason. But, however this may be, the judgment of the non-ritualists seems sanctioned by the result: the Newton Hall school of Positivism certainly has a far larger following than the Church of Humanity. It is also more closely in harmony with the French Positivist Society and with the teachings of the present "Chief of Positivists," M. Lafitte. Accordingly, this letter will henceforth concern itself solely with the Newton Hall branch of Positivism.

The situation of Newton Hall in Fleur-de-Lis Court, Fetter Lane, is, despite the romantic name, distinctly unfortunate, and its exterior uninviting. But once you have toiled up the narrow flight of steps and entered the sacred precincts, you forget the unpleasant approach, and realize that you are in an atmosphere where the highest intellectual ideals reign. The walls of the chapel-like Hall are adorned with busts of the greatest philosophers, statesmen, and poets of all ages. Homer, Plato, Aristotle, Julius Cæsar, Charlemagne, Shakspere, Descartes are kept continually before the eyes of Positivists to remind them of the debt Humanity owes to its men of genius. In one corner of the Hall stands a small pipe-organ; to the right of this and behind what we may perhaps call the lectern, hangs a fine reproduction of Raphael's Sistine Madonna, which at this time of the year is surrounded with a beautiful double wreath of white flowers and evergreens. Various legends from the works of Auguste Comte are inscribed on the walls: "Live Openly," "Live for Others," "The Foundation, Order," "The Principle, Love," "The End, Progress," "Family," "Country" "Humanity."

The regular weekly meeting of the Positivists is held each Sunday afternoon from October to May inclusive. The meetings are open to the public, and there is usually a good sprinkling of strangers present; but the main body of the audience is made up of regular members of the Positivist Society. The exercises begin with the singing of a hymn; a very respectable choir of perhaps a score of young people musters behind the lectern and has been drilled into a fair degree of efficiency. Loose sheets of paper containing the hymn are distributed through the audience, Positivist poetry not yet having assumed sufficient proportions to justify a hymnal. Some of the hymns have been fashioned, by dint of judicious alterations, out of old hymns by Anglican or Unitarian authors —Unitarians preferred; others are the direct offspring of the Positivist muse. They are all marked by a certain constraint; "Humanity" is rarely brought fairly and squarely into the metre, but is usually darkly referred to as a "sacred presence" or a "holy influence." After the hymn there follows a reading from the "Hebrew Scriptures" or some other accredited sacred book; and then the main discourse of the day is pronounced. This discourse is a lecture rather than a sermon—scientific, not ethical or hortatory. The topics discussed are ordinarily historical, the general aim being to get a clear understanding of the various stages through which the spirit of a great and glorious Humanity has had to pass on its way to its present altitudes. During November a course of four lectures was delivered on "The Age of Dante." The lectures for the present month are on "Irish History." During February Mr. Harrison will discuss "Some Great Books of History," and will sketch "A Scheme of Historical Reading"; and during March Mr. Henry Ellis will consider four "Types of Historical Theory"—(1) The Theological: *Bossuet;* (2) The Revolutionary: *Condorcet;* (3) The Theologico-Utilitarian: *De Maistre;* and ("the diapason closing full in man") (4) The Positive: *Auguste Comte.* (It may be noted, by the way, that your true Positivist never says simply *Comte*, the nasal monosyllable being quite insufficient to express his veneration for the great master: the full name *Auguste Comte* is always used.) Occasionally theoretical discourses on the nature and significance of the great movement in which Positivists are engaged, take the place of purely historical dissertations. During December, for example, Mr. Harrison gave four lectures entitled, "The New Era," "The Conception of Humanity," "Are Positivists Socialists?" "Are Positivists Democrats?" Such, then, are the subjects on which the Positivist lecturer discourses each Sunday afternoon for perhaps three-quarters of an hour. At the end of the lecture a second hymn is sung, and the meeting breaks up.

These Sunday meetings, however, by no means exhaust the activity of the Positivist

Society. Believing that their work must for the present be largely educational, they are carrying on several evening classes for the study of various subjects:-there are, for example, two French classes, one advanced and one elementary, which meet once a week under the direction of a competent instructor; and once a month an additional meeting is held for the purpose of reading a French play. The Society also comes together once a month, under the presidency of Prof. Beesly, for the discussion of social and political questions; and there is finally a monthly meeting of a purely social character, which is enlivened, like similar gatherings among unenlightened Churchmen, by amateur music, etc., etc.

In addition to the main Positivist organization, there have recently been started a guild of women and a guild of youths; and as a further proof of the success of the Positivist propaganda, Mr. Harrison points to the fact that branch Positivist societies have recently been formed in the north of London and in Manchester.

One important series of the Society's "functions" still remains to be mentioned—their pilgrimages to spots especially associated with memorable men or memorable events in history. A year ago the Society went *en masse* to Horton, where Milton lived after leaving Cambridge, and where "L'Allegro," "Il Penseroso," and "Comus" were composed. In the year just passed, the Society, to quote Mr. Harrison's own words, "has made pilgrimages to the tomb of Thomas à Becket and to Westminster Abbey, and visits to the British Museum and the National Gallery. On all these occasions addresses have been delivered. But, above all, the Society has had a successful and brilliant visit to Paris." It is understood that this visit to Paris was the occasion of a genuine Positivist love-feast between the followers of M. Lafitte and those of Mr. Harrison; and that English as she is spoke and French of Stratford-atte-Bowe were taxed to the utmost for expressions of mutual esteem and of reverence for Auguste Comte.

Now, all this will seem to the ordinary observer ludicrously far from justifying Mr. Harrison's recent boast, that "the conception of Humanity . . . holds in its grasp the future of the world." But, on the other hand, any one who keeps the run of Positivist literature, and follows at all closely the various forms which Positivist activity is taking, must admit that Positivists, however wrong-headed, are thoroughly sincere and thoroughly in earnest; and that their propaganda has been making progress during the last few years. Those who care to keep track of movements of this kind, and who watch with interest, though from a distance, the development of intellectual tendencies in England, may, perhaps, be glad of these details as to the present state of Positivism.

LEWIS E. GATES.

THE DIAMOND NECKLACE.

PARIS, January 23, 1890.

M. CHAIX D'EST-ANGE was one of the leading lawyers under the second empire. The lawyer leaves little behind him, and his eloquence exhausts itself without leaving any trace in literature. The son of M. Chaix d'Est-Ange also followed the law, but he devoted himself at the same time to historical studies. He died young, and his son has just published a volume which the father had prepared on Marie Antoinette. The book has two parts: the first is devoted to the famous trial of the diamond necklace; the second is the trial of the Queen herself before the Revolutionary tribunal.

Carlyle has spoken with his usual originality of the first trial; he has well described the effects produced by its scandalous revelation, and measured their terrible consequences. Royalty received a terrible and unmerited blow in this drama, which had for its principal actors a Prince of the Church, Cardinal de Rohan; Cagliostro the adventurer; a profligate woman, Mme. de Lamotte, and her miserable husband; a prostitute, Mlle. d'Oliva, and some other actors, now entirely forgotten. Even in these years 1784-'85, after Voltairianism had had all its effects, Prince Louis de Rohan, Cardinal, Grand Almoner, Bishop of Strasbourg, Prince of the Empire, scandalized everybody by his mode of life and his immorality. Madame de Genlis said of him in her memoirs: "He was nothing of what he ought to have been." Louis XVI., who was an honest man, disliked him. Marie Antoinette, though she has been described in the pamphlets of the Revolution as frivolous and fond of easy pleasures, had for Cardinal de Rohan an extraordinary aversion, mixed with contempt. She did not try to conceal these sentiments, and she signified her resolution never to receive him. Was there any secret reason for this dislike? Madame Campan says that Cardinal Rohan had criticised at Vienna the manners of Marie Antoinette, after she had married the Dauphin, and had spoken harshly of her, making himself in this the echo of the courtiers, who thought that the young Austrian Princess was too impatient of etiquette and too much given to favoritism. The Queen's aversion to the Cardinal became a sort of torture for Rohan. His intellect was narrow, his passions were obstinate. He conceived a mad passion for the Queen (who despised him) because she despised him; and he thought of nothing but of finding the means to change her sentiment, and turn her aversion into an indulgence which, by degrees, might become an even warmer feeling.

It is incredible that a Prince of the Church should have conceived such a project; much more incredible are the means to which he resorted. The association of a Cardinal with a charlatan like Cagliostro was the first scandal. The acquaintance was made at Saverne, in Alsace, where Rohan built a fine castle, which is now used as a barrack. Part of my childhood was spent in Saverne, one of the loveliest places at the foot of the Vosges Mountains; the Cardinal's château was my Versailles. I vaguely remember terrible stories which were told about the Cardinal, his prodigality, his disorders—stories which, as a child, I could not well understand. The Cardinal brought Cagliostro to Paris, and introduced him into society. At the beginning of 1785, Cagliostro gave himself out as an alchemist and a magician; he said to some that he was born at the time of the deluge, to others that he was one of the guests at the marriage at Cana—he had the secret of prolonging life indefinitely.

The memoirs of Beugnot, which are among the most interesting of our time, give us curious details on another actor in the drama. Madame de Lamotte pretended to descend from a natural son of Henri II., and she had some of the Valois blood in her veins. She was married, but was the mistress of a rake, called Villette, whom Beugnot calls "le Philinte des escrocs." The intrigues which ended in the trial of the diamond necklace are well known: Madame Campan, Beugnot, all the memoirs of the time have told us how M. and Madame de Lamotte and Villette worked upon the passion which Cardinal de Rohan felt for the Queen; how they arranged an interview between him and Mlle. Oliva, in the night, in the gardens of Versailles, and profited by the great likeness between Marie Antoinette and this complaisant young woman; how the Cardinal was made to put large sums of money for the Queen's charities into the hands of Madame de Lamotte; how he finally bought for the Queen a diamond necklace which the Queen had repeatedly refused to buy from the crown jeweller, on account of the price; how Madame de Lamotte, her lover, and her friends disposed of the diamonds for their own use. Though much has been written on the subject, nobody knows exactly at this time what became of the beautiful stones of the necklace; we know the design of it, but nothing more.

M. Chaix d'Est-Ange used the official documents concerning the trial in the National Archives. The Revolution, the Empire respected them, from the first acts of the judicial proceedings to the Parlement's *arrêt*. M. Campardon had already used these documents, and even given their complete text. M. Chaix d'Est-Ange in reality only gives a résumé of his work. He shows also, with great force, how unjust a corrupt public opinion was towards the Queen, who was as innocent of the evil designs of Madame de Lamotte and her associates, and as ignorant, as a new-born babe. But was she not a foreigner—*l'Autrichienne?* Was not every weapon good enough against her? Were not the revolutionary feelings which were already predominant in Paris, ready to seize any pretence, any opportunity? Did not Beaumarchais say, in his "Mariage de Figaro," "Calumniate, calumniate! Some of it will always stick"?

Curiously enough, some sympathy was felt for the Cardinal, and he was considered to have been too harshly treated because he was for a time sent to the Bastille. The trial took place before the Parlement of Paris, and for sixty years the Court and the Parlement had been at war. Chancellor Maupeou had tried in vain to establish new courts of justice; when Louis XVI. ascended the throne, the Parlement was reëstablished, with all its privileges, by Maurepas. The magistrates, embittered by persecution, had become almost hostile to the State and to the Crown. The Prince de Ligne, in his 'Historical Notes on the French Revolution,' said: "It was the fashion to disobey Louis XVI. as much as it was the custom to obey with trembling Cardinal Richelieu, and the magistrates plumed themselves, in the evening, in society, on any impertinence they had offered during the day to royalty." The trial was conducted without reference to the dignity and majesty of the Crown, in a hostile spirit. The Cardinal was acquitted, and his acquittal was received all over Paris with a mad enthusiasm. When he went back to his palace, the *dames de la halle* brought him a bouquet; he showed himself on the balcony to the people, with Cagliostro beside him. It was, indeed, the prologue of the Revolution. Mirabeau wrote on June 1, 1786 ('Memoirs of Mirabeau'): "Thirty years ago, the Cardinal would have been lost without any resource."

Marie Antoinette felt bitterly the insult. Mme. Campan tells us in her memoirs that the Queen said to her: "Condole with me. The intriguer who tried to ruin me, or to procure money by using my name, has been fully acquitted. But," added she, with energy, "you must also, as a Frenchwoman, receive my condolence." To her friend Mme. de Polignac she wrote: "Come and weep with me. The judgment which has just been pronounced is a horrible insult. What ingratitude! But I will triumph over the wicked by doing three times as much good as I have always tried to do." She did not triumph over the wicked. Louis XVI. was indignant at the Parlement;

he asked Cardinal de Rohan to resign his charge of Grand Almoner, and to go to one of his abbeys, the Chaise-Dieu in Auvergne.

Mme. de Lamotte was thrown into prison, but she contrived six months afterwards to escape from La Salpétrière. Some people dared to say that Marie Antoinette helped her away, and denounced it as a proof of complicity. But surely if Marie Antoinette had been guilty of any connivance with Mme. de Lamotte, she would have preferred to have her die in a prison, where she had no communication with the outside world, than to see her at large, in London, where Mme. de Lamotte joined her infamous husband and wrote libels against the Queen. This wicked woman never returned to France (though Mirabeau asserted once that she had made her appearance in Paris at the end of 1789). She lived in misery in London, changed her name, and history loses trace of her. Quérard, in his 'Supercheries Littéraires,' says that she committed suicide. M. de Lamotte lived in London on the money he procured from the necklace, which had been pawned, in 1783, at a jeweller's named Gray. We find him in Paris during the massacres of September, borne in triumph by the assassins. He only died in 1831; towards the end of his life he was in a state of great misery.

Cagliostro was banished by the King and retired to London. He travelled in Switzerland and Italy, and had the impudence to go to Rome, where he was put in prison, in virtue of the law against the masters and disciples of witchcraft. He died in 1791. As for Cardinal de Rohan, he became at first a supporter of the Revolution, and was elected to the Constituent Assembly. Was he not a "victim of despotism"? His views changed as soon as the Assembly confiscated the lands of the clergy. He became an ardent enemy of the Revolution, retired to the principality which he had in Germany, gave men and money to the Prince de Condé, and helped the émigrés with the remainder of his revenues. He resigned the bishopric of Strasbourg at the time of the Concordat, and died in 1809. Unworthy of the great name which he bore, he is one of the meanest actors in the great Revolutionary struggle in France; abhorred by the Royalists and despised by the Republicans.

Correspondence.

THE "PROTECTION" OF AMERICAN ART.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The admirers of the present system of taxation of art for the better protection of it from unhealthy competition, might like to explain the following absurdity: The work of American artists being admitted free of duty, out of consideration for the artists' pockets, the Government charges them $2.50 for the certificate which is to prove their identity, and, what is worse, puts them to the inconvenience—sometimes very great—of having to go to the nearest American consul to make the declaration and take out the certificate, and all for the sake of getting a protection which is about as agreeable as a cloak of sheet-iron on a cold day. A curious case has just come to my knowledge which illustrates luminously the utter want of common sense which pervades the tariff legislation of the U. S. A.

A certain eminent wood-engraver, who is living in Italy and working for a well-known magazine, engraving pictures of the early Italian masters *in situ*, and who is at the present moment working at a great distance from any American consulate, is obliged, when he has finished his block and wishes to send it to the publishers, to go a day's journey to get the certificate, and then must send the block by express with a declaration that will satisfy the Custom-house that it is the work of an American artist, while, but for the system of protection of his interests, he might send it by parcels post at the expense of a small fraction of the present tax on his pocket, to say nothing of that on his time and patience; and the block is from a month to two months on the way, when, if he were not protected, the unfortunate man could get it to the office in ten or twelve days. There is probably not another Government out of Asia capable of such utter imbecility as is involved in this arrangement for the protection of men who beg to be relieved from protection, and which gives the Consul an amount of unnecessary work, the artist a very great amount of unnecessary trouble and expense, and the publishers a great deal of inconvenience—and all to raise a tax that is not wanted and which falls on the men who are protected.

The service of the parcels post which is in operation all over Europe is made impossible by our Custom-house regulations between the United States of America and the Old World, so that when I, as an American, wish to get from America an article which falls within the limits of the parcels post, I am obliged to have it sent by the tedious, expensive, and troublesome channel of the trans-European express, instead of which I prefer to get the best English substitute for it, even if it costs a little more in the prime cost. We are an extremely clever people in the way of contriving measures for cutting off our noses for the sake of spiting our neighbors' faces.

Yours in the bonds of ignorance, W.

Rome, January 22, 1890.

MARCOZZI'S PHOTOGRAPHS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Allow me respectfully to call the attention of your readers to the photographs that Marcozzi of 7 Piazza Durini has just taken of all the important pictures in the Poldi-Pezzoli collection. Tourists know how impossible it is for love or money to get good photographs of any pictures save the few favorites. They will be delighted with Marcozzi's, which are perfect reproductions, rivalling Braun's, and at a tenth of the latter's prices. It is to be hoped that the sale of these photographs will be great enough to induce Marcozzi to undertake other collections. B. B.

Milan, January 19, 1890.

THE LATE JOSEPH M. WELLS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the death of Joseph Morrill Wells the architectural profession has suffered a grievous loss. That fame is not a measure of ability, was never more strikingly shown than in the fact that to many, even among architects, the news of his death was perhaps the first knowledge they had that he had lived. Strong in his convictions, inflexible in maintaining them, impenetrable on short acquaintance, but loyal and warm to those who had won the favor of his friendship, never yielding the principles of his art to the demands of expediency, nor wishing to force himself into public notice, he was content to work quietly with his friends in New York, where, in good-fellowship, fraternity, and mutual esteem, he led a peaceful and contented existence. Shortly before his last illness he said he did not expect, and certainly did not desire, any better opportunities than his work of the last few years had afforded him. Simplicity and purity of design he was ever striving for. His work was as unaffected as himself. He was a respecter of good tradition, and originality for originality's sake he abhorred. The common-sense sturdiness of his opinions and his terse manner of expressing them show in the following remarks of his, which I am able to quote literally:

"If you have a desire to make a good piece of architecture, be sure and use as small a number of materials as possible (*one* best of all, even should it be nothing but mud). No more curds and whey." Deploring the tendency, in much of modern design, to mere prettiness at the expense of form and proportion, which he considered essential and fundamental factors of good work, he maintained that "architecture does not depend on the color of brick, or size of joints, or texture of stone or terracotta. Nearly all buildings are compromised from this cause." The truth of this needs no demonstration. His enthusiasm and interest were by no means confined to his profession. Speaking of a young architect of his acquaintance, he once said: "X——, I think, ought to develop into something. But this is an obscure subject. A new architect is always a surprise and drops down from the skies. If he designed as well as he plays base-ball, he would already be at the top of the profession."

The interval between his Boston career and that in New York he gave to a diligent and exhaustive study of Italian Renaissance; and by making careful drawings of the Farnese and the Cancellaria palaces and others, he cultivated an intimate acquaintance with them, even to the minutest detail. It is safe to say that few architects knew and understood Renaissance as Wells did. Would there were more in the profession willing to study as patiently, and with the capacity to study as understandingly, as he; and, having so studied, able to express the result of their studies in their practice! It is not enough to have principles: we must know what to do with them when we have them. Wells knew.

W. E. C.

Cambridge, February 8, 1890.

SHELLEY'S SKYLARK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Prof. Corson, in his letter on Browning (in the *Nation* of January 9, 1890), quotes the great poet's opinion upon the now famous "unbodied joy" of Shelley's "Skylark." According to Browning, "unbodied" is "nonsense" in this connection. Whether it be indeed nonsense or not, the Harvard MS. of Shelley shows conclusively that Shelley at any rate wrote it. And as Shelley was not a careless user of words, it remains for his readers to justify him. May I make an attempt—namely, by indicating the steps by which Shelley, we may conjecture, was led to this peculiar form?

Spenser, in his "Shepherd's Calendar," November, line 166, writes thus of the subject of his dirge:

> "She hath the bonds broke of eternall night,
> Her soule unbodied of the burdenous corpse."

Spenser uses here the word "corpse," as frequently, for body in general. And the prefix *un-* is scarcely the negative; rather it is the English equivalent of the German *ent-*, and "unbodied" is the same as our modern "disembodied." The soul of the risen Dido has shaken off the load of the body.

Just before Shelley wrote his "Skylark," Byron had said in his "Manfred," act i., scene 2:

"The natural music of the mountain reed—
For here the patriarchal days are not
A pastoral fable—pipes in the liberal air.
Mixed with the sweet bells of the sauntering herd;
My soul would drink these echoes. Oh, that I were
The viewie s spirit of a lovely sound,
A living voice, a breathing harmony,
A bodiless enjoyment—born and dying
With the blest tone which made me!"

(First ed. of 1817, p. 22.)

Two thoughts suggest themselves to me. The first is, that Shelley caught his idea, his situation, so to speak, from Byron. Manfred's enjoyment is literally "bodiless"; whatever view the physicist may take of sound, to the ordinary mind the echo of a mountain pipe or cattle-bell has no body. But Shelley, in substituting Spenser's "unbodied" for Byron's "bodiless," has demonstrated for the thousandth and thousandth time his perfect sanity of taste and speech. Shelley's lark, rising from the earth like Spenser's Dido, shakes off—*to the eye of the listener*—its body, it becomes a mere sound, an "unbodied" joy.

It surprises me that Browning should have failed to detect Shelley's daring metaphor. He seems to tax Shelley with the gross blunder of treating the lark as a thing without a body, whereas the poet merely "figures" the lark into a spirit that has shaken off its body.

J. M. Hart.

University of Cincinnati, February 1, 1890.

PEN-NAMES AND REAL NAMES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the kind and complimentary notice of 'Selections from the Greek Anthology' that appeared a little while since in the *Nation*, your critic, in speaking with warm commendation of the translations by Alma Strettell, flatters me with the conjecture that "Alma Strettell" may be a pen-name of my own. Therefore, I thought it might interest you to know that this is not so, but that Miss Strettell writes under her own name, and is the author of a very fine collection of Spanish and Italian folk-songs, published some two or three years ago.

Will you do me the great kindness of giving publication to the fact that I, also, write solely and simply under my real name, and that I am not, nor have ever been, a Mrs. Sharp?—Believe me, dear sir, yours very truly,

Graham R. Tomson.

20 St. John's Wood Road, London, N, W., January 31, 1890.

THE WASHINGTON ANCESTRY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A few facts as to Ann Pope, the widow of Walter Brodhurst and the second wife of John Washington, the Virginia immigrant, may interest some of your readers.

Her first husband, Walter Brodhurst, was in Virginia as early as 1650, and in 1653 represented Northumberland County in the Legislature. There is a deposition of his, dated August 30, 1655, in which he mentions that he was about thirty-six years of age, and it is known that he was the son of William Brodhurst of Lilleshall, Shropshire, England. Mr. Crallé of Northumberland County, Va., informs the writer that among the old records of that county there is a judgment dated July, 1656, in favor of Walter Brodhurst, and that the next reference to him is in a suit brought on September 30, 1659, by Anne Brodhurst, relict and administratrix of Walter Brodhurst.

In a note on page 80 of the last (January) number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, the writer alluded to the baptism in September, 1659, of a young son of John Washington, and suggested that he was a child by the second wife—which is a mistake, as at that time she had not married Washington. When the widow Brodhurst became his wife, she had a son, Walter Brodhurst, who went to England and lived and died at his father's birthplace. By John Washington she had a son Lawrence (the ancestor of Gen. Washington), who was buried, in 1697, at Bridges Creek, Westmoreland County, Virginia.

Edward D. Neill.

St. Paul, Minnesota.

BLOOD-CURDLING ITEMS FOR SENATOR INGALLS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The *National Economist*, the official organ of the National Farmers' Alliance and Industrial Union, published in Washington city, has, in its issue of the 25th ult., two items, bearing on the race problem in the South, of such unparalleled atrocity and cold-blooded fiendishness that it is a wonder they could have escaped the eagle-eyed Mr. Ingalls, as, scissors in hand, he daily scans the newspapers for gory material for his Senatorial scrap-book:

Item first:

Proclamation is made (by Andrew J. Carothurs for one and R. M. Humphrey for the other) that the two colored alliance organizations are now consolidated and to be known as the Colored Farmers' National Alliance and Coöperative Union, with headquarters at Houston, Texas. Thus following in the line of consolidation by the organizations of white farmers, this noble work has been done. The following proclamation we clip from the organ of the order, the *National Alliance* (Houston, Texas):

"Whereas, In the providence of Almighty God, the great leaders of the opposing colored alliances have this day met, and, sacrificing their own interests and all personal ambition, have agreed to unite and consolidate our jarring and discordant orders into a single grand alliance; and whereas, our dissensions heretofore have divided our churches, broken up our schools, embittered our communities, and created discord in our families; and whereas, less than three years ago, our order came into existence without a membership and with an empty treasury, and we now have a million members, with business activities in more than twenty States, exchanges permanently established in half a dozen great cities, and we are everywhere enjoying the greatest good will and the hearty coöperation of the white inhabitants of all the States. Wherefore it well becomes us, the recipients of such countless blessings and boundless prosperity, to remember the Almighty Giver of all good, and humbly to look up to Him from whom all our strength comes.

"Now, therefore, I, R. M. Humphrey, General Superintendent of the Colored Farmers' National Alliance and Coöperative Union, do issue this, my proclamation, recommending to all colored alliances of every name and order in the United States, and all colored persons friendly to the alliance and the progress of their race, to observe Saturday, the 22d day of February, A. D. 1890, as a day of solemn prayer and joyous thanksgiving to the God of nations.

"(1.) Let your National and State exchanges and coöperative stores and all your places of business be closed for that day. Do no work of any kind. Make it a day of rest to all your people.

"(2.) Let the members of your hitherto discordant alliances seek each other out, and let them mutually forgive one another—burying every grudge and all envy, hatred, and malice, renewing among yourselves pledges of brotherly love, Christian fellowship, alliance, good-will. Let peace and love reign.

"(3.) Assemble yourselves at your churches and places of worship promptly at ten o'clock A. M., and continue your devotional exercises until two o'clock P. M.

"Finally, all organizers, trustees, superintendents, secretaries, and others, no matter to what alliance they have heretofore belonged, are charged to read this proclamation in the lodges and congregations, and see that it is published to all the people. Let your meetings be conducted soberly. Spend no part of this, your sacred day, about the streets nor in idle gossip."

Item second:

NOTICE.

To the Colored Farmers' Union of Louisiana:

Arrangements have been made with T. A Clayton, State Agent of the Farmers' Union of Louisiana, by which the Colored Union of Louisiana can trade through the agency and receive all the benefits of cheap goods without the expense of a separate agency, and thus unite the financial strength of both orders. It will certainly be to the advantage of both, and, as both organizations are working for the same objects, the Colored Farmers' Union will coöperate with the Farmers' Union whenever it is possible to do so.

A. L. Plummer,
Gen'l Supt. C. F. U., Funny Louis, La.

Now, these extracts show a truly lamentable state of affairs. Within the brief period of the three past years, *one million* negroes in the South have, at the muzzles of Winchester rifles and shotguns, been driven and hunted and hounded by the whites into this coöperative movement among themselves, and under the fear of torture and death been "bulldozed" into acquiring property, into selling their agricultural products for higher rates, and into buying the necessaries of life for lower.

Something must be done, and that at once, to put down this brutal lawlessness in the South, and secure more "justice" for the poor defenceless, down-trodden blacks, or the country is irrevocably gone to the demnition bow-wows. Valuable suggestions might be given the Senator in this dire emergency by those philanthropic ex-Confederate statesmen, Gen. Mahone of Virginia and Chalmers of Mississippi. "A National Suppression Law" should be passed at once, for, if these horrible outrages continue in such barbaric deviltry, there is no telling but that at the next Presidential election these million members of the Colored Farmers' Alliance and Coöperative Union may be intimidated by their white alliance neighbors and friends—a majority of whom are, of course, Democrats—into voting for tariff reform and against Trusts, monopolies and similar pet schemes, dear to the heart of the G. O. P.

In explanation, I would add the significant fact that the colored and the white alliances in the South, while working side by side for a common end—the better protection and development of the agricultural interests of the country—*are entirely separate and distinct as to membership.* And in this effort of the negroes to improve their material condition, and to become more responsible and trustworthy as citizens, they always receive substantial help and friendly counsel from the whites, as is proved, in part, by the "notice" quoted above.

Respectfully, Frank Noland.

Hewlett's, Hanover Co., Va., February 6, 1890.

AN OBJECT LESSON IN CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The following extract from the report of an interview with Capt. A. H. Reed, a local Minnesota politician, published in the St. Paul *Pioneer Press* of January 27, would serve as an effective tract for the civil-service reformers. The interview had reference to the efforts of Capt. Reed in favor of Capt. Danahower, candidate for the office of Collector of Internal Revenue of Minnesota.

"The facts," said Capt. Reed to a *Pioneer Press* correspondent, "are these: I was for Capt. Danahower for Collector, and I did not care who knew it. I pleaded with Senator Washburn without avail, but he told me he would recommend Capt. Danahower for Marshal. I called on Senator Davis for a letter of introduction to Secretary Blaine. After receiving it I said to Senator Davis: 'Senator, are you willing I should interest myself in Capt. Danahower's behalf?' 'Yes,' he said, 'but do not use my name in doing so.' I went to Secretary Windom on a matter of my own, and incidentally asked the Secretary what the trouble was that Capt. Danahower could not be appointed Collector of Internal Revenue for Minnesota with the war record and the backing he had. The Secretary said

the President would not appoint until the Senators could agree, and he did not wish to interfere, as it was a Senatorial appointment. I said to the Secretary that the President had taken it upon himself to appoint Mr. Hay District Attorney without the Senators agreeing, and to even the thing up he ought to appoint Capt. Danahower.

"I kept track of the matter by calling at Mr. Byrnes's office, and a few days after was told by the appointment clerk that the President had sent over that day for the 'briefs' in the Minnesota Collector's case. I asked if he supposed I could get to see the President that day, and he said as it was Cabinet day he thought not. I then went to Gen. Bacheler, First Assistant Secretary, who I was told would take an interest in the 'old soldiers.' I laid the case before him in as strong terms as I could. I told him that *the Republicans of Minnesota were getting mad to see the Democrats holding down the best offices under a Republican administration, and they were getting d——n mad, and I was one of them.* Mr. Bacheler said: '*You go right to the President and talk to him as you have to me.*' From there I went to Gen. Mason, Commissioner of Internal Revenue, and told him the situation of things as to appointment of Collector for Minnesota. He said it was a matter of the Secretary's. I told him that the Secretary had said to me that he did not wish to interfere, upon which the Commissioner remarked, 'If the Secretary will intimate that to me, I will settle the matter in short order.'

"The next day I called on the President, sent in my card, and was ushered into his presence. He met me with extended hand, and, as I wanted to get on the soft side of him, if possible, I introduced myself as a comrade who had served with him in the Army of the Cumberland. I saw at once he was bound to be as cold as the St. Paul ice palace. I said that I had called on a business matter, in behalf of the old soldiers of Minnesota, who wanted Capt. Danahower appointed Collector of Internal Revenue of Minnesota, and *I wished he would move in the matter at once, as the Republicans of our State were getting impatient.* He said, in substance, this: 'You are not supposed to understand the difficulties we have to labor under and the pressure brought to bear. Within the last twenty-four hours some forty letters and telegrams have come in asking for a new man. It is thought a Scandinavian ought to be appointed to that office.' *I did feel somewhat hot,* and said: '*If such men as Capt. Danahower, who rendered the country the service he did from 1861 to 1865, must be turned down for a Scandinavian just because he is a Scandinavian, then it is time we knew it.*' *I turned and left him without further remarks,* and came across Secretary Blaine in the room below, who, it appeared, had heard my conversation with the President, for he asked, '*What were you and the President having such a racket about?*'"

In all this graphic recital it is hard to know whom to pity most—foot-sore and heart-sick Capt. Reed; Capt. Danahower turned down, it is to be feared, in spite of his record, for a new man; the two Minnesota Senators standing between the cross-fire of "old soldiers" and Scandinavians; the various Cabinet officers and other public servants vainly trying to snatch a few moments for their official duties between the invasions of office-hunters; President Harrison with his forty letters and telegrams in twenty-four hours; or the people of the United States. F. B. T.

St. Paul, February 2, 1890.

ARE WE IN NEED OF A NAVY THAT SHALL "SWEEP THE SEAS"?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Friend: In a speech, made a few days ago by William E. Gladstone, at the old town of Chester, not far from his home at Hawarden, surprise and regret were expressed that this Republic—turning aside from its traditions of the past—should of late have embarked upon the policy of building up and burdening itself with a great navy, according to the bad way of the old European nationalities. From one who, when he was leader of the party in power in England, deliberately withdrew from a war (that of the Transvaal) which he was convinced had been unjustly undertaken, this observation upon the mistaken and dangerous policy—as he conceives it to be—which we have entered upon, comes with a good grace, and may be freely accepted as proffered in all sincerity and as dictated by a pure purpose of helpfulness. It is the language of wisdom, large experience, and common sense, and I feel assured that our people would do well to heed its friendly intimations.

Only about two years have elapsed, I believe, since a highly respectable delegation came hither from Great Britain, bearers of a memorial signed by between two and three hundred members of Parliament, commending to our President and Congress and the American people generally the desirability of entering into a definite treaty of arbitration between the two countries. Since then there has more than one international dispute been peaceably adjusted by the good offices of arbitrators. So that, since the beginning of the century, as we are told, not less than sixty cases of disagreement have been amicably settled. With such a record before us, pointing the way to the happy disposition of all international disputes, how is it that we are suddenly awaking to the discovery that we are practically defenceless, and that the immediate creation and equipment of a powerful navy, second to none in the world, is an imperative necessity?

Then there is the calling together of the delegates from all the American republics, a widely published purpose of which gathering is to formulate a plan for the prevention of all wars between the States represented, by entering into an agreement to submit all cases in dispute, not otherwise adjustable, to arbitration. This clause in Secretary Blaine's address of welcome to the delegates certainly reads well: "We believe that friendship, crowned with candor and maintained with good faith, will remove from American States the necessity of guarding boundary lines between themselves with fortifications and military force." Now, that has the sound of having been written with "candor," and framed in "good faith," and there is not apparent any reason why we should "read between the lines." Were there the remotest reason for believing this to be so, the Spanish-American delegates now at the national capital would straightway gather together their *impedimenta*, and report at the capitals of their respective republics with the greatest celerity. Obviously, the great clamor for navy preparation which has arisen at Washington, and is seconded in some other quarters, does not contemplate anything of aggressiveness in connection with our sister republics of this continent.

Well, then, what have we done, or what are we about to do, that all this haste for providing ourselves with an irresistible fleet of war-ships, monitors, dynamite-cruisers, torpedo-boats, etc., is deemed to be urgently necessary? We do not propose to quarrel with any of our neighbors all the way down the west Atlantic and east Pacific seaboards to the mingling of the waters at the Straits of Magellan—a waterway that a few years ago was declared by Chili and the Argentine Confederation to be neutral, and upon the shores of which the fortifications of neither nation, nor of any other nation, were ever to be erected. And as regards England, France, Germany, and the other European Powers, is there any reason why our reciprocal intentions and behavior should not be attended with as much "friendship," "candor," and "good faith" as our intercourse with the States of Mexico and the several republics of South America? At any rate, would it not be wise on our part, and reassuring and helpful to the nationalities on the other side of the Atlantic, burdened as they are with the accumulated charges for past wars, and of a state of preparation for possible impending conflicts almost equal to the cost of war itself, to worry along about as we have in the past, to deal openly and justly with our neighbors and acquaintances, whether they be Spanish-American, European, or Mongolian, and so make it apparent that friendship, candor, and good faith are a better defence than a big standing army, elaborate coast defences, and a navy that is warranted to "sweep the seas"? Josiah W. Leeds.

Philadelphia.

THE INVESTIGATOR AS TEACHER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the discussion on the subject of teaching in colleges and universities, your correspondents have ignored (or, at least, have not clearly stated) the purpose of the so-called higher education, namely, the training of the judgment. A teacher, to be competent from this point of view, must have learned to exercise his own judgment. This is only possible when he has investigated some subject for himself—that is, when he has learned to form an independent opinion based upon his personal observations and experiments. Our opinions in practical every-day life are not considered of much importance until we have had experience upon which to found our opinions. In the great realm of apparently conflicting facts in the literary and scientific world, a clear and independent judgment is a necessity, if we are to gain lasting benefit from college or university training. Mere facts are soon forgotten, and are of little use unless we know the relation between them. Facility in forming an independent opinion is also that which gives an educated man the advantage over an uneducated one, even though he begin his career later than the latter.

It is true that an original investigator is often a poor teacher, and sometimes so fully absorbed in his own specialty that the student learns little from him aside from this specialty and how he has come to this or that conclusion in a certain line of work. On the other hand, a student learns from a teacher who is not himself constantly learning new facts and exercising his judgment in new questions, more facts, perhaps, but not how to use them.

The question being agitated in your columns has already been discussed in Germany, and when a new position is to be filled, the qualities of the candidate as a teacher and as an original investigator are both carefully weighed. From thirty to forty years ago the experiment was made of filling teachers' positions with those who were most successful in the reproduction of others' ideas; but the result was not satisfactory, and at present it is customary to elect such men to professorships as have become prominent through their original investigations. Students who have spent years in study under the direction of those who only reproduce the ideas of others, find that when they come to compete with those who have studied with original workers, they have missed the most important part of an education—the habit of forming an independent opinion. A. L. G.

Zurich, January 24, 1890.

A DIFFERENCE IN GERMAN AND AMERICAN UNIVERSITY METHODS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: One of the chief factors in the advancement of scientific knowledge in Germany is

what is known as the Privatdocenteuwesen. Du Bois-Reymond, in one of his inaugural addresses, calls this institution "the principal source from which our universities derive that spirit of bold research and penetrating inquiry which is perhaps the most distinctive quality of German scholarship." And, indeed, a glance at the position filled by the Privatdocent shows that there is hardly a place within the university more honorable or more influential. Any young man who has won his doctorate, and who has convinced the faculty of a German university that he is an independent searcher after truth, may be admitted at once to exactly the same kind of teaching in which the oldest members of the faculty are engaged. In entering upon this work he assumes none but self-imposed obligations; he is not encumbered with conducting examinations; he has no share in the wearisome administrative work of the university; his whole time is given to an absolutely independent pursuit of the line of investigation and instruction which he has chosen.

The success which this institution has had, both as to the number of persons availing themselves of its privileges and with regard to the work done by them, is remarkable. As to the first point, it must be remembered that, aside from the scanty fees paid by the students and from occasional pecuniary aid granted by the Government, the Privatdocenten receive no money remuneration; and surely, from a worldly point of view, their position is not enviable. Nevertheless, the average proportion of Privatdocenten to the total number of the University teaching force during the fifty years from 1830–80 was about 25 per cent., and the last five years show a very decided increase even beyond this limit. With regard to the second point, it is significant that a larger percentage of Privatdocenten than of "ordentliche Professoren" are engaged in special and advanced teaching.

The following table is compiled from the *Lectionsverzeichnisse* of the "Philosophische Facultäten" of Berlin and Munich Universities for the current year. Under "general courses" are classed such subjects as the political or literary history of a people, the elements of philosophy, the outlines of a certain branch of science; under "special courses," such subjects as the history of a special institution, the study of an individual author, the study of a single physical phenomenon. As it was my aim to get at the two extreme ends of the academic scale, the "ausserordentliche Professoren" were left out of consideration; and as every university teacher without exception conducts a seminar, or a course corresponding to it, this element also was omitted from the comparison. The figures indicate the percentage:

	Courses.		
	Gen. only.	Spec. only.	Gen. and spec.
(1.) Berlin—			
Ordentl. Professoren	37.2	25.5	37.2
Privatdocenten....	19.3	52.6	28
(2.) Munich—			
Ordentl. Professoren	58.3	8.3	3.3
Privatdocenten....	25	58.3	16.6

It is evident from this table that the number of professors who lecture exclusively on general or elementary subjects is at Berlin almost, at Munich more than twice, as large as that of Privatdocenten engaged in the same kind of subjects; that the number of Privatdocenten who lecture exclusively on special or advanced subjects is at Berlin more than twice, at Munich more than seven, times as large as that of professors engaged in the same kind of subjects; while in both places a considerably smaller proportion of Privatdocenten than of professors lecture both on advanced and elementary subjects.

This, then, is the distribution of work in the two largest German universities, which I have selected as specimens to illustrate what is a general tendency of German university education, namely, to let the older men do the bulk of fundamental instruction—to intrust the special investigation and research mainly to the young men.

From the following table of the distribution of work at Harvard and Cornell we may derive some information as to the methods pursued in this respect in American colleges. Here also only the two ends of the academic scale, the "full professors" and the "instructors," are considered. With reference to the different character of work done in American and German universities, I have here used the expressions "elementary" and "advanced" courses, instead of general and special:

	Courses.		
	Elem. only.	Adv. only.	Elem. and adv.
(1.) Harvard, '89-'90—			
Professors.....	00	27.02	72.9
Instructors.....	56.5	8.7	34.7
(2.) Cornell, '88-'89—			
Professors.....	7.6	19.2	73.3
Instructors.....	68.9	6.8	24.1

It appears, then, that at Harvard there is no fraction, at Cornell a very small one, of professors who teach elementary subjects only, whereas more than half of the instructors at Harvard, and nearly three-fourths at Cornell, are engaged in just that kind of work exclusively; that the number of professors who teach advanced subjects only is in both institutions somewhat more than three times as large as that of the instructors engaged in advanced teaching exclusively; finally, that in both places the majority of the professors and a minority of the instructors are giving both elementary and advanced instruction.

If I add that in the graduate department at Yale thirty-six professors and only four instructors offer independently advanced instruction (the rest of the instructors who figure in the announcement of the department act either as assistants in a professor's course or offer nothing beyond elementary work); if I add that at Johns Hopkins of the ten "associates" only two are exempt from undergraduate work, it seems perfectly evident that the prevailing tendency in American universities is to let the young men do the bulk of elementary instruction, and to intrust the advanced instruction mainly to men of long experience and of established reputation.

That the German system is considered a success in Germany there can be no doubt. It is universally felt that the professors, through wider experience and practical efficiency, are best adapted to represent the foundations and the system of their science in their accepted form; that the Privatdocenten, full of the enthusiasm of youth and unhampered by official routine, are best fitted to reach out into new fields and to train investigators; that the competition of one with the other furnishes a continual source of rejuvenation to the university.

In America we are now making earnest efforts to put our graduate instruction upon a more scientific basis than it has had heretofore. Can we not learn from the German experience?

Respectfully, KUNO FRANCKE.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY, February 5, 1890.

Notes.

IN our recent review of McCarthy's 'Lily Lass,' we said that the English of this novel was "not always improved by American proof-reading." Messrs. Appleton inform us that they used for their edition stereotype plates made in England. We regret the faulty but not unnatural inference from the American imprint. It was not, we may add, in our thought to cast a slur on American proof-reading, or to compare it at all with British.

Charles Scribner's Sons announce that they have acquired from Mr. Henry M. Stanley all the American rights for his personal narrative of the expedition for the relief of Emin Pasha. Prior to the appearance of the complete work, *Scribner's Magazine* will publish an article upon his last journey by Mr. Stanley. It will be illustrated.

Longmans, Green & Co. publish immediately, in their series of "Historic Towns," 'Winchester,' by G. W. Kitchin, the Dean of Winchester; and 'The Skipper in the Arctic Seas,' by Walter J. Clutterbuck.

Vol. vii. of the "Bankside Shakspere," "Titus Andronicus," is about to be distributed to subscribers. The introduction is by Mr. A. A. Adee. The "Hamlet" introduction will be from the pen of Mr. E. P. Vining.

Ginn & Co. will publish in April 'The Best Elizabethan Plays,' exclusive of Shakspere, edited by William R. Thayer.

In acknowledging the issue of 'The Year's Art,' for the current year (London: J. S. Virtue & Co.), it cannot come amiss to restate the nature of this standard work edited by Mr. Marcus B. Huish. The sub-title correctly reads: "A concise epitome of all matters relating to the arts of Painting, Sculpture, and Architecture which have occurred during the year 1889, together with information respecting the events of the year 1890, with full-page illustrations." In addition to the regular and indispensable features, such as the accounts of exhibitions and the directory of artists, we have this year more photo-engraved memoranda of the principal pictures and statuary, and a fresh batch of portraits, viz., of artists of the Royal Society of Painters in Water-Colors. Mr. Huish has also been at pains to procure a list of artist birthdays, arranged by months, with an alphabetic key. In short, 'The Year's Art' is better than ever, and nothing further need be said.

Macmillan & Co. have become the American publishers of the sixth edition of the Royal Geographical Society's 'Hints to Travellers,' of which we spoke in praise a few weeks ago.

Mr. P. H. Emerson's 'English Idyls' we likewise commended, but still more recently; and the dainty "pictures of East Anglian life" have now passed to a second, revised edition (London: Sampson Low & Co.).

We have received from Mr. John Osborne Austin, Providence, R. I., a leaf of Additions and Corrections for insertion in his admirable 'Genealogical Dictionary of Rhode Island.' Nearly the whole alphabet is involved, and many of the leading families, as, Almy, Chad Brown, Bull, Jeremiah Clarke, Durfee, Greene, Obadiah Holmes, Roger Williams (thanks to Mr. H. F. Waters's late discoveries), etc.

The Railroad, Telegraph, and Steamship Builders' Directory, issued annually by the Railway Directory Company of this city, comes to us with its second number. It occupies a field of its own, and has an obvious value for its special patrons. The print is very good.

For another class—yet not wholly distinct—has been devised the 'Route and Reference Book of the United States and Canada,' for the use of commercial travellers, merchants, and others (New York: Gibb Bros. & Moran). It is a sort of handy gazetteer, with maps and the needful local statistics as to trade. Not only is the distance between stations indicated on the maps, but the fare to the chief places. The editor justly observes that many of the features of this publication will serve the tourist for pleasure as well as the traveller for business. The design seems very well carried out.

'The Land and the Community' is the title of a small book by the Rev. S. W. Thackeray, M.A., LL.D. (D. Appleton & Co.). The basis of the author's argument consists of two assumptions—one, that the squalid civilization of the early clan was "politically perfect"; the other, that political economy "has declared that private property in land is fundamentally wrong and unjust in principle." There is nothing that deserves notice in the book; but the introduction, which is furnished by Henry George, contains a delightful passage wherein it is graciously intimated that he may be persuaded to exempt the estates of the Church and the institutions of learning from confiscation—provided the clergy and the professors will embrace his theories. The Koran or the sword!

A recent number in the "Questions of the Day" series, published by the Putnams, is entitled 'Monopolies and the People.' The author, Mr. Charles Whiting Baker, points out the various kinds of monopoly, which are extremely numerous under his definition, and shows that, under the modern conditions of competition, such monopolies are unavoidable. Their evils, in his view, might be checked by combining governmental regulation with private management, and a "practical plan" of control is submitted. One of the obstacles which such a plan would encounter would be, in our judgment, the Constitution of the United States; others would be found in the constitution of human nature. But as the application of the remedy is to be postponed until "all good men and true . . . join hands to put only men of wisdom and honor in places of public trust," there will be ample time to smooth the road. While the author exaggerates the evil results of so-called monopolies, his tone is far more moderate than that of most of the writers who have favored the public with their speculations upon these subjects. As he proposes no general confiscation, he cannot expect to obtain much popularity.

The publishers of *Babyhood* have begun to give fresh currency to much good matter hid away in the bound volumes of that excellent periodical. Hence a pretty little series of Nursery Health Tracts, on scarlet fever, diet for young children, diptheria, and sound teeth. The mother can make these into a "card catalogue" for ready reference.

The 'Complete Index to Littell's Living Age' (Philadelphia: Edward Roth) advances another stage in the department of History (France—United States).

The Essex Institute Historical Collections for July–September, 1888, is mainly occupied with the part taken by Essex County, Mass., in the organization and settlement of the Northwest Territory—and no mean part, as all the world knows. Seven of the nine names most conspicuously associated with the passage of the Northwest Ordinance "belong distinctively" to that little bit of territory. The editing consists of extracts from well-known and authoritative sources, without comment, but not without notes.

Strange as it may seem, statistics show that there are 133 villages in Massachusetts quite without town libraries. On Wednesday, January 29, a meeting of ladies and gentlemen was held in Boston, at the house of Mrs. Phillips, to confer as to the best methods of improving this surprising state of things. Gen. Francis A. Walker presided, and letters expressing cordial sympathy in the work were read from James Russell Lowell and George W. Cable. Interesting remarks were made by many persons, in several cases relating to their own experience of starting libraries in small places. It was unanimously agreed that the effort should be made as far as possible from within, by the people themselves, and that extraneous aid should not be too obvious. Among the speakers were Judge Chamberlain, Prof. Palmer, and Mr. Green of Worcester. A committee was appointed which will report later upon the work laid out.

The *Library Journal* for January announces the withdrawal of Mr. R. R. Bowker from the co-editorship with Mr. C. A. Cutter, his place being taken by Mr. Paul Leicester Ford. It begins, with an account of the library of the United States Geological Survey, a series of papers relating to special collections; and reference is made to a scheme for the extension of the card catalogue so as to indicate such collections, or important books, not accessible in any given library. The editor has hopes that in 1900 a great Catalogue of American Books of the Nineteenth Century can be undertaken, "providing the final basis for American trade bibliography." Mr. W. I. Fletcher's 'Index to General Literature' (*i. e.*, books of essays, travels, biography, etc.) is well advanced for publication in or soon after 1891.

A plate by Cruikshank, in the *Studio* for February 1, surpasses the other illustrations in interest in three particulars: it has never before been published, it was an essay of a title-page for the 'Sketches by Boz,' and it is a sample of the "process work" of 1836, the invention of Charles Louis Schönberg. The account of this autographic lithographic "etching in relief" (if the phrase is tolerable) is by Mr. James Schönberg, presumably a descendant of the inventor.

The Boston *Transatlantic*, with its customary enterprise, furnishes its readers, in its issue of February 1, with a portrait of François Coppée and a translation of his drama "Le Pater," interdicted by the censorship. Ibsen's "Rosmersholm" is continued.

M. Octave Uzanne's *Le Livre Moderne* is a typographical success. The specimen number before us expressly omits the *gravures hors texte sur papier d'épreuves*, and of these we cannot speak. "Hodiernus non hesternus" is the motto; but yesterday claims its rights in a reminiscential sketch of the late Champfleury, with three capital caricatures. ("We must begin to save our pennies," said a bibliophile on hearing of the death of this collector, whose precious things must ere long come under the hammer). Backward-looking might also be thought the head-piece to page 1 of a January magazine, showing a Bacchanalian performance *libertate decembri*. There are some informal book notices, some reports of sales, and a variety of matter intentionaliy unsubstantial.

A somewhat despondent view of the tendency to conflict among our manifold jurisdictions is taken by Mr. Wm. M. Meigs in Nos. 24 and 25 of vol. 29 of the *Central Law Journal*. Many years ago the Supreme Court of the United States took the position that in cases involving "general principles of jurisprudence" they would not hold themselves bound to follow the law of the State in which the case arose. The lower Federal courts have naturally followed this precedent, and Mr. Meigs cites cases showing that some State courts have taken similar action, and refused to apply the *lex loci contractus*. The disastrous results of such a practice, should it become generally adopted, are obvious; but it scarcely seems to us that the tendency is marked enough to cause present alarm. It is perhaps well, however, that attention should be directed to it. Mr. Meigs states the rule of Federal decisions in citizenship cases to be that Federal courts will apply the law of the proper State, except: (1) where "general principles" are controlling; (2) where the meaning of a written instrument is involved and the State court has not settled it; (3) where recent State decisions overrule prior ones in force when the contract was made; and (4) where there is no State ruling to follow.

'Troldtöj' (Troll Stories), now in course of publication by Ernst Bojesen of Copenhagen, is without doubt the most artistic Scandinavian book of the season. The first number appeared in December, and the whole will form ten monthly parts. The text, which consists of both prose and verse, is by Holger Drachmann, the subjects being taken from the popular superstitions of the present day. A special feature of the first two numbers is the illustrations, which will consist of woodcuts and full-page photogravures by well-known Danish artists. The price for the whole work will be between sixteen and eighteen kroner (say five dollars), and subscriptions may be sent to any Danish publisher.

The results of the double expedition sent by the Royal Astronomical Society of London to observe the total solar eclipse of December 22 have been disastrous in both cases. Clouds prevented Mr. Taylor in West Africa from taking even a single photograph; while the fears of Father Perry's friends, caused by the delay in receiving his report, are but too sadly confirmed in the melancholy news of his death, from dysentery, December 27. The weather at the Salut Isles, off French Guiana, where he was stationed, was but moderately good. Successful exposures were made with the Abney four-inch lens, but the development was not carried out. Successful photographs were also obtained with the twenty-inch mirror, but these, again, were not developed. Father Perry has been a member of more astronomical expeditions than any man now living, and he was always a cheerful sufferer in the cause of science. Of the climate encountered by the other English expedition, Mr. Taylor seems not at all enamoured, writing of the stifling heat—98° in his cabin at night off Bonny, at one of the mouths of the Niger. He had a pleasant interview with Commander Pullen, who was determining the latitude and longitude of Bonny, although he had suffered from the coast fever severely. His sad death occurred before Mr. Taylor left. At the mouth of the Congo the country was found to be open, hilly, and pleasant. Mr. Taylor himself had an attack of the fever, of which he speaks as "simply awful." Temperature in the sun at Loanda was 135°, 90° in the shade. The English and American parties were established nearer one another than was at first contemplated. The health of our expedition on the *Pensacola* seems to have been uniformly good and without a touch of the fever.

Several interesting papers were read at the

meeting of the Royal Meteorological Society on December 18. The most technical in character were by Mr. W. H. Dines (1) "Report of the Wind-Force Committee on the Factor of the Kew pattern Robinson Anemometer," and (2) "On testing Anemometers." Others were by Mr. G. J. Symons, F.R.S., "On the Rainfall of the Riviera," and a "Report on the Phenological Observations for 1889," by Mr. E. Mawley. The last was a discussion of observations on the flowering of plants, the appearance of insects, the nesting and song of birds, and other attractive subjects of study.

The American Economic Association sets a singular example of mingling business and *réclame* in announcing the award of a prize offered by Mrs. Amélie Rives Chanler, with the proceeds, we are told, of "some exquisite sonnets which were published in *Harper's Monthly* for 1888, and which were by some pronounced superior to Mrs. Browning's 'Cry of the Children.'"

A fund is being raised to procure for the University Library at Cambridge, England, a bust of the late William Wright, Professor of Arabic, an approved model having been already made by J. Hutchinson. Half a guinea is the subscription, and this sum can be addressed by Americans to Prof. R. Gottheil, Columbia College, N. Y.

The late Dr. Döllinger has bequeathed his large and valuable library to the University of Munich, with the stipulation that it shall be sold and the proceeds devoted to stipends for poor students of all departments. Among his posthumous papers is an interesting correspondence with several dignitaries of the Catholic Church, touching the promulgation of the dogma of the papal infallibility and other doctrinal and ecclesiastical questions. The correspondence will be published at an early date.

"E. P. E." writes to us from Munich as follows: "The interesting letter by 'E. E.' on 'The Kulturkampf in Bavaria,' published in the *Nation* for December 5, 1889, contains an error which, even after the lapse of so many weeks, it may be well to correct. Baron von Lutz is not a Protestant, but a Catholic, although a very liberal one. It would surely be an anomaly if the Minister of Worship in such a stronghold of Catholicism as Bavaria should be a Protestant. Indeed, no Protestant, however great his ability might be, could ever attain such a position in the Bavarian Government."

Apropos of our notice last week of the life of Dr. Grisanowski, a genial Königsberger of ripe years sends us this amusing anecdote:

"'Grisanowski, Du musst belohnt werden!' Your *Nation* of to-day brought to my mind the old Königsberg proverb. More than seventy years ago every boy knew it and used it frequently. The grandfather, I think, was the hero of the story. It was then customary to get together at lunch time and be rather merry for an hour or so, of course over a glass of wine. Now, Grisanowski had decided to drop the habit. Accordingly, the next day he passed the wonted door and proceeded on his way. Suddenly he stopped short, and said: 'Grisanowski, Du musst belohnt werden.' Then he turned back, entered the door, and took his daily glass!"

— The Bahrein Islands, in the Persian Gulf, are the subject of an unusually interesting paper by Mr. J. Theodore Bent in the January Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society. These islands, which in the last four centuries have been successively in the possession of the Portuguese, the Persians, and Arabians, are now ruled by an Arab sheikh, under the protection of Great Britain. They have lost most of their ancient commercial importance, but are still noted for their pearl fisheries, which produce the best pearls in the world; for their excellent breed of horses and donkeys and their fine dates. One of the two principal towns, Moharek, gets its water supply from a spring which at high tide is about six feet below the surface of the sea, when water is brought up either by divers who go down with skins, or by pushing a hollow bamboo down into it. There are several similar springs on the coast, and the Arabs say they come from the Euphrates, which they believe flows in an underground channel beneath the Persian Gulf—a legend as old, at least, as Pliny's time. In the northwestern part of the principal island, which is about twenty-seven miles long by ten miles broad, are a great number of sepulchral mounds, covering an area of many miles and varying from over forty feet in height to mere circular heaps of stones. One examined by Mr. Bent consisted of two chambers, one above the other. No inscriptions or objects of glass were found among the bones, drapery, ornaments, and other objects. Their great antiquity is inferrible, and from this Mr. Bent regards the tombs as of Phœnician origin, and believes Bahrein to be "the land of Punt from which the Puni got their name" and from whence they migrated to the Mediterranean. In the discussion which followed the reading of the paper before the Society, Mr. Cecil H. Smith of the British Museum said that, "as far as the evidence went at present, he thought the Museum authorities were prepared to admit that the Bahrein Islands probably represented a primitive site of the Phœnician race." He also added that these excavations would reopen the controversy which had raged among Egyptologists as to the identification of the land of Punt.

—The *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* for December 15 is a number especially worthy of notice from an article upon Giordano Bruno which it contains. The writer is M. Georges Lafaye, and we do not remember to have seen among the very great number of reviews of Bruno's life and work that have appeared since the dedication of his statue in Rome last summer any one that seemed fairer or more trustworthy than this appears to be, and none that is so interesting. One misses in it the striking comparison of Bruno with Shelley that we had in the *Westminster Review*, but there is in its place a very instructive paragraph upon the influence of Rabelais upon Bruno. M. Lafaye is not at all concerned to hide the less attractive characteristics of his philosopher, his uneasy restlessness, his boastfulness, his readiness to upset everything. But these shadows only heighten the light that he throws upon what was in many much more important regards a very high and noble character. Bruno seems to have been looked upon with much less favor by those scholars of his time who more or less shared his opinions than by the universities, the corner-stone of whose teaching he was eager to tear out. Except at Geneva, he was generally received not only with hospitality, but also with what seems a very considerable degree of open-mindedness, when one remembers that at that time the infallibility of Aristotle was much more thoroughly believed in than the infallibility of the Pope. Besides M. Lafaye's article, the *Revue* contains the conclusion of a paper on "Pedagogic Preparation in Germany," by Prof. Voss of Christiania; an article by M. G. Monod on the "Study of History in France," which is of bibliographical value, but rather heavy reading; and the usual *Chronique*, which contains the full text of article 23 of the French military law of which we lately spoke.

—The late distinguished Spanish actor Rafael Calvo is made the subject of a biographical sketch and the occasion of some remarks on the modern Spanish theatre in the last of the 'Literary Pamphlets' of "Clarin" (Leopoldo Alas). Born at Seville March 19, 1842, Calvo came of good actor stock and early went upon the stage, not from choice, but to earn a living. His first success was won under the spur of mortified pride: he overheard his manager telling his father that he would never do as an actor. That night he threw such passion into his acting that he carried off all the glory of the company, though his part was a minor one. After that he appeared as *galán jóven* in all the principal theatres of Spain, everywhere applauded and admired, and at twenty-four was offered the position of leading actor in a good provincial company. It was not long before he was at Madrid, sustaining the principal rôles in the most famous plays of Calderon, Lope, Tirso, Alarcón, Rojas, and Moreto. He often presented modern plays, and was an intimate friend of Echegaray's; but his preference and his peculiar aptitudes led him chiefly to the classic drama, of which he was acknowledged to be the best interpreter of his day. The lyric outbursts of Calderon and Tirso came to new life on his lips, and the heroic figures of the ancient theatre successfully competed, in him, with the milliner's men of the French imitations. In 1883 he undertook a tour through South America, which brought him new glory and welcome cash. He died of smallpox, September 3, 1888, at Cadiz. Long a friendly rival of Antonio Vico, his death leaves the latter at the head of Spanish actors.

— On January 28 a very important event took place at the British Museum. There was a private view, in the late afternoon, of the galleries lighted for the first time by electricity. For the past five or six years the electric light has been used in the reading-room, which has been kept open until eight or nine o'clock. But no attempt has been made to light the rest of the Museum, which has therefore been closed at dusk and on foggy days to all save readers. That which makes this new departure of special interest is not the mere introduction of the electric light, but the reason for it. At last arrangements have been made to open this very popular national museum in the evening, the only time when a large class of people can visit it. The private view really seems to mark the first step—the entering of the thin end of the wedge—in a complete revolution in this respect; and this revolution will do far more to bring about the much-talked-of elevation of the masses than all the Toynbee Halls and People's Palaces that could be set up in the east and south of London. For the latter naturally can never, in their educational value, expect to compete with nationally supported institutions, which, moreover, workmen and artisans can feel are theirs by right, and not merely by benevolence. South Kensington is already open two or three evenings in the week, but South Kensington is rather out of the way. It is true, the British Museum is convenient only for a very limited section of Londoners; but then it is hoped that the present innovation is only the initial stage towards Sunday opening of all galleries and museums. Of course, the attendance on the 28th was no test of the success of the experiment, since on such occasions the "masses" are always rigorously excluded. The large crowd collected to see how admirably the Museum treasures could be studied by the electric light was made up of the literary, artistic, and political celeb-

rities who always attend private views. But the very different crowd which fills the Museum on bank holidays, helps one to form some idea of the numbers who would always have visited it oftener had they had the chance now to be given them. It is worth recording that this evening opening of the British Museum was carried through Parliament by Mr. Bernard Molloy, one of the Irish members who are supposed to know no policy save that of obstruction, to care for no part of the United Kingdom save Ireland, and to strive to benefit no one but themselves.

—Oxford loses a man of much promise in the death of Canon Aubrey L. Moore. He has been tutor of several colleges and lecturer in ecclesiastical history as deputy for Prof. Bright. During the last year, we believe, he was appointed Dean of Divinity at Magdalen and honorary Canon of Christ Church. Outside the University he was best known through his volume of reprinted essays and reviews, 'Science and the Faith,' which was published about a year ago, and by an essay in the recent book, 'Lux Mundi.' Canon Moore belonged to what we suppose is the latest "school" in the English Church, the liberal Catholics, as perhaps they may be called. This school retains its faith in the doctrine of the Incarnation, while it accepts unhesitatingly and fully the results of late Biblical criticism and the teachings of modern science. Canon Moore died at Oxford on the 17th of January, a victim of the Russian influenza, or grip. He was about forty-one years of age.

—A triple number of the Johns Hopkins University historical publications is devoted to "Federal Government in Canada," by Dr. John G. Bourinot, the author of several works upon Canadian institutions. As we understand it, Johns Hopkins University has had nothing to do with the work except to publish it; the matter consisting of four lectures delivered at Trinity University, Toronto. Students of governmental institutions will find here a very lucid and instructive treatment of the Constitution of the Dominion of Canada, which, as a federal constitution, differs principally from our own in that powers not specifically reserved to the provinces are exercised by the general Government. The book will be found a useful complement to Prof. Bryce's 'American Commonwealth,' and will take permanent rank as a constitutional manual. The style is noticeable for its smoothness. Those who are sceptical as to "what's in a name" may peruse with profit the following anecdote, which we quote without comment:

> "We have it on the best authority that in 1866 67 the question arose, during a conference between the Canadian delegates and the Imperial authorities, what name should be given to the confederation of the provinces, and it was first proposed that it should be called 'The Kingdom of Canada'; but it is said that the Earl of Carnarvon, then Secretary of State for the Colonies, thought such a designation inadvisable, chiefly on the ground that it would be probably objectionable to the Government of the United States, which had so recently expressed its disapprobation of the attempt of the Emperor Napoleon to establish an imperial European dynasty in Mexico. . . . The Canadian delegates made due allowance for the delicacy of the sentiments of the Minister, and agreed, as a compromise, to the less ambitious title, 'Dominion of Canada' —a designation recalling that 'Old Dominion' named by Raleigh in honor of the Virgin Queen."

—Recent methods and progress in the study of palæography are illustrated in the brochure by T. W. Allen, entitled 'Notes on Abbreviations in Greek Manuscripts' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan). It contains forty pages of explanatory matter and eleven pages of facsimiles, beautifully executed by photolithography. The examples are partly the result of a tour of research in France and Italy, but are mostly selected from manuscripts in the Bodleian and the British Museum. They supplement, and, to a certain extent, correct, the works of Gardthausen and Lehmann, being based on actual study of the originals, and not upon facsimiles, from which, as Graux and Vitelli have pointed out, it is impossible to arrive at trustworthy general conclusions. Highly interesting and curious is the series of forms presented for ἄρα, γάρ, εἶναι, and ἔσται, arranged to show their chronological development. Some new and valuable types are given of παρά and κατά, not found in Lehmann or Vitelli, and full examples of syllables beginning with τ. Explanations are offered of the genesis of the symbols for εἰς, οὖν, ὑπέρ, and ὑπό. A useful summary is added of the tachygraphic usage of the Grotta Ferrata school. San Nilo, the founder of this monastery, between Frascati and San Marino, on the lower slopes of the Alban Hills, established at the close of the tenth century a style of writing which persisted till the twelfth century, and the characteristics of which may be traced in some now widely scattered manuscripts. Some notes of special study of the Biblioteca Angelica at Rome are promised by Mr. Allen in the *Classical Review*. We learn, also, that he has just been appointed by the Delegates of the Clarendon Press to examine and report on the Greek MSS. in the various libraries of Europe.

ALBERT DÜRER.

Literary Remains of Albrecht Dürer. By William Martin Conway, sometime Roscoe Professor of Art in University College, Liverpool, Victoria University. With Transcripts from the British Museum Manuscripts, and Notes upon them, by Lina Eckenstein. Cambridge: At the University Press. 1889.

This book was well worth writing. Dürer is, unquestionably, one of the dozen great artists of modern times, yet of all the great artists that ever lived he is perhaps the least specifically artistic in temper. A man who became, not merely a painter, but one of the greatest of painters, yet of whom it may be said that the painter in him was the smallest part of him, is certainly worthy of careful study as a curiosity of human nature, if for nothing else. His artistic productions have been studied again and again, and are likely to be studied while the world lasts. This book is a most thorough and conscientious study of his writings. Every scrap of them that has been preserved to us seems to have been deciphered—letters and journals and notes written upon the margins of drawings, as well as his professed treatises upon art and engineering—and the whole collated and compared with scrupulous care in the effort to throw some new light upon his nature, his ideas, and his methods of work. The result is almost altogether admirable. Barring a certain singularity of style, especially in the opening chapters, we have no fault to find with it. The bulk of the book is made up of direct translation of Dürer himself, and what little archaism is here to be found gives only a pleasant old-time flavor to the language quite in harmony with the matter. Chapters iii. to ix. inclusive are almost entirely composed of Dürer's letters and journals, which are, apparently, given in full; the four later chapters deal with his published works, of which, of course, only extracts are given, and with his preparatory notes and studies for them.

Too great praise cannot be given to the industry with which this mass of material has been studied, or to the intelligence with which it is set forth. Painstaking reference is made in all cases to the whereabouts of the original manuscript, and abundant provision made for those who desire to consult it, and the translation is in many cases supplemented by a transcription of the original. Some idea of the kind and amount of labor involved may be formed from a note on the British Museum manuscripts on p. 168, part of which we quote:

> "The leaves and bits of paper, it must be understood, are not arranged at all, either according to date, subject, or even size. The leaves which contain a single consecutive draft of one of Dürer's most interesting passages, and which should, of course, follow one another, are scattered through two volumes (iv. 68, 77, 76, and iii. 15). . . . Two other leaves, with sections of wide and narrow-angled church roofs, drawn doubtless originally on a single sheet of paper, side by side for comparison, are sundered by no fewer than a hundred leaves (iv. 147 and 45)."

This note may also serve as an instance of the scrupulous accuracy of reference which characterizes the volume. The result of it all is an aid to the study of Dürer, for the general public, second only to the engraved plates of the artist himself. And here we take leave of Mr. Conway, and devote the rest of our review to the singular genius he celebrates.

Albrecht Dürer was born on the 21st of May, 1471, and died on the 6th of April, 1528. His life therefore covered the flowering time of the Italian Renaissance, and he outlived Raphael eight years. Titian and Giorgione he may have known. On the other hand, we know that he met Quentin Matsys (who was about eleven years his senior) at Antwerp. With Holbein he represents about all there is of the Renaissance in Germany, but Holbein was his junior by twenty-four years. The mere names and dates show how slowly the Renaissance crept northward, but Dürer's work shows it better still. M. Édouard Fétis, in his Catalogue of the Royal Museum at Brussels, fixes the line of demarcation between the primitive schools and the modern more than a hundred years later in the north than in Italy, and places Holbein himself among the primitives. Whether or not he belongs in this category, Dürer certainly does, yet, in many ways, Dürer was the Renaissance incarnate.

His writings, as here arranged, show him to us successively from several points of view. First, we have the man Dürer, the burgher of Nürnberg, steady, hard-working, honest, careful of his pfennigs, sharp at a bargain, rather fretful and discontented in disposition, and a trifle vain, knowing his merit and not averse to speaking of it, a pious son, but a not particularly loving husband. His letters to Jacob Heller about the famous altar-piece he painted for him are almost comic in their insistent effort to screw an extra hundred florins from his unwilling patron. He returns to the charge again and again, tells him that he has used "none but the best colors he could get," and has "painted upon it more than twenty-four florins' worth of them." In another letter it becomes "twenty-five florins' worth of ultramarine" alone. He will never undertake such a job again for double the money, and even at the extra price he will be out of pocket by the bargain. Finally (and this is often repeated), he is already offered more for the picture than he asks, which, he goes on, "would have done very nicely for me had I not preferred to please and serve you by sending you the picture. For I value the keeping of your friendship at more than 100 florins. *I would also rather have this painting at Frankfurt than anywhere*

else in all Germany." That that was the real point with him, is shown by his saying in another letter, "It will be seen by many artists who perhaps will let you know whether it is masterly or bad." One is glad to know that he got his money.

His father and mother he speaks of always with reverence and love, but he scarce ever mentions his wife, except to record occasionally, "I dined once with my wife," in that strange journal of his famous journey to Antwerp, in which he mingles accounts of the honors showered upon him with items of "4 pf. for bread," and near the end of which he makes the characteristic statement: "In all my doings, spendings, sales, and other dealings, in all my connections with high and low, I have suffered loss in the Netherlands."

Next we have Dürer as the religious reformer, and here there are some curious contrasts to be observed. We suspect, however, that Mr. Conway makes more of them than necessary. If Dürer, while still going to confession and praying to the "Mother of God," puts Popes and Cardinals among the damned in his illustrations of the Apocalypse, he does no more than did many mediæval artists whose Catholicism has never been questioned. His placing there also the Emperor and Empress shows what he meant—that the wicked, however high placed in this world, will have due punishment meted out to them in the world to come. Mediæval art and literature are full of ridicule of the vices and abuses of the clergy long before the *doctrines* of Romanism were questioned. Later, indeed, Dürer seems to have fallen much under the influence of Luther, and to have been deeply stirred by religious thought. There are passages in his writings which may fairly be called mystical, and others that seem to come from a religious zealot. Such is his famous apostrophe to Erasmus: "Oh, Erasmus of Rotterdam, where wilt thou stop? Behold how the wicked tyranny of worldly power, the might of darkness, prevails. Hear, thou knight of Christ! Ride on by the side of the Lord Jesus. Guard the truth. Attain the martyr's crown." Yet he was no gloomy fanatic, but, like Luther himself, loved *Wein, Weib, und Gesang.* His accounts contain frequent mention of money lost at play, and he freely jests with his friends about their mistresses. In fact, in his relations to religion, as in many other things, Dürer fully and fairly represented the Germany of his day, somewhat gross and materialistic in its pleasures, yet capable of serious thought and of deep emotion; clinging to the beliefs and outward forms of its old religion, yet determined to reform abuses and to rebel against Papal despotism. He was no longer a Roman Catholic, but he was hardly a Protestant.

If in his daily life and in his religion Dürer was the representative of the Germany of his day, in his wide curiosity, his thirst for new knowledge, the range of his learning and experiment, he was the representative of the Renaissance itself. Nothing in the way of information came amiss to his inquiring mind. He took a trip to Zeeland, apparently to see a stranded whale. He has left a careful drawing of a walrus. He scrupulously recorded all prodigies that came in his way or that he could hear of through friends. He was deeply interested in geometry, architecture, and music, was an inventor in fortification, thought much upon perspective without mastering its principles, and wrote treatises upon the measurement of the human figure. It is recorded that "Melanchthon used to say of him that, though he excelled in the art of painting, it was the least of his accomplishments," and, referring to a dispute between Dürer and Pirkheimer, he confessed, with a certain naïveté, "his astonishment at the ingenuity and power manifested by a painter in arguing with a man of Pirkheimer's renown."

The comparison with Leonardo da Vinci, that great contemporary of Dürer's who, more than any other man, represented the many-sidedness of the Renaissance, is here forced upon one. Of Leonardo, also, it might have been said by a contemporary, that painting "was the least of his accomplishments," though no contemporary was likely to express surprise at his "ingenuity and power" in argument. Leonardo also was musician, architect, engineer, and author. His celebrated letter to Sforza, in which painting is placed last among the things he could do "as well as any man," is well known. Leonardo also theorized upon the proper proportions of the human figure, and one of his drawings of a nude man drawn within a circle and a square seems to have been identical in idea with a couple of Dürer's. In this instance both drew their idea from Vitruvius. The resemblances between the two men were thus manifold, and it is interesting to know that the German may have come, indirectly, under the influence of the great Italian during his stay in Italy. Between them, however, there is a difference so wide that it alone is greater than the many resemblances. Leonardo was an Italian, with the Italian love for beauty, while Dürer was a German with the German reverence for fact!

Durer's theory on the measurement of the human body was peculiar and merits some attention. It was, briefly, that as every individual varies from the typical man in a way peculiar to himself, these peculiar variations will, in an infinite series of measurements, counteract and nullify each other, and the *type* will be disengaged. His ideal man was a sort of composite photograph of all existing men—the "average man" in the literal sense. It was not man "as he ought to be," as Raphael said he painted him, but man as he *is*, individual peculiarities excepted. The result of the theory is curiously shown in his measured drawings of the foot, in which elaborate diagrams are given for ascertaining the exact inward inclination of the great toe caused by the modern shoe! He was himself aware that his own observations were insufficient in number, and proposed his canon only as an approximation to the final one. In a draught for the introduction of that comprehensive work (never written) in which he intended to "Set down all that I have learned in practice, which is likely to be of use in painting," he says: "I do not highly extol the proportions I here set down, albeit I do not believe them to be the worst. Moreover, I do not lay them down as beyond improvement, but that thou mayest search out and discover some better method by their help."

But this temper of experiment did not last. He had an almost superstitious reverence for numbers and measurements as in themselves holy and beautiful, and he had the theorizing mind which must reduce everything to some system, however arbitrary. The sketched plan for his great work is like an old sermon with its divisions and subdivisions. It was to be in three divisions; each division was to be in three parts, and each of these was to be again divided into six smaller parts. The scheme was evidently made out with little regard to the contents and for the sake of its own symmetry, and it would have strained his ingenuity to fill out the frame he had made for himself. As an instance take Division III., Part B: "The second part shows how such a wonderful artist should charge highly for his art, and that no money is too much for it, seeing that it is divine and true; in six ways"! This theorizing and systematizing spirit lays hold upon his measurements, and we soon find ourselves in a nightmarish maze of geometrical rules for modifying all the proportions in the same degree by "Words of Difference," so as to produce thin or thick, short or long figures; of men "ten heads high," and similar monstrosities. Finally, in a letter to Pirkheimer about the preface to the 'Four Books of Human Proportions' which the latter had agreed to write, he is reduced to say: "I neither will nor can give any better reason for all the proportions set down in the whole book and in the sequel—why I make them so and not otherwise—save that in fact I do so make them."

Leonardo's strong sense of beauty saved him from the disastrous effects of such vagaries. Dürer's sense of beauty was slight, and when he was not dominated by his model he fell into woful error. Of one of his Madonna figures, Mr. Conway remarks: "It is not human. It is a painted theory; a colored proposition." But let Dürer the theorizer speculate as he might, Dürer the painter was a realist with a tenacious grip on facts. When constructing an "ideal" Virgin, he failed. Let us be thankful that, for the most part, his imitative instinct got the better of his idealizing mind, and that his life was spent in drawing the portraits of the very real men and women of his time.

We have said "Dürer the painter," but a painter, in the stricter sense, he never was. To paint is to represent upon a flat surface the visual aspects of things: Dürer's idea of painting was the delineation upon such a surface of all the ascertainable facts about things. A picture was a sort of geometrical projection of nature. To him effect was unknown, and mystery would have seemed falsification, light and shade was only a means of securing roundness, and color was only known as local color—an added fact about the object painted. This man, who was working in Venice while Giorgione was painting the Fondaco de' Tedeschi, was as a painter more primitive than Jan Van Eyck, and two-thirds of the art of painting was undreamed of by him. By early training he was a goldsmith, by choice an engraver, and the qualities on which he prided himself were exceeding minuteness in detail and an engraver-like sureness of hand. He is explicit about finish. "These things," he says, "should be wrought in the work to the clearest and carefullest finish, and even the tiniest wrinkles and details should not be omitted in so far as it is possible." He adds, to be sure, "though it is useless to overdo and overload a thing"; but it is said that it was impossible for him to finish a picture to his own satisfaction. With regard to his sureness of hand, there is an anecdote in Camararius's preface to his Latin translation of the 'Books of Human Proportions,' which is worth quoting entire for the light it throws upon Dürer and his methods:

"I cannot forbear to tell, in this place, the story of what happened between him and Giovanni Bellini. Bellini had the highest reputation as a painter at Venice, and, indeed, throughout all Italy. When Albrecht was there, he easily became intimate with him, and both artists naturally began to show one another specimens of their skill. Albrecht frankly admired and made much of all Bellini's works. Bellini also candidly expressed his admiration of various features of Albrecht's skill, and particularly the fineness and delicacy with which he drew hairs. It chanced one day that they were talking about art, and when their conversation was done, Bellini said: 'Will you be so kind, Albrecht, as to gratify a friend in a small matter?' 'You shall soon see,' says Al-

brecht, 'if you will ask of me anything I can do for you.' Then says Bellini: 'I want you to make me a present of one of the brushes with which you draw hairs.' Dürer at once produced several, just like other brushes, and, in fact, of the kind Bellini himself used, and told him to choose those he liked best, or to take them all if he would. But Bellini, thinking he was misunderstood, said: 'No, I don't mean these, but the ones with which you draw several hairs with one stroke; they must be rather spread out and more divided, otherwise in a long sweep such regularity of curvature and distance could not be preserved.' 'I use no other than these,' says Albrecht, 'and to prove it, you may watch me.' Then, taking up one of the same brushes, he drew some very long wavy tresses, such as women generally wear, in the most regular order and symmetry. Bellini looked on wondering, and afterwards confessed to many that no human being could have convinced him by report of the truth of that which he had seen with his own eyes."

Dürer was by nature and by training an engraver, and it was by engraving that he expressed himself most freely and fully, and it is on his engraved work that his reputation does and must mainly rest. But even in his chosen art the art itself was secondary to him. Art is good because it "is employed in the service of the Church," because it "preserveth the likeness of men after their death," because, "by aid of delineations, the measurements of the earth, the waters, and the stars are better to be understood; and many things likewise become known unto men by them." Art is with him an aid to devotion, a vehicle of thought, or a record of fact; but art for art's sake found no favor in his eyes. Pure beauty of line moved him little more than beauty of light and shade or color, but accuracy and expressiveness were everything to him. The accessories in his plates might serve to-day as working drawings for a cabinet-maker, so carefully is the construction made out, and in his landscapes every tree in twenty miles of country is plainly drawn. And as art was to him a vehicle of thought or a record of fact, so he could never pack enough thought or enough fact into a plate. Breadth, simplicity, concentration, the eliminating of many small facts to present some great fact more clearly—the suppression of all secondary ideas that the dominant idea may be more directly expressed—these things were quite foreign to his temper. Consider his two great plates, the "Melencolia" and the "Knight and Death," and remark how every corner, every quarter-inch of space, is crammed with meanings. He had so much to say, apparently, that he could not afford to waste any room. No quiet masses, as a relief to the eye, for him: no space is so small that some object may not be crowded into it which will add to the thought or at least to the realization of facts. And all these objects must be most clearly drawn and with the utmost minuteness. All the intricate detail of a tool or a mathematical instrument must be so marked that there can be no doubt about its use and structure. Nay, what is a pebbly bank but a collection of individual pebbles, each of which has its form as sacred as that of a mountain? An engraving, so treated, becomes a vast puzzle that one may pore over for hours, still finding something new to consider, and the drawing of a wrinkled old face is as intricate as the map of a continent.

All this is very far from the true artist's temper. It is rather the endless curiosity of the man of science or the deep pondering of the man of thought. What is it, then, that has placed among the immortals of art this man who was so little of an artist, so much of everything else? We believe it is his profound sympathy with the spirit of his age. With Dürer it is not so much his art which has preserved its contents as the contents which still interest us in his art. It is not so much Dürer's language that we care for (for that is very antiquated now), as it is his thought; and that thought interests because Dürer was, in his own person, his age and country embodied. His many-sided mind embraced every interest of his many-sided epoch, and he was, more than any of his contemporaries, the *representative man*. We have said that Dürer and Holbein were together almost all there was of the German Renaissance in art, but it might almost be said that Dürer *was* the German Renaissance. The art of Holbein is rather Dutch than German, and of many of the problems of his time he seems to have been serenely innocent. He was a wonderful portrait-painting animal, and went on painting superb portraits to the end, little worried by anything else; and, though the better painter, he was the smaller man. Dürer laid hold upon his age at all points, and therefore, for us, the Germany of the Renaissance and the Reformation, the Germany of Luther, Melanchthon, and Holbein is, above all, the Germany of Albrecht Dürer.

THE SCHOOLS OF EUROPE.

European Schools; or, What I Saw in the Schools of Germany, France, Austria, and Switzerland. By L. R. Klemm, Ph.D. [International Education Series. Vol. XII.] D. Appleton & Co. 1889.

WERE not the phrase too cheap, we should commend this volume as "a *very good* book." We may at least borrow the English form of eulogium, and say, "It is not half bad." "The book is written," as the author tells us in the preface, "for the purpose of offering a 'standard of measurement' for our own schools; a statement of what is done in the schools of Europe, and how it is done." This end is accomplished, not by tables of statistics and the exposition of school curricula, but by a multitude of concrete examples of methods and devices personally observed. The author visited some of the best schools in Europe, endeavored to see what was most excellent in those schools, and in clear and vigorous language reports what he saw without adding his own speculations. Or, rather, he takes us with him into the schoolroom, and we actually see for ourselves. Whether specially interested in common schools or not, we soon catch the enthusiasm of our guide; and, although he hurries from one thing to another with little order except that determined by geographical contiguity, and in spite of rhetorical commonplaces and the occasional use of newspaper Latin, criticism is disarmed, and this pedagogical excursion becomes thoroughly interesting and inspiring.

Naturally the larger part of the book is devoted to German schools. The author has no pedantic fear of criticising German methods, yet the "standard of measurement" here offered is unquestionably high. While in some things Germany is conservative, in most educational matters she is in advance of other nations. In the large cities not only are the schools admirably equipped and manned, but it is noteworthy that even the common schools "stand in close connection and intimate relation to the management of the Art Academy, the Art Museum, the Zoölogical and Botanical Garden, the Observatory, the libraries, the gymnastic societies, and even the theatre—in fact, with every institution which in some degree may be influential in assisting the work in school." Under the very shadow of Cologne Cathedral, in a city whose history antedates the Roman colony (Colonia Agrippina), from which it took its name, Dr. Klemm found liberal ideas and modern methods in the schoolroom. And even in country villages, where the children left their wooden shoes at the door of the school-house, he found professional teachers doing excellent work.

After showing the operation of the German schools, our author does not tarry for general comparisons and pedagogical moralizing, but leaves the reader to draw his own conclusions. What he wisely refrains from doing we have no intention of attempting; but it is worth while to note what appears again and again in this book and impresses one as the supreme excellence of German teaching, namely, the basing of methods of instruction and training upon psychological principles. In the first place, thorough work is done in the German schools. The teachers are not content to get an idea into a child's mind by one of the senses. They employ different senses, and, finally, make the pupil objectify the idea in action of some kind. For example, in a botany lesson each child brings a collection of leaves to the class-room; the teacher talks about the different varieties and sketches typical forms upon the blackboard; the children do the same, and, finally, they write out an account of the lesson. Likewise in other subjects, seeing and doing, hearing and telling, go hand in hand. This makes repetition possible, while breaking the monotony of review by varying its form.

In the second place, German teachers utilize the spontaneous interests of children, and attempt less to force the memory than to train the attention. The great device for arousing interest is objective teaching. Object-lessons, however, are made a means, not an end, and this form of instruction is not carried now to an extreme in Germany. The first craze for object-teaching Dr. Klemm describes as follows:

> "There was a time in Germany when the principle of object-teaching electrified every schoolmaster from the Rhine to the Vistula, and from the Baltic to the Alps. It was thought that objective teaching was the panacea for all educational diseases. All order and system was abandoned, and objects were brought into the school-room till it looked like a pawn-broker's shop. No broken horseshoe was left lying in the street; old boots were eagerly gathered for the leather they yielded; no ant's hill was safe from the destructive hand that gathered ants' eggs; and the life of every snail innocently creeping across the road was imperilled. Everything was carried into school—animals, plants, and minerals. There the objects that would keep were neatly labelled, numbered, classified, and stored up. The children had good times then. The paper-boxes, moles' skeletons, minerals, stuffed birds, samples of wood, dried plants, and the like, went from hand to hand, and, to be sure, half a school day was often passed in contemplating the treasures of the museum; and the teacher quieted his conscience by thinking this to be an object-lesson."

To-day the fever has abated; and the reaction perhaps has gone to an extreme, for Dr. Klemm adds: "If the teacher needs a mineral, or an air-pump, or the Leyden-jars, he is obliged to give a week's notice to the janitor, so that he may search for the objects and make them presentable. . . . As the first wild craze was one extreme, this indifference is the other."

Moreover, the Herbartian principle, that "everything taught during a day, a week, a month, a year, should all be organically connected," shapes the methods in many German schools. Mr. Klemm found this well exemplified at the Francke Stiftungen, under the leadership of Dr. Frick, the distinguished exponent of Herbart's principles and Ziller's practice. In one of the grades, for example, all instruction centres about Robinson Crusoe.

His experiences furnish the material for the language lessons; geography is taught by moulding maps in the sand and tracing Robinson's journeys; manual work consists of making pots, baskets, and the like, after the fashion of Robinson; arithmetic concerns the number of his sheep and goats; and even moral instruction is derived from Robinson's trials. Mr. Klemm does not take sides in the Herbartian controversy now raging in Germany; but, from the brilliant examples he gives, it is evident that this method of teaching in the hands of a competent teacher is a good one. At all events, the principle is sound that new knowledge should be "organically connected with previous cognitions."

Among the causes of the excellent results obtained in German schools are the use of the metric system in arithmetic, ample equipment of the schools, freedom from text-book slavery, stable tenure of office, and the professional training of the teachers, together with their lack of reverence for methods as such. But, after all, the best that can be said for German teachers is that they base education upon psychology. Methods of instruction vary; but from the elaborate devices of the Francke Stiftungen to the school for dullards at Elberfeld (where bright colors are the only things that interest the children at first, and where the school-room walls are left bare and dreary that the attention of the feeble-minded pupils may not be distracted), everywhere the principle is the same—the utilization of spontaneous interests and the development of voluntary attention.

The report of French schools is not as favorable, partly because Mr. Klemm visited Germany first and did not wish to repeat what had already been illustrated, partly because the French schools are inferior to the German. Many noteworthy things, however, are described. Especially the drawing and sketching done in French schools must strike American teachers as marvellous. Here, and throughout the book, the author uses his pencil freely, and proves what he says by reproducing specimens of pupils' work in drawing. A chapter devoted to Vienna, which vies with Leipzig in manual training, and another showing first the meagre education in the Swiss "people's schools" and then the excellent work done in the schools of Alsace, complete the volume.

While the author's manuscript is not starched into rhetorical accuracy, the facts reported are most helpful and suggestive, and the general freshness, clearness, and unconventionality of his style make the book thoroughly readable. If we had authority to name a work of recent date as "prescribed reading" for American teachers, we should recommend this one—for those who have visited European schools, that they might refresh their memories and note progress; for those who intend to visit Europe, that they might know where to go and what to see; and for those who must stay at home, because it is the best substitute for such a visit.

Around and About South America. Twenty Months of Quest and Query. By Frank Vincent. D. Appleton & Co. 1890. Pp. xxiv.-473.

The three years which have passed since the close of Mr. Vincent's journeyings, recorded in this book, have made some parts of it belated. Three years mean many changes in South America, now that it has emerged from its Cathay cycles. The fulsome dedication of the work to Dom Pedro, and the rather Jenkins-like description of the Emperor in the body of the book, necessarily appear somewhat ludicrous after last November; and the author's rueful postscript to his preface, noting the great change, does not really help the matter much. What Mr. Vincent has to say about the Panama Canal (pp. 4–7, 460–462) would have to be considered pretty superficial in any case, and is made wholly valueless by the lapse of time since he wrote. Naturally, he has missed, too, the practical reconstruction of the Government of Peru, recently accomplished, so that his account of that country's political and financial outlook has lost all point. In Venezuela, also, the underpinning has fallen clean out from under the part of the book relating to that republic; the author falls in with the current adulation of that "illustrious American," Guzman Blanco, and knows nothing of the way the statues of that self-made hero have been tumbled from their pedestals, or of his complete repudiation by his country.

Passing all this by as perhaps an unavoidable misfortune connected with the preparation and publication of the book, and not insisting, as one might, not unreasonably, that it should have been brought down somewhat nearer to date, we find Mr. Vincent's work to be of considerable, though very unequal, value, and disappointing mainly because of his failure to make better use of his exceptional opportunities. He did the circumnavigation of the Southern Continent thoroughly, leaving the coast to visit the principal cities and to follow the travelled routes, and made some excursions far into the interior, which enable him to present matter of much interest and a good deal of novelty. We refer to his long trip up the Paraná to the falls of the Iguassu, and his various journeys into the heart of Brazil. The pages recording his experiences and observations while on this part of his travels are far the most valuable of the book, and, as they luckily number more than half of all, do much to redeem the rest. Even here it is not the author's method, but his material, that lends interest to his narration; throughout he follows the style of an itinerary, jotting down each day's doings by itself with the rigor of an unflinching diarist. When it is remembered that, making the large exceptions already noted, his eyes fell upon only the commoner and surface phenomena of the countries through which he hurried, it will be seen that much of his writing is of the slightest texture.

The great trouble with Mr. Vincent is that he is a mere traveller. He had no unifying aim or pursuit round which to group his scattered observations. He has not the temperament of a student; he tells us (p. 94) of a fine library containing 3,500 books and pamphlets, all about Bolivia, but not into one of them does he appear to have been tempted to peep. Not being a naturalist, an ethnologist, or a student of institutions, he is not drawn to make a thorough study of any one of the many departments of knowledge opened before him, and simply reflects the general views of the general traveller of general education. One can but contrast this method with that of the late Jules Crevaux, author of the sumptuous Hachette folio, 'Voyages dans l'Amérique du Sud.' The best of five years he gave up to exploration of the remote regions of Guiana, Venezuela, and Colombia, living with the Indians, studying their characteristics, making vocabularies of their languages, observing prodigal nature with the delight and success of a trained naturalist, always far from the ordinary routes, always laying himself close alongside the fact whose meaning he wished to extract. Beside such work as that, Mr. Vincent must seem amateurish in his steamboats, and railway cars, and diligences. Certainly he ran no risk of being killed, as Crevaux finally was, by venturing far up the Pilcomayo, into the haunts of dangerous tribes.

Several inaccuracies call for notice. Mr. Vincent gives the impression of having read various scientific books on his subject, but of having brought away confused ideas from them. On his very first page he settles a long-standing dispute off-hand, by assuring his readers that Columbus's San Salvador was Watling Island. This might be set down merely as due to the dogmatic spirit, were not the statement associated with it that Columbus beheld that part of the New World "thirty-five days from Spain." Our tourist did not go to the Galapagos Islands, but felt it incumbent to give a page or two to them, as he went steaming by eight hundred miles to the eastward. He seems to be aware of what Darwin had written about them, though he cites no authorities (nor does he anywhere in the whole book), but if so, his recollection is certainly most vague, and leads him to give a very jumbled account of what the master left perfectly clear. Some of his incidental remarks about the bearing of minor facts which fell under his observation on the great question of the Asiatic peopling of South America, equally bespeak an easy acquaintance with a very little science. It is, of course, a mistake to say that the llama is "the only native domesticated animal in South America" (p. 20). To speak of a dastardly attempt to assassinate President Caamaño of Ecuador as a "revolution" (p. 32), is doing too much honor to the score of conspirators who figured on that occasion. Making the Peruvian *sol* to be worth "about five cents" (p. 60) puts Mr. Vincent at variance with the Director of the United States Mint, who, in his report for 1888, made it 68 cents. We are still told of the United States of Colombia; since the reform of the Constitution in 1887–'88, the official title is the Republic of Colombia.

Mr. Vincent indulges in but few political reflections, and those few are enough to convince us of his wisdom in avoiding that sort of thing as a rule. It would be hard to put together in a single paragraph more mistakes in point of fact, and greater futility in point of reasoning, than may be found in the following:

> "The continued revolts and miniature revolutions of the disaffected South American States would soon become less frequent if stern and speedy retribution—such as death by hanging—should be administered to the leaders. But the authorities, instead, treat their distinguished prisoners to champagne and free them on parole. . . . The rebellions never result in any good. . . . The best remedy for these evils would be strong central governments, with sufficient power and inclination to preserve the peace and compel the observance of law and order."

Entirely baseless as well as ill-natured is the remark (p. 441), "The whole genius of the nation [Colombia] seems directed towards civil dissension and guerilla warfare." And Mr. Vincent is on decidedly dangerous ground when he speaks of "the demon of assassination always hovering over" South American Presidents. The retort open to a South American is too obvious, and Mr. Vincent would find it pretty hard to name a republic in South America where two Chief Magistrates had been assassinated within fifteen years.

We should be sorry if our dwelling upon serious defects, as they seem to us, were to result in an injustice to what is in many respects a pleasant and readable book. Its style is unusually simple and straightforward, the printing is remarkably accurate, and the two-score

or more illustrations are refreshingly original for the most part. They are mostly process-work from photographs, and are excellent examples of that class of reproductions. Considered as an old-fashioned book of travels, the volume would have to be regarded as highly successful; it is only in comparison with the better modern methods of doing such writing that it fails.

The Political Problem. By Albert Stickney, author of 'Democratic Government,' etc. Harper & Bros. 1890.

A NEW class of literature relating to this country has arisen within the last ten years. Before that, hardly any writer ventured to come down later than the formation of our Constitution, or to do more than study reverently the motives and intentions of the framers of it. Now one writer after another—James Bryce, Woodrow Wilson, Prof. von Holst, the Duc de Noailles—sets himself to examine the practical and modern working not only of our Federal, but also of our local constitutions and governments. Mr. Albert Stickney now publishes his third work on these subjects, and this is the standard which he sets up, and by which, therefore, he may fairly expect to be judged:

"But if the 'civil-service reform' could be carried out to the letter, in its full length and breadth, it would be a mere drop in the bucket. The results would be too inconsiderable to deserve serious attention. It is wholly inadequate to meet the fundamental existing evils."

"I submit, then that the so-called Australian [ballot] system is fundamentally unsound in principle, is an attempt to deal only with surface symptoms, and should be put in the category of petty political panaceas."

Referring to the plan of giving administrative heads of departments seats in the popular assembly, he says:

"As an ingenious device for wasting human time and human strength, nothing can well be conceived more efficient than this favorite of literary politicians, the asking and answering of questions on the floor of the popular assembly."

As to urging good citizens to give more time to politics, to attend primary meetings and work out reform within the party, Mr. Stickney says:

"But this has often been tried in the past, and has always failed. It will certainly and always fail in the future unless we can find some way by which ordinary men who have to earn their living, can give all their time to politics and yet give all their time to the regular occupation by which they gain their bread."

Discussing the question of longer official terms, he objects to any fixed term, and sums up: "So that a longer term loses the assumed advantages, and keeps the actual disadvantages, of a term that is short."

What, then, are the grand yet simple ideas which are to throw all these weak expedients into the shade? In the first place, Mr. Stickney lays great stress upon the public meeting. He thinks that the citizens of small districts should meet and choose delegates to a larger meeting, which should discuss all subjects intelligently. That may be true, but is it new? Is it not exactly the principle of our present primary meetings, with the resultant of city council, State Legislature, and National Congress? Mr. Stickney's *bête noire*, however, is popular elections at fixed intervals. He thinks that the people have shown themselves unfit to exercise the right, and that men who can get themselves elected are quite unfit for anything else. His idea, therefore, is that a Legislature, having been elected once for all by the people—the actual incumbents would do as well as any others—should have its tenure made permanent, being affected only by death, resignation, or the act of the body itself. It makes one stare and gasp to hear it suggested that the members, say, of the Albany Legislature, would develop into a combination of Solon and Socrates if only their tenure of office could be changed to these conditions.

Passing to the Executive, Mr. Stickney thinks that only one administrative head should be elected, and all other officials be subordinate to him. He thinks, however, that, having been first selected by a popular assembly, elected *ad hoc* (we suppose, after the fashion of Presidential electors), the Executive should hold office till he either dies, or resigns, or is turned out by a two-thirds vote of the permanent Legislature, when his successor is to be elected by another popular assembly. Apparently there is an uneasy consciousness that a permanent Legislature and a permanent Executive would at once begin a course of corrupt intrigue, and that the Legislature, instead of turning a man out and running the risk of a popular election, would use its tremendous power to bend him to its purposes; for Mr. Stickney says: "The purchase of two-thirds of the delegates does not seem very probable if we can depend on the people to select men of integrity. And if we cannot depend upon the people to that extent, then we may as well throw up our hands and abandon the contest." We venture to suggest that perhaps he had better do that now. Suppose an official were to hold for twenty years and then be suddenly ejected by a two-thirds vote; how would a generation wholly unused to such work be set to choose an electoral college? But the working arrangements by which such tremendous changes are to be carried into effect are quite beneath the attention of this writer.

Feeling, again, that the utility of his plans has been hardly demonstrated with mathematical precision, Mr. Stickney urges, with an abundance of italics, that they would at least *have a tendency* to produce good results, that the citizens would have at all events an *opportunity* of choosing good men, and that there is certainly a *possibility* that they might do so. In other words, he wants to make Constitutional changes, compared with which the work of the French Assemblies of 1789–'93 was strictly conservative and in accordance with precedent, upon a bare chance that they would work well.

Perhaps the most curious feature is the argument by which he puts a keystone into a fabric perceived to be somewhat shaky: "Our present position is, that something must be *done*. Whoever objects to what is here proposed can fairly be called on to propose something better." It is the major premise that we should object to. Rather than accept such an alternative, we should say things had much better be left as they are for an indefinite period in the future.

Carlisle. By M. Creighton. [Historic Towns, edited by E. H. Freeman and W. Hunt.] Longmans. 1889. 8vo, pp. x, 215.

THIS volume contains an excellent account of the general history of Carlisle from the earliest times down to the present day. The first ten centuries of its history may be summed up in two or three short sentences. "A few coins, a few altars, and a few pieces of pottery are all that remain to tell us of Roman civilization in the Border town" (p. 14). "About the year 875 they (the Danes) overspread the western district, sacked and burned Caerluel, and left it scarcely inhabitable. For the next two centuries the once stately town, fortress, and monastery alike were laid low" (p. 21). Prof. Creighton's remark concerning Roman remains in Carlisle is true of almost all English towns. Though Carlisle, or Lugubalia, was an important Roman city, Roman civilization exerted no more influence upon its mediæval municipal development than that of other boroughs of England.

The relations of Carlisle to Scotland in the middle ages are interesting, and are clearly stated by the author. Chapter v. is devoted to an account of Border life, for "Carlisle owes its position among English towns not so much to the peculiar features of its own civic history as to the fact that it was the capital of the Borderland, and reflected the characteristics of the Border people" (p. 80). The last chapter gives a good account of the industrial growth of Carlisle from 1747 to 1881.

The weakest portion of the book is that which deals with the municipal history of the town. This is the vulnerable part of most of the volumes in this series; their value would have been greatly enhanced if the growth of municipal government had been more carefully investigated. We are informed that "the government of Carlisle was originally in the hands of the Merchant Guild"; that "the original civic body was the Merchant Guild" (pp. 120,193). "When any corporate act had to be done by the burgesses, it was natural that the Guild brethren should do it in their behalf" (p. 40). The Gild often made itself "responsible for the amount of the town's payment," *i. e.*, the *firma burgi* (p. 40). This last statement is evidently borrowed from Stubbs's 'Constitutional History.' But it is untenable; the Gild Merchant as such had nothing to do with the payment of the fee-farm. Recent investigation has also shown that the Gild Merchant of English boroughs was not identical with the civic governing body, nor coextensive with the whole area of the civic administration. The author also speaks of a series of conflicts between this "aristocratic" Gild Merchant and the eight craft guilds of Carlisle, which resulted in a victory for the latter (pp. 90, 120, 193). The writer does not indicate his authorities for this and his other statements concerning the Gild Merchant; but they are doubtless taken from Ferguson's admirable works on Carlisle. Ferguson errs in exaggerating the influence of the Gild Merchant. This term was not commonly used in the struggle between the civic authorities and crafts of Carlisle. When used, it did not refer to the governing body of the town. The term "Gilda Mercatoria" was clearly applied to the aggregate of the eight crafts in 1681, and probably on other occasions (see Tremaine, 'Placita,' 525).

The author gives some curious data, on pp. 42, 43, concerning the *firma burgi* of Carlisle, so curious and abnormal that one feels inclined to test their correctness. The volumes of this series do not facilitate such tests; there are no footnotes giving the authorities upon which statements of fact are based. Prof. Creighton avoids the common mistake of confusing the annual fee-farm rent with a commutation of taxation or tollage. He clearly shows that *firma burgi* was the commutation of such royal dues as rents for burgage tenements, rents of mills, court perquisites, and the like.

Thiers. By Paul de Rémusat. Translated by Melville B. Anderson. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1889. ["Great French Writers" Series].

M. DE RÉMUSAT had a great opportunity and

has entirely missed it. His book on Thiers is a disappointment: he has omitted much that his readers had a right to expect, and he has put in much that no reader will care for. The life of Thiers is a fruitful and tempting subject, and should have been intrusted to more skilful hands. Thiers is himself an interesting and picturesque figure. He was the most brilliant example of that combination of the literary man and the statesman which forms such a striking feature in modern French history. Aside from the interest which attaches to him personally, he was a prominent actor in many of the most stirring events of one of the most stirring periods in the history of the world, and his name is indissolubly connected with the peace of 1871, a transaction almost unparalleled for the enormous concessions exacted by the victor and for the dramatic catastrophe of which it constituted a fitting sequel. Here, then, we have a man who at the age of twenty-six began the publication of a book that was, in its time, regarded as a great public event; who at the age of thirty-three took a prominent part in ousting one dynasty and installing another; who at the age of seventy-four saved his country from annihilation and brought order out of chaos; who for nearly half a century led a busy life as one of the most eminent writers, orators, and statesmen of his day; and, finally, of whom no adequate and authoritative biography has as yet appeared. What greater good fortune could befall any literary man than to be asked to prepare such a biography?

How M. de Rémusat has acquitted himself of the task will sufficiently appear when it is stated that of the personal history of Thiers he gives fewer details than can be found in the most meagre encyclopædia article; Vapereau's account is far more complete. Eight lines cover all that M. de Rémusat has to say about Thiers's birth, boyhood, and education; there is not a word about his parentage or domestic surroundings; the reader can go through the whole book without finding out whether Thiers was married or not, except that, incidentally, thirteen pages from the end, his wife is just mentioned; there is no bibliographical information at all about his two great works, their reception by the public, their translation into foreign languages, their relative rank in French literature according to the opinion of competent judges; some of the books he wrote are not even mentioned by name.

M. de Rémusat's whole method foredoomed his book to be a failure. The method he should have pursued was plainly marked out by his subject. In the first place, he was writing one of a series of literary monographs, and that in itself required that he should give to the literary side of Thiers as great a prominence as the facts permitted; secondly, there are certain well-defined divisions in the life of Thiers which almost predetermined the lines on which his biography should be laid out. There was, first, his career previous to his entrance on active political life; this should have embraced an account of his youth and schooling, of his beginnings as a journalist, the publication of his 'Revolution,' and the founding of the newspaper, *Le National*, in conjunction with Mignet and Armand Carrel. The second period extends from 1830 to 1840, when he took an important part in the Government of France, holding office with frequent interruptions, and finally giving way to his rival, Guizot, and returning to his literary pursuits. The third period would embrace the composition and publication of his 'Consulat et Empire,' with occasional participation in politics, and might extend to 1870. The fourth and closing period would recount his last years, and the signal service he rendered his distracted country at a time of life when most men think themselves entitled to rest on their laurels.

Instead of pursuing this obvious course, M. de Rémusat calls his chapters The Restoration, The July Government, The Third Republic, etc., as if he were writing a history of France, with incidental reference to Thiers, and treats us to page after page of superfluous disquisitions on politics which have no interest whatever, and no more connection with the career of Thiers than the Darwinian theory. For example, there is chapter iv., on The Empire from 1851 to 1863, in which, after some particularly flat observations on Napoleon III., the author naïvely tells us that "during the first epoch of the Empire Thiers took no part in politics." He might have told us that at once and spared us all the rest. A few pages further on he says that "Thiers's best diversion during these years was the completion of his 'History of the Consulate and the Empire.'" This is his first mention of the work, although twelve volumes of it had appeared before the *Coup d'État*. The manner of the book is no more fortunate than its matter; but perhaps that is the fault of the translator. If the translator has done any wrong to his author in this respect, he is still entitled to the gratitude of the reader for his elision of several superfluous passages, and would have done well if he had taken more such liberties with the text.

Modern Horsemanship: Three Schools of Riding. Original Method of Teaching the Art by Means of Pictures from Life. By Edward L. Anderson. Illustrated by forty moment photographs. A new edition, rewritten and rearranged. Pp. 164, xiii. Edinburgh: David Douglas; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1889.

It was a happy thought of Mr. Anderson to make use of instantaneous photographs as a means of conveying to the novice in horsemanship the simple but otherwise indescribable details of that art. This task he has well accomplished in this second edition of his excellent treatise. He is equally happy in his plan of giving a large part of the instruction which he seeks to impart in the form of instruction concerning the ways in which a horse should be broken to the saddle and trained to obey the will of the rider. No horseman ever attains a full measure of skill who has not successfully essayed this task of the instructor. In no other way can he become well acquainted with the peculiar limitations of the equine mind, or gain the sympathy with his horse which is the foundation of equestrian skill.

Mr. Anderson is perhaps the first of the writers on this subject to recognize the fact that systematic gymnastic training is necessary to fit the horse to do the peculiar and essentially unnatural tasks which the burthen and the behests of the rider impose upon him. He therefore gives considerable attention to the series of movements which seem to him desirable steps towards this end. This important part of the work might have been better accomplished if the exercises had been planned on a careful study of the internal anatomy of the horse. Though purely empirical, they rest on much experience and close observation, and therefore are likely to secure the desired result. These studies in equine gymnastics have the conspicuous merit that they point the way to better work in the same direction. If our author or any of his followers will use careful measurements to determine the effects of particular exercises in increasing the muscular development of horses, or the influence of such training in affecting the quality of their movements, we may secure a firm basis on which to found a rational system of educating these creatures for saddle use.

Among the many good, because eminently practical, points of this essay, we may commend Mr. Anderson's clear statements concerning the evils which arise from allowing a horse to form the habit of getting "behind the hand," and the careful directions concerning the process of leaping over an obstacle. Attention to these points will save the young horseman from the most serious dangers he may encounter from ill-trained horses or rough cross-country riding. By far the greater part of the mischances which befall fairly good horsemen arise from the one or the other of these conditions.

This work is intended for beginners, and is calculated to be of much service to them, but it would have been far more useful to such persons if pains had been taken to define the many terms which constitute the *argot* of the horse-trainer. As it is, the novice is sure to find trouble in deriving definitions from the context. In the next edition of the work (it deserves many) there should be a glossary of such terms, or each of them should be carefully explained in a foot-note. The volume is a handsome specimen of the book-maker's art; the print is admirable, the heliotype illustrations very good. There is, however, no index, and the table of contents is insufficient.

Latin Hymn-Writers and Their Hymns. By the late Samuel W. Duffield. Edited and completed by R. E. Thompson, D.D. Funk & Wagnalls.

Hymns, as produced under the action of devotional rather than literary motives, have but a doubtful literary standing. Those who write them, and in humbler degree those who collate or study them, find their reward in the edification of the Church; and the Church is seldom severely critical. Therefore hymnology is an obscure and little regarded field. The term, indeed, is dubiously and variously defined, and (in its more exact definition) the thing has come into being within the last generation or so. The Latin hymns present a partial exception, for such light as they contain shines through the darkness of a remote past, and several of them are admitted to be poetry. In the Middle Ages, literature was nothing if not theological; human powers, when not absorbed in statecraft, found their stimulus and vent in religion. Thus hymn-making received a share of attention from the best talents as well as the finest spirits. English hymnody, though it began so late and attracted a narrower circle, is far more voluminous; in part because education was more general and the printing-press at hand, in part because the chaff has not yet had time to be thoroughly sifted from the wheat. Of this latter the materials are much greater than is usually supposed. Taking the two together, none but a bold man would attempt to be the chronicler of both.

This boldness Mr. Duffield possessed. Tempted from his true path by the supposed comparative smoothness, brevity, and popularity of one nearer at hand, he bestowed two years' leisure on a subject to which slower and less ambitious students had given their lives, and produced in 1886 a stout octavo on 'English Hymns, their Authors, and History.' As the largest and most pretentious of American publications on this topic, it was accepted by some as an authority. But it contained many blunders and little original research; it freely "con-

veyed" the labors and occasionally the language of predecessors (eminently the late Josiah Miller), who were seldom mentioned except to point out their defects and errors, real or imaginary; the tone even towards hymn-writers was in some cases needlessly carping, as when Mrs. Rowe was twice accused of having "jilted" Dr. Watts—a thing the good woman neither did nor dreamed of; there was too much assumption of being first in a field wherein Mr. Duffield was in reality a late comer, and of having mastered an array of facts with which he was but imperfectly acquainted.

This posthumous book is another affair. With the Latin writers Mr. Duffield was on ground which he had made his own; there was no need to depend on the labors of others, and then to disguise the fact. The subject-matter, being in a "dead" language, may claim a certain historic dignity; credit for some learning could be won, and the attention invited of scholars who care nothing for hymns in the vernacular. In this narrower range of more recondite and picturesque material the author had made real studies of his own, and the result is that his chapters are both pleasanter and more instructive reading than those on Watts, Wesley, and their followers. Some minor writers, the Breviaries, etc., which Mr. Duffield failed to handle, have been dealt with in a careful and competent, if less vivacious, manner, by his editor, who is responsible for full a third of the book.

The Life of Richard Steele: By George A. Aitken. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889.

THESE two handsome volumes, with several admirable portraits, are the fruits of a long and laborious study of Steele's life, largely from original and untouched sources, and the narrative consequently gathers up all that has hitherto been known and adds much to our previous information. The author's work has been directed necessarily to detail; he has sifted and verified with untiring industry; and if to have made a full and faithful account of Steele and all his family, and to have thrown light on imperfectly known though not intrinsically important transactions, is success, he is rewarded. Steele's life has been written in the form of literary sketches, with some imaginative filling-up, several times; but there has been no attempt at a standard and complete biography like this. The principal addition to the old matter consists of some minor but interesting discoveries, such as the name of his first wife, the widow from Barbados, which was Margaret Stretch, and the clue thus afforded leads to a disentanglement of his business affairs with regard to the Barbados property; and, secondly, the thorough search which the author has made of court records, spreads before us the details of those business troubles which perpetually harassed the too generous and profuse writer. Such subjects occupy a large portion of the volumes; but the literary relations of Steele, his differences with Swift, his obligations, real or unreal, to Harley, his entire political and theatrical career, are not neglected; everything is included that could possibly come within the interest of the reader, and among the rest particularly noticeable is a better account of his acquaintance with Berkeley. The matter, however, is mainly matter of fact rather than of literature. The reputation of Steele is not really affected, as a writer, by anything in the volumes. The gain lies rather in our possession of a solid basis of fact for our estimate of the man, such as to make antiquated both Thackeray's and Macaulay's delineations of his personality. The calmer view of Forster is the one sustained by the evidence, and though Steele still appears as a much troubled man, he comes out with credit and with his old attractions of generosity, humanity, and humbleness undiminished.

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American Whist Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.75.
Baker, Mary M. Ruby Dana: A Novel. John B. Alden.
Balg, G. H. Comparative Glossary of the Gothic Language, with especial reference to English and German. Part IX. and last. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Banker's Almanac and Register for 1890. Homans Publishing Co.
Barns, C. E. A Portrait in Crimson. Welch, Fracker Co.
Bates, Arlo. Albrecht. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Bellamy, E. Six to One. New ed. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 35 cents.
B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of MSS. in European Archives relating to America, 1773–1783. Vols. I., II. London: B. F. Stevens.
Black, W. Prince Fortunatus. Harper & Bros.
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The Converted Catholic. Vol. IV. James A. O'Connor. $1.50.
The Critic, Vol. XII. New York: The Critic Co.
The Exegesis of Life. Minerva Pub. Co. 50 cents.
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Wheeler, J. M. Biographical Dictionary of Freethinkers of all Ages and Nations. London: Progressive Publishing Co.
Wilde, Henriette. Schiller Immortalen: Ein Geburtstagsbuch. Philadelphia: I. Kohler. $1.
Wilson, W. The State and Federal Governments of the U. S.: A Brief Manual for Schools and Colleges. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 55 cents.
Winship, A. E. The Shop. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 60 cents.
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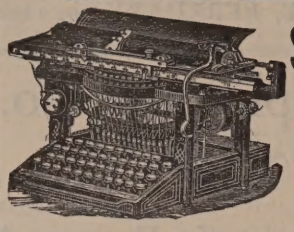

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Less Contingent Sinking Fund		600,000.00
		$88,827,026.92

Income.

Premiums	$25,357,522.75	
Interest, Rents, etc.	5,035,765.53	30,393,288.28
		$119,220,315.20

Disbursements.

Claims by Death and Matured Endowments	$7,878,499.53	
Dividends, Surrender Values, Annuities and Discounted Endowments.	3,964,358.36	
Total paid Policy-holders		$11,842,857.89
Dividend on Capital	7,000.00	
Commissions, Advertising, Postage and Exchange	3,176,239.09	
General Expenses, State, County and City Taxes	2,820,855.91	17,846,952.85
Net Ledger Assets, December 31, 1889		$101,373,362.31

Assets.

Bonds and Mortgages	$23,637,873.52	
Real Estate, including the Equitable Buildings and purchases under foreclosure of mortgages	16,536,541.33	
United States Stocks, State Stocks, City Stocks, in Trust Companies and other Investments	45,645,395.63	
Loans secured by Bonds and Stocks (Market Value, $3,404,859)	2,705,000.00	
Real Estate outside the State of New York, including purchases under foreclosure of mortgages	8,116,755.06	
Cash in Banks and in transit (since received and invested)	3,960,630.63	
Due from Agents on account of Premiums	771,166.14	$101,373,362.31
Market value of Stocks and Bonds over book value		2,697,138.55
Interest and Rents due and accrued		829,895.26
Premiums, deferred and in transit		2,249,913.00
Total Assets, December 31, 1889		$107,150,309.12

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 20, 1890.

The Week.

THE House has adopted the rules reported by the Committee, by a strict party vote. The only important changes are the bestowal on the Speaker of the power to have members put on the journal as present whom he sees in the House, for the purpose of forming a quorum, and of the power to refuse to put "dilatory motions"—that is, motions which he deems offered merely for purposes of delay. He has already shown by his behavior in the late crisis the use he is capable of making of these powers. At all events, under them he can make filibustering impossible, and the majority will have power to push through all the wild schemes which are now stewing in their brains, most of them simply undisguised attacks on the taxpayers. The consoling feature of the situation is, that there will be no difficulty in fixing the responsibility for whatever is done. Neither party has ever had the House so completely under its control as the Republicans have the present one. Changes in the procedure, with the view of facilitating the despatch of business and putting down factious obstruction, may be necessary, but all such changes as those which have been just made increasing the Speaker's powers, in order not to be dangerous, should involve also a change in the manner of filling his office. They demand his complete dissociation from party leadership and from partisanship in every form, and the surrounding of the Chair with a thoroughly judicial atmosphere. Consequently, they make the appearance in it clothed with these extraordinary powers, of a man who has made such an exhibition of violence and unscrupulousness as Mr. Reed has made during the past few weeks, an absurdity as well as an outrage. The only defence the minority has against such a Speaker, under the new rules, is the certainty that their turn will come some day, and their Speaker will then be able to pay off all scores. But the spectacle of a great deliberative body governing its procedure by the *lex talionis* is a very sorry one. The Republican notion of what constitutes fairness in such procedure was well illustrated in the debate on Friday by some remarks of Mr. Grosvenor, a prominent Republican member from Ohio, who was accused of having filibustered two years ago against the Democratic proposal to tack on an appropriation *ad hoc* to every bill granting a pension or increasing one. "Yes," said he; "but when hostility to the old veterans was rife, filibustering was patriotism." In other words, it is right to filibuster for your own purposes, but wrong for any other man to filibuster for his.

A fresh illustration of the drift towards centralization in the Republican party is furnished by the introduction in Congress of a bill forbidding any State to make any changes in the Congressional districts now existing until after the next census has been taken. The present apportionment in Ohio, made by a Republican Legislature a few years ago, enabled the Republicans in 1888 to elect sixteen out of the twenty-one Representatives in Congress from that State, although the Democrats polled nearly half the votes. The Democrats now control the Legislature, and have been talking about turning the tables by gerrymandering the State so that their party may get sixteen of the twenty-one Representatives next time, and the proposed law of Congress is intended to block this scheme. No such attempt at interference in the States has ever been made by Congress before, and it is obviously opposed to the spirit of the Constitution, even if it is permitted by its letter. We note with surprise and pleasure that the Indianapolis *Journal*, thorough-going Republican organ that it is, condemns the project as "a measure of doubtful constitutionality and wisdom." It says that "this looks like an attempt at arbitrary restriction of the right of a State to redistrict, and the more so because the Ohio Legislature is now proposing to do so. Ohio redistricts every four years, and we understand this is her regular year for doing so. It may be the regular year for several other States. For Congress to override the districting laws of these States for no other purpose, apparently, than to prevent a threatened gerrymander in one of them, would be an act of very doubtful wisdom, to say the least."

The intention of a certain number of scurvy politicians to kill the Civil-Service Law by withholding the appropriation needed by the Commissioners to carry out its provisions has been boldly announced. The amount needed to execute the law, since the Railway Mail Service has been brought under it, is about $75,000. Every vote against this appropriation or in favor of cutting it down will be the vote of a coward, like Senator Farwell of Illinois, who said that he and his kind would defeat the law in that way, as they had done once before. Meanwhile, Senators are passing bills that "have money in them" with marked liberality towards each other. On Feb. 11 Senator Allison wanted a couple of bills put through for public buildings at Sioux City and Cedar Rapids, one for $500,000 and the other for $200,000, intended undoubtedly to facilitate his own reëlection; and those bills were put through without debate, as though the Senate were issuing passes and marking them "Complimentary." That the rest of them will want passes and will get them may be inferred from the fact that Senator Stanford on the same day reported from the Committee on Public Buildings and Grounds bills for nineteen new buildings at various small towns like Sterling, Ill., Reno, Nev., Pawtucket, R. I., Hastings, Neb., Stillwater, Minn., etc., the total for which is $3,045,000. This, however, is only an instalment, a beginning, as it were. There is some danger that the industry of Mr. Stanford's committee will leave little room for the energy of the Committees on Pensions, on Rivers and Harbors, and on Steamship Subsidies.

A list of these passes issued or to be issued by the Senate to its own members will no doubt be interesting to the public. They are as follows:

Complimentary	To Senators
Oakland, Cal., Stockton, Cal., San Diego, Cal.,	Stanford.
Sterling, Ill.	Farwell.
Chester, Pa.	Cameron.
Portland, Ore., The Dalles, Ore.,	Mitchell.
Virginia City, Nev., Reno, Nev.,	Jones.
Burlington, Iowa, Sioux City, Iowa, Cedar Rapids, Iowa,	Allison.

The terms of all these Senators expire in 1891, and it is well to have their passes issued immediately. The term of Senator Aldrich of Rhode Island does not expire till 1893, but he has two compliments in the list in the way of public buildings at Pawtucket and Woonsocket.

The Union Pacific Funding Bill was defeated in the last Congress by filibustering on the part of a select body of Representatives led by two Republican members, Anderson of Kansas and Payson of Illinois. It is believed that the new rules of the House, under the keen discernment of Speaker Reed, will be effective in choking off these gentlemen and passing the bill. It is surmised by some that the new rules were designed more especially for this purpose than for the punishment of the Democratic minority. The Union Pacific Funding Bill ought to have passed last year. In its new form, as reported by Senator Frye, it is a proper and meritorious measure. But any enlargement of the Speaker's authority in the way of "counting a quorum," or of deciding what is a dilatory motion, will be equally available to pass any other bill that has "funding" of one kind or another for its motive-power. Therefore all such measures become doubly dangerous, and should be more closely scanned than ever. So far as the Union Pacific is concerned, the facts were so fully set forth in the report of the majority of the Commission appointed by President Cleveland, consisting of Messrs. E. Ellery Anderson and David T. Littler, that nothing can now be added. The recommendation was that the Government should extend the debt for a period of fifty years at 3 per cent. interest, and take a lien on all the property, including the branch lines, as security. The alternative to this would seem to be the taking of the road itself a few years hence and operating it on Government account without being able to control the branch

lines. We have not heard that anybody is in favor of that.

The sugar question, as it stands related to the tariff, is reaching an acute stage. The Republican politicians are strongly moved to repeal the duties on raw sugar, because that step would alone dispose of the Treasury surplus, and, in their opinion, would render unnecessary, if not impossible, any further reductions of the tariff. But the admission of raw sugar free would not cheapen sugar to the consumer very much unless the duty on refined were repealed also. To repeal all duties on sugar, both raw and refined, would attack the sacred principle of protection, and also violate the $100,000 bargain with the Sugar Trust, supposing such a bargain to have been made. Moreover, the beet and sorghum-growers in California and Kansas are apt to get into an ugly mood if their whack at the sugar market is disturbed. To placate them, a bounty of two cents per pound, payable out of the Treasury on certificates of production duly signed and sealed by some officer of the Government, has been proposed, but has not met with much favor among the intended beneficiaries, who fear that the bounty would not be permanent. They prefer to take their chances in the tariff rather than in the bounty. It is a great puzzle every way. The bounty, as everybody can see, would be just as available to the refiner as to the grower, and it is more than likely that some Democrat would offer an amendment that all sugar duties of every name and nature be repealed, and that the bounty be divided between the grower and the refiner in the same ratio that the tariff is now divided. Then we might have an interesting debate, going to the root of the question.

One of the drollest attacks on the surplus was made a few days ago in the House by Mr. Chipman of Michigan, who introduced a bill providing for the payment of "a just and suitable remuneration" to a Detroit physician for having discovered a cure for "sporadic pneumonia and grip." It appears the physician cannot protect his discovery by patent, and the rules of his own profession forbid his keeping it secret, so that he is in a sorry plight if he does not get a bonus from the Government. When one reads such things, one may well ask whether any people, once independent as well as free, has ever travelled so rapidly towards both paternalism and maternalism as we have done in the last twenty-five years. Under the training given us by our dear mamma, the tariff, everybody who finds his business unprofitable, or his practice unremunerative, or his credit low, bethinks him of some plan of getting help from the Treasury. If he cannot get an office, he wants a bonus, or if he cannot get a bonus, he wants a loan without security, or some kind of money which will be cheap when he receives it, but dear when he pays it out.

Philadelphia seems to be the centre of disturbance in the woollen industry at present, the failures following each other with startling rapidity. Considerable interest has, therefore, been taken in the bold if hopeless candidacy of Mr. Ayres for the seat in Congress made vacant by the death of Judge Kelley. Mr. Ayres is himself a woollen-manufacturer and a Republican, and took his stand on the platform of free raw materials. The Philadelphia *Press* is much stirred up by this revolt at the headquarters of protectionism, and it labors strenuously to show that free wool will put an end to wool-growing in the United States, and deliver the manufacturers up to the exactions of shepherds in South America, Australia, the Cape of Good Hope, Asia Minor, the East Indies, Great Britain, Canada, etc., etc. This is a terrible picture. It reminds us of the foraging soldier in the late war who was stopped on his return to camp with a dead sheep on his shoulder. "Didn't you know," asked the sentry, "that strict orders had been given against pillaging?" "I'll teach sheep to bite me," was the conclusive answer. If the *Press* is afraid that the wool-growers of the Argentine Republic, southern Russia, and other fierce countries will bite our manufacturers, its fears are not shared by Mr. Ayres and his supporters, who, it appears, include a goodly number of operatives in woollen mills as well as many who have been cast out of employment by the recent failures in that trade.

The question before the Republican party in Iowa is an ugly one. On the one hand, the prohibition element in the party, which is very strong, insists that it shall maintain the existing law, and even increase its rigors. As a correspondent of the Keokuk *Gate City* puts it, the Republicans have "put down the rebellion and freed the slaves"; now "they must put down that wicked monster, Rum"; they must "take hold of this matter and fight it with all their might until the victory is won and the monster is dead, dead, dead." The editor of the *Gate City* turns a shower-bath of fact and logic upon this sentimentalist. He tells him that "parties and government are practical matters and depend upon what you can do, not what you cannot." He says that there was practically about the same amount of intemperance under the no-liquor-law system of Territorial times in Iowa and the modified prohibition system which followed, that there has been since the cast-iron prohibition law was passed. So far as the question concerns politics, a Democratic Governor has been elected "simply because the body of the people of the State don't really care to sustain the views of the temperance people when it comes to a matter of applied law, and, after yielding to letting them apply their views, they have themselves rebelled against what they tacitly acquiesced in." As regards the Republican party, therefore, the lesson which the editor draws is, that it must drop prohibition or get beaten.

The State of New York has drifted into a new phase of unconstitutionalism, by the failure of the Governor and the Legislature to provide for the taking of an enumeration of the inhabitants for the purpose of making legislative districts according to the changes of population. By an evident mistake, the State Constitution provides that only the State enumeration shall be used for redistricting purposes. Therefore the United States census, although undoubtedly more accurate than any State census would be, cannot be used. The Legislature and the Governor being in disagreement as to the terms of the bill for taking a State enumeration, the injustice of the old apportionment of legislative districts continues, and becomes more aggravated from year to year. The Governor is technically right in holding that the Constitution provides only for an enumeration of the inhabitants. It does not provide for the taking of a census which shall include other things. He is practically wrong in withholding his assent from bills which do include other things, for if we should have a State census, that would include an enumeration of the inhabitants upon which a new apportionment could be made. Any new apportionment would be better than the present one, and probably more advantageous to the Democratic party than the present one. As the matter now stands, the Constitution provides that a certain thing *shall be done*. But the thing is not done, and there is no remedy. The same thing happened when the Legislature failed to call a constitutional convention in 1886.

A meeting was held at Cooper Institute on Monday evening chiefly to denounce Tom Platt, a private person carrying on an express business in lower Broadway. Speeches were made by Warner Miller and Chauncey M. Depew having no other purport than the exposition of Platt, not as a bad expressman, who fails to deliver packages intrusted to him with punctuality and in good order, but as an autocrat who misuses the legislative, executive, and judicial powers of government in the Empire State, and needs to be put on the right track. Strange to say, the meeting had the intended effect, for, just after Miller and Depew had finished speaking, a messenger from the expressman appeared on the scene and said that, if the by-laws of a certain committee, unknown to the Constitution and laws of the Empire State, should be changed so that a two-thirds vote should be required on any proposition for expending $10,000,000 of public funds, then the expressman would guarantee that another committee, equally unknown to the Constitution and laws, would agree that the first-mentioned Committee should have the money of the taxpayers of New York to the extent named, and should also have the right to take private property to any extent they might deem necessary for any length of time they might deem necessary for a World's Fair. While the expressman's envoy was delivering his message, the audience was hooting and hissing every mention of his name so that it was almost impossible for the ambassador to make himself heard. But when the purport of it came to be understood, the public wrath instantly turned to gratitude. Then Mr. Depew moved three

cheers for the expressman, and these were given with tremendous energy. And strong men wept, we suppose, because that is what strong men usually do when civil liberty is recovered.

In its remarkable statement of Friday, that "people here well know that Hill succeeded [in the election of 1888] only because he was able to sell a Presidency for a Governorship," the *Tribune* forgot for the moment that no man can sell unless some one else buys, and that if Hill sold the Presidency, then the Republicans bought it. The statement even goes further than that, for it amounts to an admission that the Republicans would not have elected Harrison if Hill had not given them Democratic votes for Harrison in return for Republican votes for Hill. To carry out this bargain, Hill had to betray Cleveland and the Republicans had to betray Warner Miller. The *Tribune* says directly that precisely this was done, for it declares that "Hill succeeded *only* because *he was able* to sell a Presidency for a Governorship." That means that if no such bargain had been executed, Cleveland would have been elected President and Miller would have been elected Governor. There is no other interpretation possible. That such a revelation should be made by the leading Republican organ of the country, whose editor is an appointee of Harrison, and consequently a subordinate of his Administration, and made without a sign of consciousness that it is in any way a shameful and disgracing disclosure, is astonishing.

Let us look for a moment at the elements which entered into this sale. Gov. Hill offered the Presidency, which carried with it the loss to the country of the best President it had had for many years, defeated the desire of the people for tariff reform and a reduction of taxation, and gave it instead the present Administration, which not only refuses tariff reform, but raises tariff duties and increases the burden of taxation, breaks all its most solemn reform pledges, and is giving the country the most profligate management of the various branches of the Government which has been known since President Grant's second term. In return for this service from Gov. Hill, the Republicans consented to turn the Government of the State of New York over to him for a third term, knowing that by so doing they were preventing all chance of high-license and probably of ballot-reform legislation for the next three years, and insuring during that period the continuation of a State administration which they are now denouncing daily as the worst which the State has ever seen. Their conduct in thus selling out the State for the Presidency was in accord with their conduct in running Col. Erhardt for Mayor and selling out the city in the same interest. To call a party capable of such infamies the "party of moral ideas," and to insist that it contains a larger part of the virtue and intelligence of the people, especially after its chief organ makes unblushing confession of them, are feats in audacity which ought to tax the capacities of even a muzzled journalist.

The *Tribune's* confession recalls the similar admission made in the Legislature, just about a year ago, by Mr. Ainsworth, a Republican Assemblyman, who had been chairman of a committee to investigate the ceiling scandal. That investigation had shown that the State had been robbed of about $100,000, because the Republicans had entered into a "deal" with Gov. Hill to divide the profits of the job. Mr. Ainsworth took the floor to explain the matter on February 27, and delivered a speech which closed with the following direct admission that, if the "deal" had not been arranged, Cleveland and not Harrison would have been elected President: "We ought not to have done it. We ought to have left it in the hands of Commissioner Perry, and let the politics take care of itself, and *we should have had a Democratic President instead of a Republican if we had done it.*" When that frank declaration was made, the *Tribune*, more cautious than it is now, carefully edited it into a harmless form. We tried in vain at that time to induce the *Tribune* to publish the official text of Mr. Ainsworth's speech. Now, after a year's meditation, it goes far beyond him, and declares that not only did the Republicans buy the Presidency, but they sold the Governorship to Hill as a part of the bargain. Mr. Ainsworth was refused a renomination because of his reckless exposure of party secrets, yet his offence was in every way less heinous than that of the *Tribune*, for he was not a member of the Harrison Administration, and did not speak with official authority, as the *Tribune* does.

The Young Men's Democratic Club of Boston has make a striking exhibit, based upon carefully collected figures from official sources, of the way in which civil-service reform was applied in Massachusetts during President Cleveland's Administration. There were, when that Administration began, on March 5, 1885, 2,256 employees in the Federal service of the State, distributed as follows: City post-offices, 874; town post-offices, 692; custom-houses, 483; miscellaneous, 207. Of these forces there were still in office on March 5, 1889, the following: City post-offices, 695; town post-offices, 323; custom-houses, 279; miscellaneous, 130; total, 1,427. In other words, nearly 65 per cent. of the Federal employees were allowed to remain undisturbed throughout the entire Cleveland Administration, though they were presumably nearly or quite all Republicans. The Custom-house figures emphasize the disgraceful conduct of the President in removing Collector Saltonstall before his term had expired, for they show, what is universally admitted, that Mr. Saltonstall had conducted the office in strict compliance with the Civil-Service Law, which the President had solemnly pledged himself to uphold.

Mr. Cleveland intends to have no misunderstanding concerning his attitude towards ballot reform. In a recent interview published in the Baltimore *Sun*, he says that he regards the official ballot as the "vital principle" of the reform; that to permit the use of an unofficial ballot "would leave the door as wide open as ever to bribery and corruption," and that an "official ballot only would sweep away to a very great extent, if not entirely, all excuse for campaign funds—that fruitful source of bribery and corruption; for if the State paid all the expenses of the elections, there would be little plea to levy assessments upon candidates and contributions from interested outsiders." These are the arguments which ballot-reformers have made from the outset of their movement as showing the superiority of their system over the bogus one advocated by Gov. Hill and Tammany Hall. There is one other which Mr. Cleveland did not mention, and that is, that until the adoption of the exclusive official-ballot system has removed all excuse for expenses of elections and assessments, and contributions to meet them, we cannot have an efficacious law limiting the expenditures of candidates and requiring sworn publication of all disbursements after election.

The departure of Dr. Nin, the delegate from Uruguay to the Pan-American Congress, on account of the necessity of meeting a prior engagement in England, gave him occasion to recapitulate the work of that body thus far, and to foreshadow the position of the South Americans on the main questions. He makes short work of the famous American Zollverein, saying that it could not be brought about without the cancellation of the treaties existing between South American countries and Europe, and hinting—always in courteous phrase, of course—that it is a trifle cool in the United States to dream of even proposing such a thing. On the project of a common silver coinage, also, Dr. Nin threw considerable cold water, remarking that, as far as Uruguay was concerned, there was no prospect of adopting any other than a gold standard, with silver used merely for subsidiary coins. The Argentine Republic will undoubtedly say the same thing. Some of the Central American republics, on the other hand, are much in favor of the scheme, and it is possible that they, with perhaps one or two South American countries, may make an agreement with the United States on their own account. The project as reported seems to provide for such a thing. But even so, as the foreign delegates understand perfectly, the silver question is at present such a football in our Congress that the most perfect Pan-American measure is as likely to be killed incontinently as to be endorsed. As to matters of copyright, extradition, and commercial law, Dr. Nin points out with much justice that the Montevideo Congress took the lead in all those matters for South America, and that the simplest thing for us to do is to give in our adhesion to the results there reached. As to subsidized steamships, the delegate from Uruguay expresses the willingness of his country to let us spend our whole surplus in that amusement if we are bent on it.

THE BRATTLEBORO POST-OFFICE.

THE town of Brattleboro, Vt., represents perhaps as high a type of intelligence and civic virtue as any place of its size in the country, or in the world. It has about 10,000 inhabitants, and about four-fifths of its voters are Republicans. It is the home of Col. Hooker, the Vermont member of the National Republican Committee, and formerly Secretary of said Committee. Its Postmaster is Capt. F. W. Childs, who was appointed by President Cleveland in January, 1886. As all such appointments are made for four years, and as Capt. Childs had been allowed to serve out his term, it became necessary in due course for Congressman Grout to be looking for a successor. But before any selection had been made, there was put into his hands a petition signed by about 800 Republicans of Brattleboro, and of the vicinity served by the Brattleboro Post-office, asking for the reappointment of the Democratic Postmaster, Childs. No encomiums upon Mr. Childs's management of the Post-office could add anything to this unexampled endorsement of his neighbors who were at the same time his political opponents.

When this petition was received at Washington, a hasty consultation was held by the Vermont delegation. The number and character of the petitioners were too formidable to be ignored or set aside. But the example of appointing a Democrat to an office in the gift of a Republican Administration was held to be extremely dangerous. So it was decided to refer the subject back to the Republican voters of Brattleboro, to be decided by them at a caucus to be held under the direction of the Republican Town Committee. Meanwhile Col. Hooker had procured a Republican candidate for the office, Mr. G. A. Hines, a perfectly reputable man connected with the Estey Organ Works, although Col. Estey himself was an active supporter of Mr. Childs. Col. Estey, by the way, is the President of the Vermont League of Republican Clubs.

The Republican Town Committee fixed the day for the caucus and the qualifications of voters, and appointed judges of the election. The qualifications were that the person offering to vote had voted for Harrison at the last Presidential election, or that, being a minor then, his sympathies were with the Republican party in that campaign. Women who were taxpayers and twenty-one years of age, and of Republican sympathies, were also allowed to vote. The election was very exciting, but very orderly. Party lines were drawn as tightly as they could be in a case where only one party was allowed to vote. Col. Hooker marshalled the regulars with the assistance of a Special Agent of the Treasury. The only Federal office-holder in that quarter who appeared to take no interest in the proceedings was Capt. Childs himself. From the beginning to the end he stayed inside his office and gave the strictest attention to the United States mails. The Brattleboro *Phœnix*, the Republican newspaper of the town, supported Capt. Childs with vigor, candor, and fearlessness.

When the day of election came, all the factories were closed, all business was suspended, carriages and hacks flew hither and thither to bring in the aged and infirm, the infant population was stirred as though Buffalo Bill were coming, and rival dinner parties for the ladies were given by Mrs. Hooker and Mrs. Estey. Woman suffrage appears to have won a triumph. Says the *Phœnix:*

"The novel and interesting feature of the afternoon, as expected, was the appearance of women as voters in the meeting. A contingent of ladies took seats in the gallery as spectators at the opening of the meeting, and remained during the afternoon. Early among the women voters was Mrs. Edward Crosby, who accompanied her husband to the polls to cast her vote for Mr. Childs. Shortly after three o'clock a procession of fifty women, led by Mrs. J. J. Estey and Mrs. O. A. Marshall, marched in orderly array across the street from the Brooks House and entered the hall. These were the Childs contingent. There was a pleasant ripple of sensation as they entered. The men who filled the hall made way for them, they were given seats in front, and the polling of their votes began and went on in a very matter-of-fact way. After the first, indeed, there was little to indicate that the women were not veterans at the polls. Before their votes had all been cast, Mrs. Hooker and Mrs. Jenne appeared with the Hines contingent of ten or twelve women in a body, whose votes were also cast in due time. Besides these women who voted in a body, the zealous women workers on both sides brought in a scattering of voters throughout the afternoon and evening, marching their several charges to the polls and 'voting' them in the most approved and business-like way."

There was very little challenging. No Democrats were challenged, because none offered to vote. Two or three Prohibitionists were challenged and their votes rejected because they had voted for Clinton B. Fisk for President. The result of the election was as follows: For Childs, 467; for Hines, 401. A majority of the men and also a majority of the women voted for Childs. When the result was announced, there was a tremendous cheer from the victorious side, and then the citizens dispersed to their several homes. The chairman of the caucus made a certified return of the result, and Col. Estey took it to Washington. A telegram to the Boston *Journal* says that the friends of Mr. Hines telegraphed asking a stay of proceedings until they could present their side of the case, but that the Vermont delegation telegraphed back that unless there was fraud in the management of the caucus they should abide by the decision and recommend the reappointment of Mr. Childs. That was ten days ago, since when there has been a rather ominous silence at Washington. But the New England Republican press, including the Boston *Journal* and the Rutland *Herald*, approve of the reappointment of Mr. Childs.

This case is in many respects unique, and is most gratifying and encouraging to the friends of civil-service reform. There are, perhaps, not many postmasters whose personal qualities would secure for them such a triumph over party spirit as Capt. Childs secured from the Republicans of Brattleboro. But here is a case where faithful performance of duty has been deemed by the witnesses of it the best possible title to office, and where the most strenuous efforts of one of the most skilful party managers in the country has been completely baffled and paralyzed, in his own camp, by a man of the opposite political faith who did nothing but attend to his official duties. One such example is more effective in the way of advancing the cause of reform than a thousand speeches in or out of Congress. It is unanswerable, like a victory on the field of arms.

THE PARNELL REPORT.

THE unfortunate judges who sat for a year on the London *Times* pamphlet called 'Parnellism and Crime,' have laid their report before Parliament. Most of our readers have probably forgotten by this time that what led to the formation of this extraordinary tribunal was not the disturbed state of Ireland, or the boycotting or intimidation practised in that country against landlords who evicted tenants or refused to lower rents, or against tenants who paid high rents or took farms from which other tenants had been evicted. All this was matter of what lawyers call common knowledge. Every newspaper reader was familiar with it. It was a story, in most of its features, about one hundred years old. Three or four Government commissions had investigated it and made substantially the same report, and it had, in the years 1883-'87, been abundantly illustrated in the trial of offenders in the courts all over Ireland.

What brought about the appointment of the Commission was the charge made by the *Times* in the above-mentioned pamphlet, which had an enormous sale and undoubtedly powerfully influenced English opinion on the Irish question, that certain Irish members of Parliament, about sixty in number, with Parnell at the head of them, had not only failed to condemn murder and outrage in Ireland, but had secretly instigated the murderers, and had supplied funds to enable them to carry out their designs and to escape after the commission of their crimes. It was this charge against members of the House which brought matters to a crisis. Parnell asked for a committee of the House to investigate these charges. For the granting of a committee under such circumstances there were plenty of precedents. In fact, it might be said to be the usage of the House to grant it. Such a committee has the great advantage over a court of law that it is not bound by the rules of evidence. It can summon anybody it pleases and make him tell all he knows. Parnell wanted it in order to find out where the *Times* got the letters connecting him with the Phœnix Park murders, which it attributed to him. He could hardly contest their authenticity, except by a naked denial, without knowing something of their history—that is, where the *Times* got them, and why it believed in their genuineness. The importance of this is plain at a glance. Every man who is confronted with a forged letter is entitled to know how it got into his accuser's hands.

The Government, when it refused the Committee of Inquiry, urged Parnell to bring an action against the *Times* in a court of law and offered to pay the expenses of the suit. But he declined this offer, on the ground that it would not secure him the testimony neces-

sary to his defence, and that in the then state of English opinion, powerfully influenced as it must have been by the *Times* articles, he was very unlikely to get fair play from a London jury. This position was curiously sustained very shortly afterwards by an action brought by a certain O'Donnell against the *Times* for connecting him with the murders. The Attorney-General, who appeared for the *Times*, produced the forged letters in evidence, but informed the jury that under no circumstances would he reveal the manner in which they came into his client's possession; that sooner than do so he would submit to a non-suit. All the proof of authenticity he offered was the evidence of experts as to the signatures. This showed clearly what Parnell had to expect in a court of law, if he entered it with nothing but his denial to protect him against the letters.

The outcome of the wrangle was the appointment of the Commission—an absolute novelty both in jurisprudence and politics. Parnell and the Liberals protested against it, but it promised much better results than a jury trial. In the matter of the letters, however, he would not have fared much better before it than before an ordinary court, but for the accidental discovery, made by Patrick Egan in this country, of the resemblance between certain phrases in the forged letters and in letters he had himself written to Pigott. This gave the clue which led to Pigott's breakdown. But the *Times* experts stood ready in court to prove Parnell's signature before the Commission, as they had done in the O'Donnell trial, and the Attorney-General tried to introduce them before Pigott's examination.

The only really important part of the Judges' findings, therefore, is that relating to the *direct* participation of Irish members of Parliament in the promotion or commission of crime and outrage. On this they speak with authority. On the question whether outrages were *indirectly* due to the action or teaching of the Land League, or to the speeches of certain orators, or to the articles in certain newspapers, the opinion of judges is no better than that of other men of a similar grade of intelligence, and not nearly so good as that of men in political life, familiar with recent Irish history and with the social condition of the country.

We may say, therefore, that when the Commission finds that eight Irishmen, all members of Parliament except Davitt, joined the Land League "with the intention by its means to bring about the absolute independence of Ireland," they utter a political opinion which has no peculiar value. The same thing may be said of the second finding, that these persons entered into a conspiracy "to promote an agrarian agitation for the purpose of impoverishing and expelling from the country the Irish landlords." Their acquittal on the charge of "insincerity" in denouncing crimes in public, may be estimated in the same way. The finding that the Parnell letters were forged is, however, a judicial finding, and conclusive. So is the finding that the respondents circulated the *Irish World* and other papers, inciting to sedition and other crimes. It may be said in general terms that their conclusions about matters of fact are entitled to the utmost respect; their conclusions about motives, or tendencies, or remote consequences, to none except what is due to the utterances of men of high character in an unfamiliar field. They acquit Parnell absolutely of knowing of the organization of crime by Sheridan or Boyton; of intimacy with the leading Invincibles; of assisting Frank Byrne to escape from justice—in fact, of all the charges of any moment made against him in the *Times* pamphlet. It was these charges which caused all the trouble.

The *Times* meets the conclusions of the judges, in thoroughly journalistic fashion, by saying: "If on certain points we are held not to have established our statements, the general effect of what we have said remains unshaken." It would be difficult to get more absurdity into the same number of lines. The points on which it "failed to establish its statements" were the important ones which led to the inquiry, and the proposition that this has made no difference as to the "general effect" is profoundly fatuous.

THE NEW WINE IN THE OLD GERMAN BOTTLES.

The Germans are just now receiving a new and valuable, though perhaps not very agreeable, lesson in politics. The Empire is an immense political machine, which has been in existence only twenty years, and the management of which has been thus far in the hands of one man of extraordinary ability. No experience acquired in the government of the German States before the foundation of the Empire was of much use in preparing any one to take charge of the new organization. Not only is it larger and more ponderous than any of the old governments, but it has brought into existence a new society, far busier, far more enterprising and active, and with far vaster and more complicated economic interests than anything known in Germany before. In fact, anybody who knew the old Prussia of 1850 would, if he had been out of the world since then, hardly recognize the new Prussia as the same State, and the same thing may be said of various other members of the Confederation. The difficulties and dangers of the Imperial Government have been concealed until lately by the prestige of Bismarck, and the complete acquiescence of the old Emperor in his policy. But it is now easy to see that, even before the Emperor's death, the new society which was produced by the French war was becoming something more than either or both of them was quite able to understand or manage. The Prussia in which both of them felt at home was the old military Prussia of Frederick the Great, in which there were nobles and peasants and an army, but in which there was no trouble about trade, or commerce, or manufactures, or colonization, no rich bourgeoisie, and no socialists, and no paupers who could not be kept quiet with a rattan.

Accordingly, even during the last years of the old monarch's life, the attempts of his Chancellor to grapple with the intricate social and economical problems of a modern State began to excite more or less uneasiness, which, however, was kept down by the confidence of the world in the character and attainments of the Emperor Frederick, whose accession to the throne was looked for every month during the ten years before his lamented death. He was a man of mature age, of great enlightenment, and perfectly conscious of the enormous changes in the relations of a monarch towards the community which had been wrought by the advance of science, the growth of trade, the increase of population and of facility of communication. Nothing, therefore, was feared, and much was hoped, from his inheriting the crown by his father's death. He was relied on to establish in Germany, on sure and lasting foundations, the only kind of monarchy which is possible in our modern commercial States, namely, a limited monarchy with a Ministry composed of well-known men practically, if not theoretically, responsible to Parliament and public opinion.

He has been succeeded by a young man thirty-one years of age, who has had no experience of any affairs except those of a military barrack. He would not, were he not born to the purple, be intrusted with the command of a regiment or the management of a bank, or get a professorship in a university, or more than a very subordinate place in the Government service, or be listened to with patience on any financial or economical question by any skilled audience. His claim to head a Ministry or to shape legislation would be treated with ridicule in England, and he could not in this country get a place of any responsibility in any large commercial house on any terms, or get a seat even in the Harrison Cabinet, without a very heavy contribution to the campaign funds.

There must therefore be something startling for the new Germans, who have to hold their own among states ruled by men of ripe age and long experience, to find this young soldier, who ought not to aspire to a post of any greater responsibility in the world than the command of a company of infantry, setting up as an economist, and, merely by the weight of his ill-considered and rash utterances on social questions, throwing the whole community into a ferment, and exciting among the poor and ignorant those extravagant expectations as to the possibilities of human society which will probably constitute, during the next fifty years, the greatest difficulty with which civilized government will have to deal. Probably nothing could bring out more clearly the radical defect of hereditary monarchy in the modern world. In the age when the chief business of every government was fighting, or getting ready to fight, youth and inexperience were hardly flaws in the sovereign's character. Young men are the best fighting men, and the less experience they have, the better material are they for military purposes. Consequently no great harm was done when an old king left the crown to a young heir. Nor does it much matter what the monarch's age and qualities may be

in a constitutional monarchy like England, where the King is an ornamental person without serious duties. But a young Plantagenet or Tudor reigning over modern England, claiming the right to instruct bankers how to bank, merchants how to trade, professors how to teach, and editors how to write, and ministers how to legislate, would produce a revolution in a few months; and yet this, or something like this, is what the Germans of to-day have to put up with.

INCOME AND COSTS OF LIVING.

ONE of the most familiar of financial facts, and one which has often racked painfully the pocket nerve of householders, has been the steady decline for years of the rate of interest on first-class American investments. To show justly this decline during a series of years is not quite so easy as it seems. We meet at the outset the difficulty of selecting the period with the beginning of which the comparison of the present interest rate shall be made. We cannot, with fairness, choose for this purpose either the "panic year" of 1873 or any one of the few years immediately preceding, when new railroad enterprises were ballooning, speculation was rampant, over-confidence universal, and the business of the country inflated to a bubble which was so soon and so disastrously to burst. Probably the best period to take for a contrast with the present time is February of 1875. Then the great panic of 1873 was a year and a quarter in the past, and, though times were still hard, timid investors had begun to seek the safer kinds of securities, and, partly in consequence, dividends and interest began that steady decline in proportion to the amounts invested which has continued ever since.

What has that decline been in fifteen years? To indicate it approximately we have made below comparisons of the returns paid during February of 1875 and during the present month on ten kinds of "gilt-edged" securities. In the case of the bonds the returns have been based on the interest tables; and as gold stood at 114 fifteen years ago, the premium has been added then to the interest of two securities cited that pay in gold. In every case but one the computation is made on market prices of the securities as quoted at the New York Stock Exchange in February of 1875 and during the last few days:

Securities.	Interest on investment.	
	1875.	1890.
Union Pacific 1st mortgage	7.69	3.87
Central Pacific 1st mortgage	7.25	3.87
United States currency 6s	4.65	2.75
New York Central stock	7.92	4.24
N. Y. and New Haven R. R. stock	7.50	4.00
Morris and Essex R. R. stock	7.30	4.66
Harlem 1st mortgage 7s	6.25	3.80
C., B. and Q. 1st mortgage 7s	6.87	4.35
Lake Shore 1st mortgage 7s	7.00	4.00
Loans on Eastern realty	7.00	5.00
Average rate per cent	6.94	4.05

The difference, it will be seen, in the average rate of income on the ten securities is 2.89 per cent., or a decline of about 41.6 per cent. in the income itself. Put a little more concretely, it may be stated thus: A man investing $100,000 in cash during February of 1875 in the list of securities named, and putting $10,000 in each, would have received from them (on the basis of the interest tables) an annual income of $6,940. Investing the same sum now, he obtains, by the tables, but $4,050—a decrease of $2,890, or about 41.6 per cent. of his former income, as has been stated. The reduction, of course, affects in greater or less degree everybody who has safely invested funds.

What ratio does this decrease of income bear to the fall in household costs of living during the same time? This is a far more intricate problem, involving many wide variations. In selecting the locality for the comparison, it would manifestly be irrational to choose a stagnant and remote country district, or, on the other hand, a large city, where the perturbations of rent alone might vitiate the figures. We have taken, therefore, as a mean between these two extremes a city of fair size, conservative in local temper, growing at a moderate pace, and situated at about two hours' journey from New York. In the table annexed, the rise or fall during the fifteen years of nineteen articles of cost of living to the householder is figured out in percentages, and marked with the plus or minus sign. Clothing is omitted, as it is not a branch of strictly household expense. The prices have been obtained with the utmost care from actual book accounts, often verified over and over again, and, in case of different grades of the same article, carefully averaged.

Taxes	+26.6	Pork	—14.2
Coal	—35.3	Poultry	00.0
Insurance	—14 3	Butter	—22.2
Gas	—50.0	Sugar	—33.0
Rents	00.0	Coffee	—22.2
House wages	+14.2	Potatoes	—35.0
Beef (roast)	—12.0	Flour	—35.3
Beef (sirloin)	—8.0	Fresh fish	—13.3
Mutton	—12.0	Oysters	—20.0
Ham	00.0		

If we average the fall of prices on the foregoing nineteen items, we shall find it is about 15 per cent. But, as the nineteen enter into the costs of living in greatly varying proportions, no such average can be made the basis of calculation. It is far more significant to observe that in only one case (50 per cent. reduction in gas) does the fall in price exceed the 41.6 per cent. decline in the income on investments—and as to gas we leave it to householders' experience whether the decrease in their bills is actually the 50 per cent. which we are forced to figure in the rate charged per thousand cubic feet. Taking nine of the most important branches of expense named—taxes, house wages, beef (2), coal, rents, flour, butter, and fish—the average decrease is but about 8½ per cent. The most extreme estimate will hardly place the real decline in cost of living on the nineteen items at more than 14 per cent., or about one-third of the 41.6 per cent. reduction in income.

Some causes of this great disparity between the fall of the interest rate and of the chief necessities of life will readily present themselves. In the first place, wages, salaries, the earnings of the professions, and probably the profits of thriving business, show slight reductions, if any, during the fifteen years, so that the economic influence of the immense classes represented by those industries or vocations is not exerted very actively towards a reduction of the prices of necessities. Secondly, there are the Trusts, whose work in augmenting prices can readily be traced in a number of the branches of expense that have been named. Finally, there can be little doubt of the growth, both absolute and relative, of a "surplus-income" class, saving money each year for investment, to whom good security is more important than a high rate, with its attendant dangers and vexations. Consequently, their demand forces the price of "gilt-edged" securities up and the rate of interest down. To this group belongs also the "trustee class," individual and corporative, whose large accumulations must by law seek conservative investments. Whether these three factors account fully for the great disparity between the fall of income and of cost of living may be left to the political economist, as well as the obscurer question whether the rate of interest is to turn upward or continue to run down. But, aside from these abstruser problems, the mere comparison of his reduced income with his much less reduced cost of living cannot fail to have a practical interest for every householder who owns stocks or bonds.

"THE FRUITS OF CIVILIZATION."

A LIFE-LONG friend of Count L. N. Tolstoi describes, for one of the St. Petersburg newspapers, some private theatricals at which he was present on the 30th of December (O. S.), at the Count's country-house, Yasnaya Polyana. The performance took place in the presence of about fifty guests. The comedy, entitled "The Fruits of Civilization," was furnished by Count Tolstoi; the performers were members of his family and friends. The author produced the comedy from his portfolio, where it has long lain; but in the course of the rehearsals, in which, as well as in mounting the piece, he took an active part, he made many changes, as the necessity for them became apparent. This four-act comedy is designed to ridicule spiritualism, and was carried out by twenty-seven actors. The stage scenery was prepared at home by the performers; a hairdresser from Tula had charge of the actors' make-up.

The first act opens in the vestibule of the town house of a wealthy and well-born believer in spiritualism, *Leonid Feodorovitch*, whose wife, *Anna Pavlovna*, a frivolous person, is terribly afraid of all sorts of infectious diseases, and is in constant consultation with the doctor. The daughter, *Betsy*, is a fashionable young person, engrossed in society. The son, *Vasili*, is an idle fellow who is constantly bent on borrowing money. The curtain rises on the first act. The chambermaid, *Tania*, a clever, handsome, and honest peasant girl, is courted by the lackey *Grigory*, whom she rejects, preferring a peasant named *Semyon*, who serves

in the house as assistant to the butler. *Semyon* is a handsome, healthy young fellow. Various persons pass through the vestibule, including the doctor and a young fop, *Petristcheff*, a friend of the son of the house, who is paying court to *Betsy*. The fop and *Vasili* are dressed like fashion-plates, belong to the Bicycle Club, and are trying to borrow three hundred rubles in order that they may become members of the Sporting Club. The money will, of course, be furnished by *Vasili's* mother. Three peasants make their appearance—deputies sent by the village community on *Leonid's* Kursk estate, with a written contract, to ask that their master will sell them some land which is indispensable for them, since, to quote the words of the eldest of the peasants, "They have too little land; there is no place to let their cattle or even their poultry run." This peasant has in his boot four thousand rubles, which have been collected by the village community for the purchase of the land. One of the peasants is a relative of *Tania*, another of *Semyon*. The peasants request *Tania* and the pompous major domo and valet, *Feodor Ivanovitch*, to announce their arrival. Their explanations with the major domo are extremely amusing. *Leonid Feodorovitch* comes out to speak with the peasants, but, being a man of very undecided character, he says that he cannot make up his mind to sell the land. Being a spiritualist, he considers it indispensable to take counsel of the spirits. The peasants entreat him in every possible way, but *Leonid* defers the answer for a time. But his son talks a great deal about the money which the peasants have brought, and enters into conversation with them on the profits to be got from planting mint, in the fashion of ignorant city people. At this point, the mistress, on her way to make calls, enters the vestibule, flies into a terrible passion at the peasants having been admitted there, since heaven knows what disease they may have brought with them. Her husband would like to stop her, but cannot make up his mind to do so, which fact does not escape the observant peasants, who see that their master fears his wife.

The master finally refuses to sell the land, the spirits having probably advised him not to do so. The peasants are turned out, but are accorded asylum in the kitchen, thanks to *Tania* and *Feodor*, who promise to make an effort to get them the land; and the peasants, who have borne themselves in a hostile manner towards *Tania*, because of her dainty airs, become more friendly. At the end of the act, the crafty *Tania* begs that her master will listen to what she has to say. She tells him that *Semyon* is courting her, but that she is afraid! "Of what?" She has noticed supernatural manifestations in him; thus, when he begins to eat cabbage soup, the spoon moves of itself. Her master recognizes him as a medium and advises *Tania* not to be afraid, as he will test *Semyon's* powers.

Act second takes place in the kitchen, where the three peasants are drinking tea and chatting with the cook, who is telling them about the life led by her masters, their freaks, business, riding on bicycles, costumes, balls, food, and so forth, all this being interlarded with the witty comments of the peasants, and presenting a remarkably humorous picture of manners and customs. The preparation of cutlets for the poodle amazes the peasants. While they are drinking tea, the steward, *Semyon*, and another lackey enter the kitchen, and the conversation turns upon the land, as all of them belong by birth to the same class, and hope to return to the land. *Tania* also enters, and holds out hopes to them that they will get their land; whereupon even the surliest of them approves of her. At this same time the hypnotizer, *Spüller*, is holding a séance above stairs. All at once the fop *Petristcheff* rushes into the kitchen, just as the peasants have lain down to sleep. He must hide a key for *Spüller* to find. The best place he can hit upon is the boot of the peasant who has charge of the communal money, and who, of course, is terribly alarmed, thinking that the fop is after his money. This scene is very amusing. A few minutes later, all the ladies and gentlemen enter, accompanied by *Spüller* with bandaged eyes, who finds the key, while the peasant falls on his knees and swears that he did not steal it. Here ensues a very interesting explanation between the professor and *Sakhatoff*, a sceptical landed proprietor. *Petristcheff* pays court to *Betsy*, and the mistress of the house again flies into a passion because the peasants have been admitted to the kitchen, and orders them to be driven out. The thoroughly frightened peasants wish to go, but *Tania* takes them to the steward's quarters. The second act is very lively, and contains a mass of comical scenes and confrontations. The practical sense of the peasants and their views with regard to everything which their superiors do so *queerly*, are brought out in high relief.

Act third takes place in *Leonid Feodorovitch's* drawing-room. Preparations are in progress for a séance and the evocation of spirits. Prof. *Alexiei Vladimirovitch* is conversing with *Leonid*, and in consequence of the news that a celebrated medium will not be able to come, they decide to test the powers of the butler's assistant *Semyon*, whom *Leonid* has recognized as a medium. *Tania* and *Feodor* prepare everything for the séance, and *Tania* stretches threads all across the room, which no one notices. Then she smears *Semyon's* hands with phosphorus, and instructs him how to behave, how to feign sleep, how to bear himself during the whole séance and what to do. (She had seen such séances previously.) Having thus coached *Semyon*, *Tania* places the communal contract on the table, not far from the accessories of the séance—the guitar and harmonica—and conceals herself behind the divan, being dressed in a gown which resembles the colors of the wall hangings.

The guests assemble. One fat dame talks much of herself, her nerves, and her diseases. The professor explains the theory of spiritualism, and groups all manifestations under certain laws, like a science, and tries to find scientific answers to the pressing questions put by the ever-doubting *Sakhatoff*. *Leonid* gets angry, because everything is so plain and simple that there is no necessity for chattering and losing time. The lamps and candles are extinguished, the séance begins. Some one becomes terrified, the fat dame tries to leave the room, *Petristcheff* courts *Betsy* and talks with her, while *Tania*, raising the threads which she has stretched across the room, catches with them first one and then another of the guests, which frightens them, and leads *Leonid Feodorovitch* and the professor to the undoubted conclusion that the spirit of a certain monk Nikolai is present. Then, as a consequence of the contract being on the table, the question is asked: "Ought this document to be signed?" and a spirit replies, of course by knocks (produced by *Tania*), that the document must be signed. With *Tania's* assistance the guitar and harmonica play in the dark, and the guitar raps the master of the house on the head. *Semyon*, having been put to sleep by *Spüller*, indulges in various gesticulations; in short, the séance is perfectly successful, as may be imagined. *Leonid Feodorovitch* and the professor are thoroughly convinced and content. The contract is signed then and there. The act closes with a dispute between the professor and *Sakhatoff*, who still refuses to believe, holds a bit of the thread, which he has found, in his hand, and demands explanations on every point.

The fourth and last act takes place, like the first, in the vestibule. *Leonid Feodorovitch* has been having a reception day, and the guests are departing. The lackeys again begin to discuss their masters and mistresses. A princess and a countess, with their daughters, pass through the vestibule, and chatter fashionably. At length the mistress of the house enters, and the lacky, *Grigory*, complains that *Semyon* has beaten him. His mistress grows angry, but *Feodor* explains that it is on account of *Tania*, who is an honest girl and wishes to marry *Semyon*. *Grigory*, in his wrath, tells of *Tania's* capers during the séance. *Anna Pavlovna* immediately summons her husband, and informs him with malicious pleasure that he has been deceived. But neither *Leonid Feodorovitch* nor the professor, who hurries in, is in the least abashed by these pretended discoveries. The professor even declares that if there existed a desire on the part of *Tania* to cheat, it had certainly been inspired in her by the spirits, of course! And with this the play closes.

THE PATRIMONY OF THE POOR IN ITALY.

MANTUA, January 26, 1890.

THE new "project of law" on charitable institutions (*Opere Pie*), or, as they are now styled, public institutions of beneficence, presented in February, 1889, to the Chamber of Deputies, amended by a parliamentary committee, and discussed during the month of December, was passed by 198 yeas to 96 nays, and is now in the hands of the Senate, whose members, it is pretty well known, will not introduce any fundamental modifications. Ever since Italy became a nation, statesmen, legislators, philanthropists, and social economists have devoted their attention to these 22,000 institutions, to this property of over $400,000,000, yielding an income of $27,000,000, which, despite the addition of $10,000,000 spent annually by the communes and provinces in what is called "legal charity," seems to effect little or nothing for the relief of the poverty-stricken populations or for the diminution of their number. The reform of the *Opere Pie* was one of the first reforms undertaken by the governors and dictators of the liberated provinces in 1859, the spirit of the times inspiring the reformers to concentrate the utmost powers in the hands of the new Government. After the death of Cavour and the unification of the north and the southern kingdoms, Minghetti proposed and Rattazzi amended the bill which, sanctioned in August, 1862, is still the law of the land. The guardianship of all charitable institutions was declared to devolve on local governments; the commune, the province, the "region" were to become henceforward the proprietors. The autonomy of each institution was to be maintained, and, as far as possible, the will of the original testators to be respected. In the first volume of 'L'Italia Economica,' published in 1873, this law is lauded to the skies; but a diligent examination of its effects, made chiefly by the party now in power, then in opposition, proved that the law, defective in itself, was disregarded in nine cases out of ten, and that the patrimony of the poor was in many cases appropriated by the rich, often squandered and applied to purposes quite other than those designated by the pious or remorseful

men and women of olden time, who bequeathed their substance from benevolent motives, or as atonement for their sins in the hope of making their peace with heaven.

Hence a radical reform of all charitable institutions was one of the pledges given by the Liberals while they were struggling to overthrow the Moderates; and to their credit be it said that the first Liberal Ministry (Premier Nicotera) set to work in practical earnest to redeem the pledge. On the 20th of April, 1876, Nicotera appointed a commission "to study and propose those reforms and ameliorations in the methods of public charity which, called for by the progress of civilization, should safeguard the patrimony of the poor, and promote an honest and economical application of the income." The members were all intelligent, and some were versed in the subject, such as Scotti and Pasquale Villari, then entirely devoted to social questions. Meanwhile Nicotera charged Caravaggio, Director-in-Chief of the Department of Charitable Institutions as it then existed, to draw up a project of law which be submitted to the Commissioners, and which was in reality the father of the present still more radical measure, aiming at a complete transformation of "public beneficence": alms-giving, promiscuous charity, to be abolished; only the old, the infirm, the sick, the demented, the deaf, the dumb, young orphans and children abandoned by their natural protectors, to be maintained by public charity as long—and only as long—as these latter were incapable of maintaining themselves; the surplus of lands and building funds to be "transformed"; institutions of credit, savings banks, and above all, industrial schools and colleges, to be set on foot so that the rising generation should learn to live by the sweat of their brow, and put by for their old age when they could work no more.

Naturally, this sweeping project made mincemeat of the original intentions of the testators, and paid not much more deference to their executors. The Commissioners found it too radical, and presented a less audacious yet very radical counter project. Nicotera laid his own bill before the House, but, as he resigned shortly after, it was never even reported on. Three years passed in constant recriminations on the part of the Radicals, and the press took up the matter, thoroughly exposing the shameful abuses, the scandalous malversation, of many of the charitable institutions, and in 1880 cautious Depretis presented a *leggina*—a little law, as he called it—for the correction of the most notorious abuses and the introduction of certain inevitable reforms, and meanwhile appointed a grand commission to make fresh inquiries, etc., etc.; this to prevent the Radicals from taking the bit between their teeth and returning to the propositions of Nicotera-Caravaggio. Unlike many of its predecessors, this Commission has done much good, steady, practical work. It has, as far as it has been able, "taken stock" of all existing property, and published eight volumes of results. The fifth of these volumes is very useful, containing the replies of the prefects, syndics, and local commissions to the several "catechisms" put to them by the Commissioners. The sixth contains the answers of the present administrators when they have vouchsafed any. The seventh contains the ministerial project of 1862; the eighth the report of the Director-General of Statistics (indefatigable Bodio) on the general results of the inquiry. Hence it will be perceived that Crispi and Crispi's commission found the greater part of the work done by their predecessors, the material ready to their hands, which, however, as they fully acknowledge their debt, does not diminish the merit of this most energetic of men and most audacious of premiers since Cavour in having drawn up a bill, mild in its form, but most radical in its substance, which could get itself passed within the year of its presentation. The Commission also deserves considerable praise for the modifications introduced with such tact and wisdom as to avoid violent opposition in Parliament, and obtain the adhesion, often reluctantly given, of the redoubtable Premier himself.

An analysis of the new law in all particulars is impossible, and not very profitable for foreign readers. Let us take its leading features. Is the will of the testator as to the aim of the charity to be absolutely respected? A glance at some of the titles of these will furnish the answer. Out of a list of 21,819 charitable institutions, exclusive of pawnshops, loan societies, etc., we have 2,368 exclusively dedicated to religious purposes, 3,416 to religion and charity. Other 4,213 come under the same category, whereas the general hospitals are but 1,291, special hospitals 62. In the most delicate manner the Commissioners inform the people and its representatives that "there exists no nation whose legislation does not recognize the right of the State to change the object of public charity, if the original recipient has ceased to exist or to need the boon, or if the social needs of the times render the legacy useless." Here follow examples of theories expressed and mutations effected by popes and princes, by the Church, and by many States. Then come precedents in Italy itself.

"We have never denied the right of the State, or deprived ourselves of the power of suppressing religious corporations and ecclesiastical foundations, and handing over their property to the National Treasury. Now, between suppressing certain bodies and sequestrating their possessions, and merely transferring the funds which have hitherto been devoted to one charity to another, there is a considerable difference."

This is not a happy line of argument to my mind, and of course the Papal party and many of the Moderates pierce this joint in the armor of the Commission. "State might means State right," say they. "Because you have made wholesale depredations, you use the great wrong done as a justification of the smaller wrong meditated." Better have been silent and said simply what follows: "When the necessity of suppressing, or reforming, or transforming a charitable institution is manifest, the parties interested, the local authorities and the Council of State, must be *heard*." I underline the word heard because the old law gave the Council of State the power of veto; now that august body is only asked for its "opinion."

The Commission has been very chary in enumerating the institutions which no longer respond to the wants of present times. The endowments of convents, monasteries, hermitages, and retreats, etc., come under this head. The subsidies to prisoners and condemned criminals are to be transferred to the fund for assisting the liberated prisoners until they have found work. Other legacies—for conservatories where neither education is imparted nor work enforced, retreats for pilgrims, funds left to pious orders—are to be separately considered, and the special aims to which they shall be devoted afresh decided on. The question of dowries to young girls gave rise to a warm discussion. Each separate legacy is to be revised. The legacies for religious purposes are also to be revised. If considered necessary to the wants of the population, they are to be retained; otherwise, devoted to other purposes, and in most cases the hospitals and the relief of the sick will be thus benefited. With regard to the charitable institutions of "heretics," great care has been taken to reserve their rights—an obviously just provision, as in most cases their poor are excluded from the benefit of purely Catholic charities. In 1887 it was ascertained that Jews had 141 charitable institutions, with a (gross) income of $80,300; the Protestants 12, income $14,000; the Greeks 4, income $11,000. Clearly, no idea of confiscation has been entertained by the Commission, but a cautious examination of all that now forms the patrimony of the poor is their object.

The next question is, Who are to be the future administrators? In order to show on whom are to devolve the separate or amalgamated administrations of charitable institutions, or public beneficence in general, it is necessary to refer to the new communal and provincial law under which the late general administrative elections were effected. This reform act nearly doubled the body of electors by giving the vote to all males of one and twenty who can read and write; the proof of their capacity so to do consisting merely in their making the demand for registration, and stating name, age, parentage, and domicile in the presence of a notary and three witnesses. By the same law the syndic, hitherto named "by the King," is, save in small communes, chosen by secret ballot by the executive or *giunta* previously elected by the communal counsellors. All electors are eligible save ecclesiastics, parish priests, civil servants whose office is to superintend the affairs of the commune, and their paid servants. The law, though in many points defective, leaving the municipalities still in too great dependence on the prefect (*i. e.*, on the political agent of the Government), is, on the whole, liberal, and the utmost pains have been taken to prevent bribery and corruption or the tampering with votes once recorded. The communal electors on the same day elect the provincial counsellors. As yet no great changes have been brought about, but it is not true that the reformed act has, "like mist, left things as they found them." The Italians, unlike Anglo-Saxon races, do not yet thoroughly appreciate the value of the right to vote for their representatives, political or administrative; and scarcely more than half the registered electors took the trouble to present themselves in the electoral halls and register their votes. This is a defect which time will mend. When the agricultural populations understand, as the working classes in the cities do already, that their special interests are affected by the presence of capable and honest administrators at the town hall, they will take pains to fix on these and to secure their election. Meanwhile the Government can do no more than accord their right to use or to neglect.

The question of the future administration of charitable institutions is materially affected by these considerations. For even as the entire male population who can read and write elect the counsellors of the town, so these in their turn elect the members of the Congregations of Charity, who henceforward are to become the administrators of the institutions of beneficence existing in the several communes. In the communal elections the rights of the minority are respected, as each elector can vote only for four-fifths of the total number of counsellors: if twenty are to be nominated, he can vote only for sixteen; but in the election of the members of the Congregations of Charity the vote is unlimited. The most serious discussion took place as to the admission of women as

members. It should be noted that, during the discussion of this new communal law last July, Crispi brought all the weight of his influence in the House to exclude women from the urns, although Depretis and the commissions appointed during his administration proposed to extend to them the right to vote—a proposition warmly espoused by Peruzzi. Crispi's will prevailed. On the contrary, during the present discussion he proposed that women should not be excluded from the Congregations of Charity. Of the nine members of the Commission four at least, including the reporter, Edward Luchini, exhausted every argument in favor of their admission. It was proved that, among the benevolent testators and donors, women form the majority; that in modern times they figure largely as benefactors of the poor—in the infant schools, in the assistance of the condemned who have completed their term of imprisonment, etc.; it was urged that cases of real poverty come under the eyes of women daily, etc., etc. Three times the question was put to the vote. The first time (present eight members) women were excluded; the second (also present eight), they were admitted; the third time (present all the nine) they were finally excluded. The same fate befell parish priests and parish doctors. The former protest; the latter are, on the whole, only too thankful to have one weight less cast on their overburdened shoulders.

The question remaining to be solved is how many of the members elected will accept the onerous duties which are to be performed gratuitously; nor are the Congregations to have any paid servants under them in communes where the income of the charity does not exceed $4,000 annually. Nevertheless, they are to be responsible for their separate and collective administration. Only in special cases are they allowed to demand paid servants. In communes where it is found impossible to form Congregations, or where they fail in their duty, the Government will send a royal commissioner, to be paid by the commune. In communes of not more than 5,000 inhabitants the Congregations are composed of a president and four members; for 50,000 inhabitants, eight members; above this number, twelve members. All their deliberations are subject to the approval of the communal council and to that of the provincial *giunta* or executive. They are elected every four years, and a fourth of their number is to be renewed yearly. They may be re-elected for a second term of four years, but not for a third.

The law, while professing to devolve on the communes and provinces the administration of charitable institutions, will reserve to the central Government its fair share of control. The Minister of the Interior retains the supreme direction. He, or his delegate, the prefect of the province, examines the estimates and the final budget. The efficacy of the new law can only be proved after a long trial. In Italy the sentiment of benevolence, the sense of duty on the part of those "who have" to help those "who have not," is on the increase. Between the years 1880 and 1887 643 new charitable institutions were founded; 6,715, already existing, enriched by donations and legacies of a total value of $20,000,000. In Lombardy the hospitals have received $5,000,000, the infant schools $2,000,000, the almshouses $2,000,000, orphan establishments nearly $3,000,000. In the application of the new law the utmost care will have to be taken in cases where the old foundations are to be devoted to fresh aims, otherwise wealthy people in making their wills may hesitate for fear of the "disobedience of posterity." In the present antagonism between the Church and the nation, the latter rejoices rather than otherwise when the State transfers to itself the power and the wealth monopolized by the former; but this is a two-edged sword, and as such the moderate adversaries regard it. In Italy, though many sweeping laws are passed, they are very slow in taking effect. We may be quite sure that no single charitable institution will be abolished or transformed without good substantial and demonstrable reasons. On the one hand, the old administrators, and even those who have unjustly profited by the asylum or doles, will have to be provided for. The communes, heavily taxed for the maintenance of the sick, the aged, the demented, and orphans, will keep a sharp watch for any windfalls that may transfer to them the maintenance of these sums hitherto devoted to "masses," retreats, hermitages, etc., etc. And when all is said and done, the fact that the new law gives (at least to the male population) the administrative vote, it will be the fault of "the masses" themselves if they fail to avail themselves of it.

The law, which met with small opposition in Parliament, is hotly censured by the moderate and of course the Catholic press. But one thing is certain: if it be possible to revise and reform all the charitable institutions in Italy, to introduce economy into the separate or amalgamated administrations, to devote the funds to the really poor and such as are unable to maintain themselves, to the rearing of a generation of workers, the present patrimony of the poor is sufficient for the purpose without any additional subsidies from the State, the provinces, or the communes. *Chi vivra vedrà.* J. W. M.

THE ROYAL ACADEMY'S WINTER EXHIBITION.

LONDON, January 29, 1890.

OF all the large winter exhibitions in London, that held at the Royal Academy is always one of the most interesting and important. Though, year after year, it does not vary in scope, but, as its title explains, is made up of work by the old masters, British as well as foreign, each winter its managers seek to show pictures of a certain artist or school which, either singly or collectively, have not before been exhibited to the British public. Apparently so inexhaustible are the private and royal galleries from which they borrow that this has so far been, and still is, possible. In the exhibition lately opened, Italian work, which usually occupies a conspicuous place, has been entirely dispensed with, and an effort made to gather together a representative collection of the great Spaniards; while in the British department, though there is the annual supply of Sir Joshuas, Romneys, and Gainsboroughs, interest centres in a fine series of drawings and models by Alfred Stevens.

It is difficult to really study Spanish art outside of Spain. In the national and public collections of England, Velasquez is far from being adequately represented, though in them one or two of his great portraits fortunately are to be found; Zurbaran would be sought for in vain, while the finest and most characteristic examples of Murillo are hidden away at Dulwich, where comparatively few visitors go, and the lesser masters are absolutely unknown. For this reason, the present endeavor, at the Royal Academy, to give the Spaniards prominence is particularly welcome, though it must be admitted it has not been altogether successful.

A large number of fine Velasquezes are owned in this country, but only two have found their way to Burlington House; the six other works by him, now hanging there, while they might be masterpieces for almost any other artist, do not show him at his best, when he was supreme—indeed, the genuineness of one at least can be questioned. But the two to which I refer are of the greatest value to the student, and one is of unique interest in the history of art. This is his famous "Venus and Cupid." Thanks to the Spanish Inquisition, it is almost the only study of the nude by a Spanish artist which the world possesses, and, as if to show what we have lost by the inquisitors' false ideals of purity, it is the finest the world has ever seen. Velasquez was in high favor at court, the demand for the picture came from no less a person than the Duke of Alba—reasons enough to account for the artist and his Venus escaping unharmed. But, however that may be, the fact which chiefly concerns us to-day is, that when he painted this picture, he made it a model for all time. His Venus, with her back turned, lies on a couch covered with rich white and gray drapery, her head slightly raised, and her face reflected in a mirror held by a plump little Cupid kneeling on one knee; a deep-red curtain hangs in the background. There is no attempt at cheap idealization, no attempt to make the Venus the heroine of a story, or to fill her with mythical meaning and surround her with unintelligible symbols. Fortunately there is no sign here of those gifts of the imagination which Sir Frederick Leighton, in his late lecture on Spanish art, found sadly wanting in Velasquez. To the painter, Venus was the type of female beauty; the business of the artist, to paint what he saw as well as he knew how. Therefore, with the brush of a master, he reproduced on his canvas a beautiful female model exactly as she lay before him, with the result that his Venus is a masterpiece in its fine drawing, its rendering of flesh, its superb technique; and perhaps what strikes one even more is the lovely harmony in the color and its exquisite appropriateness to the subject. His study of a beautiful woman is as rich as his dead warriors or stern statesmen are dark and sombre in tone. Striking, too, is the modernness in conception and execution: you could imagine a Manet, with the genius of Velasquez, painting just such a Venus to-day.

As great in its own way is the portrait of Mariana of Austria, the second Queen and cousin of Philip IV. That he should have made the woman inside such a costume as that in which she sat to him alive is its triumph. One has just now a chance of seeing at the Tudor Exhibition how a Zucchero, in rendering the elaborate dress of his royal patron, reduced the sovereign herself to a mere conventional figure. Not so with Velasquez, however: Mariana's black, silver-striped dress, over enormous hoops, her wide lace collar, her rows of pearls, the concentric rolls of her coiffure crowned with feathers, are all suggested with a marvellous cleverness which makes Zucchero's accuracy by contrast seem no better than the fidelity of a photograph; and yet the costume can easily be forgotten in looking at the curious face, with its full Austrian lips, its great round of rouge on both cheeks, and its very marked sullen expression, strange to find in a Queen who could laugh so heartily in the solemn, decorous Spanish court that the King at times reproved her for her levity.

If the Mariana were less masterly, probably the portrait of Adrian Pulido Pareja, with the fierce, swarthy face and the black dress relieved by its white sleeves and collar and the red cross of Santiago, would show to greater advantage. This is the Pulido, Admiral of the fleet of New Spain, whom Velasquez painted several times. Of one of these portraits the legend recorded

of the work o every great artist is told: Philip came one day into Velasquez's studio, saw, as he supposed, the Admiral still lurking there in its darkest corner, reproved him for not being on the high seas, where he should long ago have been, and then found he was addressing only paint. The special picture of the story is still, I believe, in Spain, though there is another Pulido in England besides the one exhibited.

Of Don Balthazar Carlos, Prince of Asturias, there are four portraits, one as a child of three or four, two as a little fellow somewhat older, on a black pony, the background in both of these being filled with many figures. But even in a replica Velasquez did not repeat himself. The tone of the background is different in each —in one it is quiet and gray, in the other golden and glittering; the pose of the horse is slightly changed, the subordinate figures are far from being the same. In fact, these pictures show that, though one is but a replica of the other, he set himself in each a new problem; a lesser man would have been content to make a mere copy. The fourth portrait, by far the best, is of Don Carlos as a boy of ten or twelve, in a suit of armor most marvellously rendered, with splendid color in the reds of the gold-embroidered sash, of the chair, and of the curtain looped up to the right of the picture. In all four the face of the little fellow is already strongly characterized by the peculiar features of the house of Austria which Velasquez has made so familiar to us. A portrait of a lady, in a lemon-colored silk gown and a black lace mantilla, completes the list of his works.

Sir Frederick Leighton thinks that not Velasquez but Zurbaran was the most thoroughly representative Spanish artist, in him being gathered up all the various essential characteristics of his race—" its defiant temper, its dramatic bent, its indifference to beauty, its love of fact, its imaginative force, its gloomy fervor, its poetry, in fact, its prose." Fervor and dramatic effect at least are very evident in his five saints included in the present collection. Tall and commanding, each stands alone, his boldly handled drapery falling about him in long simple lines: St. Benedict with hand upraised in blessing; St. Jerome holding an open book, his lion at his feet; St. Thomas, St. Andrew, and St. Cyril reading. In all there is a grandeur of pose and dignity of conception that make them as impressive in their way as the kings and queens who look out from the canvases of Velasquez. But of imaginative force, in the usual acceptation of the term, there is little or none: Zurbaran treated his saints, who are really but so many Spanish monks and priests among his contemporaries, with the same realism with which Velasquez rendered his royal sitters, and herein lies their power.

Murillo is but poorly represented, a fact to be regretted. It is the fashion just now to depreciate him, and to dwell only upon his commonplaceness and false sentiment. Like every other great artist, he was unequal, and some of his work is of no special value. But he was a master of technique, and in his wonderful pictures of beggar boys, like those at Dulwich, he does not rank very far below Velasquez. No one ever saw more truly than he did the picturesqueness of low life, and no one ever succeeded in portraying it more picturesquely. Here, however, are only examples of his religious art: " The Good Shepherd," too well known to need description, and a very characteristic " Virgin and Child." The one remaining picture by a Spaniard is a portrait of Mariana of Austria by Del Mazo, who married the daughter of Velasquez. In all this Spanish work nothing is more marked than the careful restraint in color and the grave simplicity of composition; indeed, by comparison many of the near Sir Joshuas and Romneys seem garish and gaudy.

Special attention has been called to these pictures by grouping them together, as well as by the fact that the opportunities to see the work of the Spanish school are few. But no less important, technically, are the fine Rembrandts scattered through two galleries. Last year the special centre was reserved for Rembrandt, and a row of his incomparable portraits hung where the Velasquezes, Murillos, and Zurbarans now are. But those included in this year's exhibition would, if placed together in the same way, make a scarcely less fine, though superficially not so imposing, display. Among them are two of the portraits he seems never to have tired painting of himself—one, done when he was in his prime, showing the handsome face, with intelligent eyes and full, somewhat sensual lips; the dress he wears in this picture evidently was borrowed from his inexhaustible wardrobe of costumes in which he and Saskia were for ever attiring themselves, with the results he so often recorded on his canvas. On his head is a velvet cap, around which gleams a golden chain, while another chain, with a medal suspended from it, is about his neck. The color in the browns of the velvet coat, in the soft yellows of the old lace of the collar, and in the glowing flesh tints, is remarkably rich. Here, too, is one of his portraits of Lieven Willemsz van Coppenol, the scribe, his friend, whom he painted three times and etched twice. Coppenol, in a black cassock and cloak, with a black skull-cap on his scant gray hair, sits at a table, his face turned towards you; the white sheet of paper in front of him, and his white collar, breaking in very effectively upon the sombre hues of his dress and of the background. The face is full of character, the technique brilliant even for Rembrandt, and the whole composition marked by that simple dignity which the Dutchmen understood no less well than the Spaniards. The others show unknown men and women of the seventeenth century, whom, however, Rembrandt has made as real for us as the most conspicuous figures in the history of the age; and in all are those great qualities which one seldom looks for in vain in his portraits—the admirable expression of character, the careful modelling of the face, whether it be old and wrinkled, young or fair, the marvellous rendering of costume—of the wide lace ruffs, the curious women's caps, the fur-trimmed robes of his day—the rich, deep color, the vigorous drawing, the masterly handling.

I have not space here to speak of these in detail, nor indeed to do more than mention, among the other pictures of old men exhibited, two portraits by Van Dyck—one, the well-known Thomas Howard, Earl of Arundel, which has been engraved several times; the other, John, Count of Nassau Dillenburg; both of which, hanging as they do by the finest Rembrandts in the collection, strike one forcibly in their marvellous rendering of character. Examples of Jan Steen, Teniers, Cuyp, Gerard Terburg, Hobbema, and Van Ostade, and a curious series of portraits by Mytens and other Dutchmen, serving as fashion-plates of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, add immensely to this representation of the art of the Low Countries.

Of the British work, that of Alfred Stevens claims chief attention. It is true, there is much else of interest; to the student very great is the value of two fine sketches by Constable, of the " Pier at Brighton " and the " Vale of Stour," put in in great broad simple swipes; the latter (with graceful trees, which show very plainly where Corot got his ideas of tree-drawing, and filled with rich, silvery light) being the more completely carried out of the two. Valuable also, in its revelation of the artist's methods, is a monochrome sketch, by Gainsborough, of Mrs. Graham as " The Housemaid." A portrait of Robert Williams by Turner is notable because it is so seldom one sees a portrait by him, and because it is painted in a simple, direct, and straightforward fashion, so very different from his manner in the work which Ruskin has made popular. Of the Romneys, a portrait of Mrs. Stables and two of her daughters, Harriet and Louisa, has for the last few days been much talked about for the reason that it has never been exhibited before, its existence being all but forgotten. The lady who contributed it has, according to reports, already sold it for £8,000, its purchaser having disposed of it in his turn for £2,000 more. There is no doubt that Romney at his best is very fine, but just now he is beginning to be exploited by the dealers, and has become the fashion. The most important Sir Joshuas are his very beautiful " Hope Nursing Love" and his portrait of Sir William Chambers. But, despite the distinction of these single works, priority must be given to the collected models and drawings by Alfred Stevens.

This artist is not known as he should be. But the Academy, now that he is dead, is giving him that recognition it refused him during his lifetime. His reputation will probably grow greater with every year; but unfortunately this cannot mend the fact that, though he was one of England's leading sculptors and decorators, he was but too often without commissions. Perhaps he lived just too soon. The younger sculptors, who owe so much to him, already have achieved a success, officially endorsed by the Royal Academy, to which he never attained; designers of infinite inferiority now make for themselves a personal position which he never held; for while artists and craftsmen, in their yearly exhibition, now can claim all due credit for their own work, many of the designs of Stevens but added to the fame of Hoole & Robson, Minton, and other firms which bore away the honors of the exhibitions of 1851 and 1862. On his return from Italy, where he had remained nine years, though he was given an appointment in the Government School of Design at Somerset House, his chief decorative work was done for manufacturers. The present collection at the Academy shows very thoroughly the scope of his genius, and proves what a careful workman he was in his smallest as in his most important undertakings. There are designs for plates, candlesticks, vases, stoves, fire-dogs, all carried out with the true feeling for decoration, while as working drawings they are simply models. At the Arts and Crafts exhibitions, it seems as if bad drawing were considered by the exhibitors the first requisite of a decorator; but Stevens held other views, and the perfection of his designs, unequalled by those of any living English decorator, except perhaps Thornycroft, Gilbert, and Ford, his followers, was doubtless in a great measure the result of his care and accuracy as a draughtsman. For no less good are his life studies in red chalk, and his studies of drapery, and in this connection the excellence of his copies of old pictures, in which he had the sense to try to preserve their present appearance, is worth noting.

More important in one way, since they were his most ambitious works, are his models for the Wellington Monument at St. Paul's, and the proposed monument to commemorate the

Exhibition of 1851. The latter was never set up—a fact much to be deplored, as it would have been a great ornament to Hyde Park. It is very fine in conception, with a statue of the Queen raised on a pedestal, around which is a beautiful bas-relief, and four emblematic female figures. But finer still is the Wellington Monument, so impressive as a whole, so beautiful in detail. In the model, fortunately, it can be seen in its entirety, for Stevens's design, owing to the usual inscrutable wisdom of ecclesiastical authorities, was not completely carried out; the strong, effective figure of Wellington on horseback, which he placed on the top, being omitted. There is another work by Stevens in St. Paul's. It was he who designed a decoration for the dome and substructure, and though this has not yet been carried into execution, it will not be very long before at least the four mosaics of the Prophets will decorate the spandrils. Perhaps his most familiar production is the little lion which sits up on the railings running round the British Museum; but of the thousands who yearly see it, how many have heard the name of Alfred Stevens? The Academy by this exhibition of his work will probably make it more widely known. But the neglect of so admirable an artist while he was alive is one of the many unpardonable mistakes with which that institution has to reproach itself.

The Grosvenor has been the last of the three large galleries to open, with its Sports and Arts Exhibition, of which, however, little need be said. Comparatively few sports are represented, royal rather than popular tastes being consulted; but few pictures have any great art value, Landseer dominating the show. There are one or two commonplace Rubenses and some alleged Dürers, but really, from the artistic standpoint, the show is of no importance.

N. N.

Correspondence.

A QUORUM OF THE HOUSE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The House of Representatives assembled in the first session of the first Congress on April 6, 1789. On the next day the following rule was passed: "Every member who shall be in the House when the motion is put shall give his vote unless the House shall excuse him." This same rule, with slightly modified wording, has been passed by the House in most Congresses since then, and may be found in the rules of the Forty-fourth, Forty-sixth, and Fiftieth Congresses.

A law without a penalty is of little avail, but it is a matter of surprise that, in Congress after Congress, members have seen fit to continue a rule that no one feels bound to obey, and which has been openly and defiantly broken by every filibustering member of either party. If Representatives had been ready to obey their own rules, the precedents for filibustering would have been wanting to the present Congress, and no question would ever have been raised as to what constitutes a quorum.

The House has certainly supposed in the past that some one had the means of knowing if members were present, whether answering to the roll-call or not, for the House of the Thirty-eighth Congress, on June 8, 1864, passed the following rule:

"The names of members not voting on any call of the ayes and noes shall be recorded in the journal immediately after those voting in the affirmative and negative, and the same record shall be made in the *Congressional Globe*."

This rule was adopted by subsequent Houses up to the Forty-fifth Congress at least, and the *Globe* gives, with nearly every list of members voting "by aye and no," the list of members not voting. The fear shown by a certain member of Congress that he should be held up to his constituents as neglecting his duty if the journal declared him not voting, does not seem at this earlier time to have been prevalent.

There certainly may be an honest difference of opinion as to the interpretation of the Constitution of the United States in the clause with reference to a quorum, though if the question had never been raised in practice, it seems that the intent might be clear in theory, and that, too, in opposition to the practice heretofore existing. The Constitution on this matter says as follows:

"A majority of each [house] shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members in such manner and under such penalties as each house may provide."

By a rule of the House, passed first April 17, 1789, and continued by succeeding Houses, fifteen members, including the Speaker, if there is one, may compel the attendance of absent members, officers appointed by the Sergeant-at-Arms being sent in search of them, to take them wherever found and bring them to the House. These members so compelled to appear are evidently to help to constitute a quorum, and for no other purpose could they be so arrested. When they are brought within the chamber in sufficient numbers to make the required majority of members elected, a quorum is present according to the intent of the Constitution, or else the power given to the House to compel attendance is of no avail and utterly worthless. A quorum being in the House under compulsion, there can be no possible doubt of the actual presence of the parties arrested, and business may be transacted whether such parties sit in sullen silence or take part in the deliberations. Suppose the ayes and noes are called on any question and the arrested members refuse to vote; such refusal cannot be sufficient to show the absence of a quorum against positive evidence that the members have been brought in by force and are still detained by the officials of the House under the authority of the House. The Constitution gives to each House authority to compel attendance, and surely could not intend that the absentees, when brought in, should yet have it in their power to defy the House and render useless the action permitted by law.

This is a view of this question that in no way rests on late decisions of the Speaker of the House, but has been long held. Certainly all precedent is on the other side, but it may be a precedent that has grown up in spite of the Constitution rather than under it, just as the refusal or neglect to vote is entirely opposed to the rule the House has made for itself.

Whatever side one may be disposed to take upon the question of a quorum, the scenes enacted in the House of Representatives during the present session are not at all such as to rouse the pride of the intelligent voters of the country, whatever their party affiliations, and must cause gloomy forebodings as to the future of republican institutions.

J. D. Crawford.

Champaign, Ill., February 10, 1890.

THE SALTONSTALL CASE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your editorial on "The Saltonstall Case," in No. 1285, while justly censuring the President for his improper removal of an efficient and faithful official, you do not touch upon another, but equally important, phase of civil-service reform—I mean that which should have governed the choice of Mr. Saltonstall's successor. Mr. John M. Fiske (of whose political opinions I know nothing) has been the *real* Collector at this port for several terms, and is undoubtedly better qualified in every way for the Collectorship than any other man in New England. If the promotion of Mr. Pearson in the New York Post-office was a fair exemplification of the proper rule in regard to appointments, the promotion of Mr. Fiske would have been equally, if not more, commendable.

Stephen H. Tyng.

Boston, February 14, 1890.

ENGLAND UNDER PROTECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "Tariff-Reformer" effectively quoted Thomas Carlyle against the assertion of Mr. Blaine, in the *North American Review*, that "Great Britain had reason to feel supremely content" "during the last thirty years of her protective system, and especially during the twenty years from 1826 to 1846." Carlyle is by no means the only great writer who can be quoted to the like purpose. For example, in his article on Ricardo, in the 'Economic Studies,' Walter Bagehot, who may be commended to Republicans as a very successful "student of markets," says:

"For the thirty years succeeding the peace of 1815, England was always uncomfortable: trade was bad, employment scarce, and all our industry depressed, fluctuating, and out of heart. So great is the change of times that what we now call 'bad trade' would then have seemed very good trade, and what we now call 'good trade' would have been too good to be thought of—would have been deemed an inconceivable Elysian and Utopian dream."

Bagehot accounts by the condition of England during that time for the great interest then taken in political economy. When times are good, "political economy ceases to have the same popular interest."

Fielding's Jonathan Wild was not the only "great" man to whom truth has been remorselessly inconvenient.

John C. Cozens.

Amsterdam, N. Y., February 10, 1890.

THE PHOTOGRAPH NUISANCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The photographer of the present day, not content with the money that he receives in the ordinary course of business from his employers, frequently sells their photographs and negatives, chiefly for advertising uses, to outsiders. Not only this; often, by means of the detective camera, he photographs people entirely ignorant of his action, at such times and under such circumstances as he pleases. It is not too much to say that all this adds a new horror to life. Those who suffer directly are usually young and lovely women. But their relatives and friends suffer deeply, if indirectly. Indeed, the public too may be said to suffer, if from no other cause, from the fear of seeing the photographs of their wives, daughters, or sisters treated in like manner.

A couple of instances in point have recently come to my knowledge. Both are instances of young, lovely, modest, and unmarried women. One—pardon the phrase—moves in the best society of New York; the other in that of Boston. The former may to-day find her photograph and a description of herself—the attraction of a large advertising placard—hung certainly in one and probably in many of the most glaringly conspicuous places in New York. The other has fortunately never known

that her photograph was accidentally found adorning the rooms of a man recently arrested in Boston on a criminal charge, nor that her photograph was spoken of by him in such terms as would make the blood of any one having a spark of chivalry boil within him.

I think that it needs no argument, but simply a plain statement of facts, to prove incontestably that the whole system is an intolerable outrage, and should be immediately suppressed; and I feel confident that the public would be wholly and earnestly in sympathy with this position should they once give the matter a moment's consideration. Surely, no self-respecting man could feel other than wrathful at the sight, for instance, of a face that is dear to him wedded to the figure of a ballet-girl, and plastered thus on the covering of a bunch of cigarettes. Yet any one of us may have this happen to him. If this statement is doubted, it can easily be verified by a glance through the windows of a few tobacco-shops of the lower grade.

I am not prepared to frame offhand a statute covering all cases, but I certainly believe that a statute should be forthwith passed making every one liable, criminally and in a heavy penalty, who either sells a photograph or photograph-plate without the consent of the sitter; or publishes a photograph, without such consent, for advertising purposes. Such a statute would give the many the privacy desired, while at the same time it would permit the few who desire, for professional or other reasons, publicity, to effect that wish by special contract with photographers.

But, apart from this proposed remedy by statute, is there none at common law? I am told that eminent lawyers deny that a remedy exists. On the contrary, I believe that one does exist, and I base my belief on the legal principle applicable to the ordinary letter of correspondence. Practically every man thinks that he owns absolutely the letters that he receives, yet he is entirely mistaken. In law the writer gives the receiver the paper, ink, and other tangible parts of the letter, the right to read the letter, and the right to use the knowledge thus obtained in accordance with the purposes for which the communication is made; but he gives him nothing beyond this. In conformity with this legal principle, a recipient of letters who is on the point of publishing them in book form may be enjoined at the instance of the writer (Drone on Copyright, 127-137). So, also, a telegraph company is undoubtedly under a legal obligation to abstain from using or disclosing the messages which it contracts to communicate (Gray on Communication by Telegraph, §25). Now this same legal principle is, to my mind, applicable to portrait plates in the hands of a photographer, and *a fortiori* to photographs struck from those plates for purposes of sale to outsiders.

In applying this principle here, it is important to remember that these plates are simply a necessary incident in the process of photography. In merely sitting for his photograph, an individual impliedly, if not expressly, gives the photographer the right to use the ordinary process in taking his photograph. But he gives him nothing more than this. He does not give, nor has he the slightest intention of giving, the objectionable rights under consideration. The photographer owns the negative, but only in the restricted sense in which a telegraph company owns the message which it contracts to communicate—a message written usually on the blank form and with the ink provided by the company. Under such circumstances, if a photographer sells without consent either negative or photograph, he is liable to the sitter for a breach of implied contract; or if he is upon the point of making such sale, he may be enjoined, at the instance of the sitter, for committing a breach. M. G.

"A SIDE LIGHT ON GREEK ART."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Century Magazine* for February there is an article on some newly discovered teracottas, which are supposed by the writer to throw a "side light on Greek art," and which are recommended for purchase by the American public. It cannot be too widely known that all these groups of several figures purporting to be antique figurines from Asia Minor or Greece are pronounced by the most authoritative experts to be forgeries; and I for one, having seen several of them, and knowing something of the tricks of the trade in antiquities, have no hesitation in endorsing this judgment. It is, indeed, perfectly well known where the forgeries came from. I saw one large group which was seized in the Custom-house at Peiræus; it had been imported from Smyrna, and had been broken into twenty pieces to carry out the deception better. Although, as only in transit, it could not have been seized by the Greek law if it had been reclaimed by the owner, it never was reclaimed, because the shipper wished to conceal his identity.

The trade in counterfeit figurines is so large and so prosperous that the half of those which are sold to-day, even of the single figures known as Tanagra or Myrina, or in general as Smyrna, are forgeries. A celebrated collection sold in Berlin not long since, and which was made up in Athens early in the fever for collecting them, was there well known to be about half forgeries. The forgers get their clay from the same localities which furnished that for the ancient artists, and, having the models for style before them in original work, they succeed in catching the spirit of it so well that very few experts, even in Athens, can readily detect the forgery. Often a head of original workmanship is made out as an original figure by the addition of a new body; sometimes the original is copied so closely that one can see where it was copied from, but in general the single-figure forgeries are only imitated in style. The large groups are, however, daring fabrications, and, as far as one can judge from the character of the design and without seeing the object itself, I am disposed to pronounce all the groups given as illustrations in the *Century* article to be forgeries. A prominent dealer in Athens last year sold to one of the Rothschilds some of these groups, and, the purchaser showing them in precaution to the most eminent expert in Athens, they were at once and absolutely dismissed as forgeries, and the money was returned without demur or debate. I have myself known in Athens one of the sculptors who are employed in these fabrications, an able Italian workman in poor circumstances, but quite capable of doing original work if anybody had wanted it, in default of which he was obliged to work for a few francs a day in the fabrication of these figurines.

The trade in these terracotta statuettes is now so extensive and so bold in its fictions that no one should buy one except on the authority of a first-rate expert. Some forgeries are patent to a half-trained eye, but others are so good that there are very few even among the dealers who can detect them. The worst thing about these large groups is that they create a form of art which the genuine Greek art never took, and so throw a false "light on Greek art."—Yours truly, W. J. Stillman.

Rome, February 5, 1890.

LUCKY YEARS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The year '89 seems to be a lucky year for constitutional government. In 1689 the English Bill of Rights was passed by Parliament; in 1789 the Constitution of the United States of America went into effect, and the French States-General met which afterwards made France a constitutional monarchy; in 1889 the Japanese Constitution was promulgated, and Brazil peacefully changed from an empire to a republic. "What's in a" year?

Clem.

STEAMER DECOYS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The great steamship lines have begun to send round their seductive decoys. These I toss at once into the waste-basket, waiting (like many others, I believe) for one with these two headings conspicuously displayed:

☞ Steamers of this line are fitted out with the latest and best appliances for the use of oil on water.

☞ This is the only company that furnishes steamer chairs gratuitously.

Very respectfully yours, G. M. L.

Cambridge, February 17, 1890.

Notes.

The uniform texts of the writings of the Fathers of the Republic which the Messrs. Putnam have undertaken, and carried out in the case of Hamilton, Franklin, and Washington, they will continue with the 'Writings of John Jay,' edited by Prof. Henry P. Johnston of the College of New York, who in respect of competence will not suffer by comparison with any of his predecessors. The work will be completed in four volumes, and will contain much unpublished matter, together with important letters from his contemporaries. Following this issue, the Writings of Jefferson will be brought out in some nine volumes.

The Historical Printing Club, 97 Clark Street, Brooklyn, N. Y., invites subscriptions to the following historical works edited by Worthington Chauncey Ford, viz., 'Trade Between Great Britain and the United States,' a "suppressed" report made by the Privy Council to the King in 1791; 'Letters of Joseph Jones, 1777–1778,' a member of the Continental Congress from Virginia; 'Washington as an Employer and Importer of Labor'; 'The Spurious Letters attributed to Washington'; and 'The Duché-Washington Letters,' containing the original of Parson Duché's letter to Gen. Washington urging him to betray the Continental cause and negotiate for peace at the head of his army. These pamphlets are uniform, small quarto, and the edition is limited in the case of the first two to 250, of the last three to 500 copies.

Dodd, Mead & Co. promise a new edition of Prof. J. D. Dana's 'Corals and Coral Islands, and a new work from the same authority on 'Characteristics of Volcanoes,' with contributions of facts and principles from the Hawaiian Islands. This house has taken over the publication of Mr. James Schouler's 'History of the United States under the Constitution,' which lacks only a fifth volume of being complete.

'Stanley's Emin Pasha Expedition,' by A. J.

Wauters; 'Recollections,' by Geo. W. Childs; 'Historic Note-Book,' by the Rev. E. Cobham Brewer; and 'How to Remember History: a Method of Memorizing Dates,' by Virginia Conser Shaffer, are in the press of J. B. Lippincott Co.

'Studies in Literature and Style,' by Prof. T. W. Hunt of Princeton, will shortly be published by A. C. Armstrong & Son.

E. P. Dutton & Co. have nearly ready 'To Europe on a Stretcher,' by Mrs. Clarkson Potter; 'The Historical Christ, the Moral Power of History,' by the Rev. David H. Geer; and 'Five Sermons,' by Bishop Whipple of Minnesota.

Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. have in press, for immediate publication, under an arrangement with the English publishers and author, 'Jesus the Messiah,' an abridged edition of the 'Life and Times of Jesus the Messiah,' by the Rev. Alfred Edersheim, D.D.; and a 'History of the Westminster Assembly of Divines,' by Prof. Wm. M. Hetherington, D.D., edited by Robert Williamson, D.D., with notes and facsimiles of title-pages of the original editions of the Confession of Faith, the Catechisms, Larger and Shorter, and the Directory of Church Government and Ordination of Ministers.

In April, Ginn & Co. will issue 'Elements of Structural and Systematic Botany,' a textbook by Prof. Douglas Houghton Campbell of the Indiana University.

Wm. M. Goldthwaite, No. 107 Nassau Street, has bought out the business of Hyde & Co., publishers of maps, atlases, and road charts.

The Montclair (N. J.) Photo-Gravure Publishing Company have acquired the remainder edition of Mr. W. I. Lincoln Adams's 'Montclair: a Series of Photo-Gravures' — memorials of a region abounding in rural views of great beauty and occasional wide prospects.

Mr. Wm. G. Kingsland will shortly publish, through J. W. Jarvis & Son, London, a revised edition of his 'Robert Browning, Chief Poet of the Age,' with a photogravure portrait.

Mr. Andrew Lang is about to follow up his 'Letters to Dead Authors' with a second attempt in epistolary parody. In 'Old Friends' (to be published here shortly by Longmans, Green & Co.) he sets forth the correspondence which might have taken place between characters in fiction who lived at the same time—M. Lecoq, for example, writing to Mr. Inspector Bucket, and Mr. Trollope's Mrs. Proudie describing to a friend how the Bishop was taken in by a self-styled Lady Crawley, formerly Miss Becky Sharp. Among these letters is one from the very British hero of Ouida's 'Under Two Flags,' narrating his surprising rescue of Miss Daisy Miller.

The *Writer* (Boston) has in hand the compilation of a 'Directory of American Writers, Editors, and Publishers,' to be published at the earliest possible day. From the current number of this periodical we learn that a new weekly journal, the *Cambridge Review*, is projected, somewhat upon the lines of the old *Harvard Register*.

It cannot be too widely known that the second (revised) edition of Mr. Bryce's 'American Commonwealth' is now deliverable by Macmillan & Co. "Sixteenth thousand," one reads upon the title-page. Marks of the indefatigable author's retouching are everywhere visible, including one *lacuna* — the chapter on the Tweed Ring now in litigation through the desperate endeavors of ex-Mayor Hall to rehabilitate in London a character hopelessly damaged in New York. Some purchasers may on this account hesitate between the second and the first edition, which, moreover, will always be highly prized as the first (not rough) draft of a work destined to maintain a living hold on our institutions of learning, and to shape the political thinking of the rising generation.

'Problems in American Society,' by Joseph Henry Crooker (Boston: George H. Ellis), is a volume of very pleasantly written essays upon such themes as the life of the student, scientific charity, religious and secular education, and the liquor traffic. The account of the origin of the science of charity, so to speak, in Hamburg, and its subsequent development there, deserves general study, and the same may be said of the author's remarks upon the worthlessness of all machinery for the relief of the poor that is not animated by human devotion. Much good sense is displayed in the discussion of the evil of intemperance, the futility of trying to suppress it merely by legislation directed against the dealers in liquor being emphasized. While the essays are in the main of a character to be more effective in oral delivery, they will be acceptable to many in their present form.

The circumstance that 'Money,' by James Platt, F.S.S., is reprinted from the nineteenth English edition, is sufficient proof that it is not a technical treatise. It is, however, a very sensibly written one, although it is extremely rambling and diffuse. So far as it deals with principles, it follows in the main the safe guidance of Bagehot's 'Lombard Street,' but it is obvious that the author has been actively engaged in business on a large scale, and the book is full of sound advice and maxims of practical wisdom. These features have probably caused the large circulation of the book in England, but there is much in it that is not applicable to our business conditions. The author misunderstands, or at all events states so that others will misunderstand, the legal-tender decision of the Supreme Court of the United States. The "elaborate judgment" referred to by him, holding that debts contracted before the greenbacks were issued were payable in dollars of the same kind as those borrowed, was unfortunately not the judgment of the court, but a dissenting opinion. The book is republished here, under arrangement with the author, by G. P. Putnam's Sons.

'American Whist Illustrated' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is the title Mr. G. W. Pettes has given to the new volume in which he has combined the substance of his 'American Whist' and 'Whist Universal,' of which the former has had ten editions since 1880, and the latter four since 1887. Without accepting all the *obiter dicta* of Mr. Pettes, we may say unhesitatingly that this is the best and most logical treatise on the most advanced form of whist now obtainable. The moment the principle of the so-called "American leads" is accepted (and "Cavendish" was frank in acknowledging the great value of Mr. Trist's improvement), there is no reason why it should not be pushed to its logical conclusion, as Mr. Pettes does here in his chapter on the "New Play" (pp. 125–133). Especially to be noted is the dialogue reported by Mr. Trist (p. 127). Among the most valuable features in 'American Whist Illustrated' are the illustrative hands figured on the final seventy pages of the book. The beginner can learn not a little from the first four games, for example, in all of which the same hands are held, all four of the players being ordinary in the first game and skilful in the last, while in the other two a pair of skilful players are matched against a pair of ordinary players, at first with the better cards and then with the worse.

In our recent article on Ibsen and his translators, we had a good word for Eleanor Marx-Aveling's version of 'The Lady from the Sea' (London: T. Fisher Unwin). We might have added that the volume has the elegant appearance of the Cameo Series to which it belongs, and a characteristic portrait of the dramatist (much less well printed than the letterpress). We may remark here that, even in this era of "series," one devoted wholly to poetry indicates not a little courage; but this is what Mr. Unwin has attempted in the Cameo Series. Mr. Pennell has made a cover stamp for it, and will add illustrations if need be. It is intended to include reprints and translations as well as original verse. The volumes are seemly and shapely, with a back of vegetable parchment and a neat green-paper side. As yet, the series contains but four books, 'The Lady from the Sea,' the late Amy Levy's 'London Plane-Tree, and Other Verse,' Mr. William Watson's 'Wordsworth's Grave, and Other Poems,' Mr. T. W. Rhys-Davids's new edition of Sir William Jones's version of Kalidasa's 'Sakuntala.'

Georg Brandes's critical estimate of Ibsen is well known, and Valfrid Vesenius, who in 1879 published at Helsingfors a like critique, followed it up in 1882 with 'Henrik Ibsen, ett Skaldeporträtt' (Stockholm). But perhaps the fullest information concerning the Norwegian dramatist is contained in Henrik Jäger's 'Henrik Ibsen 1828–1888' (Copenhagen, 1888). This work has been translated into German by Heinrich Zschalig (Dresden and Leipzig, 1890), with additions and occasional annotations; the additions consisting chiefly of Halvorsen's account of a composition read by Ibsen in school at the age of fourteen, a speech made by the poet, September 10, 1874, in response to a "banner procession" of the students of Christiania, and an analysis of "The Lady of the Sea," which was not published until after the Danish original was in type. The account of Ibsen's early life and struggles for existence and recognition is interesting; but the book is likely to be found unsatisfactory to readers not already acquainted with Ibsen's works. The analyses of the dramas presuppose that the reader is familiar with the plots, and are quite unintelligible to those who are not. The arrangement is poor and there is no index. The translation is a slovenly piece of work, and the number of typographical errors is largely in excess of what is allowable, to say nothing of blunders for which neither printer's devil nor proof-reader can be held responsible. Ibsen's career furnishes ample material for a fascinating biography if only properly treated.

Two theatrical annuals demand a word of record, the '*New York Clipper* Annual for 1890,' which contains a theatrical chronology and obituary for 1889; and the '*Era* Almanack,' which is the twenty-third of the series, and contains the usual records and also a set of rather dull answers (in facsimile of the handwriting of the actors interrogated) to questions as to the favorite play of each, the most extraordinary blunder heard on the stage, etc.

The year whose physiognomy is graphically fixed in the thirty-third volume of *Harper's Weekly* can hardly be called dull. One of the earliest cartoons is of a White House reception while President Cleveland was still in office, and after that comes the series of events relating to the inauguration of his successor, the centennial commemoration in New York., etc., etc. The two congresses—the International Maritime and the Pan-American—the Johnstown disaster, and the revolution in Brazil are the other significant time-marks. The Paris Exposition receives but little notice. In this city we are reminded that in 1889 "Rheingold" was first put upon the operatic stage, and that a hopeful beginning was made of the removal of telegraph poles; but also that Tammany's

fresh hold upon the government was clearly revealed. The dead whose departure is recorded in portraiture embrace Ericsson, John Bright, Henry G. Pearson, Jefferson Davis, and Robert Browning. Mr. Howells's 'A Hazard of New Fortunes' is the chief fiction of the volume. The supplements deal as usual with American cities, chiefly Western and Far Western, but also with many miscellaneous topics—from ferry-boats to men-of-war, from stained glass to roads—concerning which specialists convey no little useful information.

For *Harper's Bazar* last year the special incident was the death of its editor, Miss Booth. Her portrait, an early one, is given in the bound volume before us. The fashions have of course a large share of the pictorial space, but considerable cognizance is taken of the Paris Salon and the English galleries, a little of the Exposition, a little of the Centennial of the Republic. Besides the French and English paintings thus reproduced, there are a noticeable number of designs by American women, as is proper. The British cathedrals are also numerously depicted. The leading serial in fiction is William Black's 'Prince Fortunatus.' Mr. T. W. Higginson continues his unflagging series of papers on "Women and Men."

Russia may be called the leading topic of Vols. 78 and 79 of *Harper's Monthly*. Theodore Child has no fewer than four papers on that country, Clarence Cook describes Russian bronzes, and Count Melchior de Vogüé deals with Russian social aspects—all with aid of profuse illustrations. Norway is treated of by Björnson. Benjamin Constant records a painter's impressions of Tangier and Morocco. C. D. Warner writes of Canada. Lockyer and Prof. Darwin contribute astronomical papers. Dr. Waldstein's long appreciation of Ruskin is accompanied by a portrait which is one of the few notable ones of the two volumes. Daguerre's is another, being from a daguerreotype; but one feels that his centenary was inadequately celebrated here and elsewhere in our literary and scientific organs. Miss Woolson's 'Jupiter Lights' is the continued story of the year.

The twelfth volume (in the new series) of the *Critic* covers the half year July–December, 1889. The disappearance of the leading article is chiefly to be remarked. "Literature" is now the standing heading at once for the book reviews and for the general complexion of this useful weekly.

Shakespeariana has enlarged its form with the new year and turned into an illustrated quarterly magazine, remaining under the editorial charge of the New York Shakspere Society, and being published by Leonard Scott & Co., 29 Park Row. The January number is quite given over to memorials of the late Halliwell-Phillipps, whose portrait is accompanied by views of Hollingbury Copse within and without.

The mutable *American Naturalist* has paused in its regular appearance, pending a change of publishers. The number for September, 1889, bears the imprint of Ferris Bros., Philadelphia, and is, typographically, a marked improvement on the old style.

With the new year the monthly *Revue Française* is revived, under the editorship of M. L. Boisse (New York: W. R. Jenkins; Boston: Carl Schoenhof). It will be original and eclectic. It is printed in clear type, on a broad page.

The *New England Notes and Queries*, just started by R. H. Tilley, Newport, R. I., is an attempt to combine antiquarian lore with genealogical interchange. The contents of the January number are interesting, but are very poorly displayed for want of taste in the typesetting.

Mr. Brander Matthews's effective writings on copyright in the magazines have just been reprinted, with the author's revision, by the American Copyright League, under the titles, 'American Authors and British Pirates' and 'Cheap Books and Good Books.'

Two recent products of the topographical survey of Massachusetts deserve mention. The first is the general map of the State, on the scale of about four miles to an inch, with contours for every hundred feet, of which a proof copy has lately been issued by the Geological Survey. It exhibits the larger topographic features of the State with great clearness; the truly plateau character of the central and western portions standing out distinctly in contrast with the broad valleys of the Connecticut and of Berkshire. The second map is on a scale of a mile to an inch, with contours every twenty feet, for a district around Boston. This is published by the Appalachian Mountain Club, and may be obtained from their sales agents, W. B. Clarke & Co., 340 Washington Street, Boston. It will be of great value in local excursions and as the basis for scientific studies of various kinds. It would serve admirably to accompany a "half-holiday guide" to the neighborhood of Boston, for which there should be a good general sale.

Mr. F. Gutekunst, No. 712 Arch Street, Philadelphia, worthily commemorates the late George H. Boker by a fine half-life-size photographic panel portrait in his best manner. The retouching has spared the lines of character, and the result is a thoroughly acceptable likeness.

—The Rembrandt Club of Brooklyn has published a large quarto pamphlet containing a summary of its proceedings from its organization in 1880 until the summer of 1889, a list of its past and present members, catalogues of its loan exhibitions, and a complete list of the papers read at its monthly meetings, which is suggestive of a great deal of delightful instruction and entertainment. The Club has no local habitation, but holds its meetings at the houses of its members, several of whom have private galleries of great excellence. Their riches are made evident by the catalogues of paintings exhibited by the Club at different times in a public manner. The membership of the Club is limited to one hundred members, and some twenty-five are generally elected in advance for admission as vacancies occur for one reason or another. The Club has, unquestionably, done a good deal to encourage the love of good pictures among its members and in Brooklyn. In 1886 it offered a prize of $600 for a competitive etching, and awarded it to Mr. Thomas Moran. It has maintained classes in drawing at the Brooklyn Institute and elsewhere. Its exhibitions have been the principal art events in Brooklyn since the Brooklyn Art Association fell asleep. There are about twenty photogravure reproductions of pictures owned by members of the Club. They are quite unequal in their execution, but some of the worst executed are suggestive of the rarest beauty. These, it would seem, did not lend themselves to reproduction as did some others. A Pelouse and Rico are very happily reproduced. The pamphlet is the work of Dr. Lewis D. Mason of the Club, and is written simply and modestly. Similar clubs may find in it some valuable suggestions.

—From week to week for the last year or two there has been appearing in the literary supplement of the Paris *Figaro* a series of sketches of French writers of fiction under the general heading of "L'Exposition Décennale du Roman Français." This series, which has been of some interest and value, although it has seemed at times to be rather lavish in its bestowal of praise, came to an end on January 11 with a sketch of J. K. Huysmans. Its author adds a postscript to say that his papers might have been almost indefinitely continued if he had chosen to take up the work of "those men of talent who have given their proofs, full of promise for to-morrow." He cites a dozen names of writers who, he prophesies, will attain high distinction within the next ten years. These are as follows: O. Mirbeau, H. Céard, Hennique, Paul Hervieu, Robert de Bonnières, H. Lavedan, Elémir Bourges, G. Guiches, P. Margueritte, J. H. Rosny, P. Adam (author of 'Sous-offs.'), and Paul Bonnetain. Mr. Lowell has laid down with scientific precision the conditions under which it is proper to put on the prophet's mantle and foretell things, and one may be permitted to doubt if these are fulfilled in the case of the critic of the *Figaro*. Not all of those whose names he gives seem certain to be, as he predicts, the masters of French romance of whom Paris will be most proud ten years hence. But it will certainly be interesting to watch the career of all of them. One of them in particular, who is as yet not very well known on this side the water, seems to be a writer of uncommon promise. M. Henri Lavedan has a clearness and concision of style, and a directness and simplicity in telling his stories, that give a strong impression that the critic will make no mistake who appoints a rendezvous with him at the end of the present decade.

—The fourth and fifth parts of the new 'Handwörterbuch der Staatswissenschaften (Jena: G. Fischer) confirm the impression that this work will contain a mass of material, statistical, bibliographical, and historical, concerning political economy that can nowhere else be found so compactly and exhaustively collected and arranged. As indicating the fulness of treatment accorded to the topics so far reached, it may be mentioned that various branches of the labor question occupy 448 large octavo, double-columned pages, and there is more to come in seven or eight other articles later in the alphabet. The subject is considered in a number of separate treatises subdivided with great system. For instance, there is such a treatise on Industrial Insurance, covering ninety-nine pages, in addition to the thirty-four pages devoted to the article on Insurance against Old Age and Disability, mentioned in our notice of a previous number. The first twenty pages contain a general view of the subject, regarded dogmatically, critically, and historically. This portion is by Schaeffle; then follow seventy-nine pages full of statistics and history, each country being separately taken up in a separate article, beginning with Germany, coming down through Austria, Switzerland, Great Britain, France, etc., and winding up with the United States. The different articles are by different writers, that on Great Britain being by Hasbach, that on this country by Prof. Edward W. Bemis. The same method is followed with all subjects that admit of it, as in the article on Strikes and Lockouts, which covers fifty-nine pages, and, after briefly discussing strikes in general, takes up one country after the other, giving an account of the various strikes in each, down to 1886. On the same plan we have an article of sixty-one pages on the wages question, the first twenty-two pages setting orth the general doctrine, after which the va-

rious countries are again, in the order already referred to, treated seriatim, from a statistical and critical point of view. The general introduction, by Schönberg, takes a conservative view, entirely free from socialistic bias, and reaches the common-sense conclusion that "attempts to establish a standard for determining fair wages have had the same results as attempts to square the circle."

— Of course, being designed primarily for German readers, this work is unusually full in the department of German legislation on economic matters, and much of what it gives in this way has but a limited practical interest for Americans. Nevertheless, it cannot fail to prove well-nigh indispensable to any one who is required to write or speak on economic subjects. Its bulk promises to be enormous. The prospectus estimates it at 5,600 pages; but as the 816 which have as yet appeared have failed to exhaust the first letter of the alphabet, the estimate will probably fall far short of the consummation. A minor point, of philological interest, to be noted is, that the word "Strikes" is here finally naturalized as a German one, being spelled "Streiks," to get the correct English pronunciation, and printed in Gothic type along with the rest of the text, instead of being set apart in Roman type, as is customary with foreign expressions.

— Schönbach's 'Ueber Lesen und Bildung,' briefly noticed in the *Nation* of April 12, 1888, has met with such favor from the German public that it has now been brought out in a third edition, greatly enlarged and printed from entirely new plates. The three essays which, aside from the book-lists, constituted the original edition, are retained, the new matter consisting of two essays, "Recent German Poetry" (*Dichtung*) and "Realism." The old book-lists have also been enlarged so as to represent more adequately the general movement of contemporary German literature, both prose and verse. In the first of the new essays Schönbach discusses the question whether Germany now has a "literature" in the sense intended when we speak of an Augustan or an Elizabethan literature—that is, a body of literary production having a definable character of its own. To get data for deciding this question he passes in review a number of the more prominent representatives of contemporary German letters, and finds in their work two distinctive marks which separate them from their predecessors. These are, first, a spirit of fidelity to facts, and, secondly, the note of national sentiment. (The obvious query whether these marks are, after all, distinctively German, is not satisfactorily answered.) Having reached the conclusion that fidelity to fact, as a reaction against romanticism, is a general characteristic of all recent German literature, he is naturally brought to a consideration of the school who make fidelity to fact their particular battle-cry and fly the flag of "realism." By this is meant such writers as Bleibtreu, Heiberg, Conrad, and Kretzer, the last-mentioned of whom the essayist regards as the most important of the group. The relation of German realism to the naturalism of Zola and to the older art of Balzac is analyzed in some detail, and analogous phenomena in English and Scandinavian literature are touched on by way of comparison. The author's views are necessarily stated with brevity, but his criticism is thoughtful and temperate. Upon the whole, novel-readers who read for culture as well as for amusement (if there are any such readers still left) will find this little volume of Schönbach's a very useful index to recent German fiction.

RAWLINSON'S PHŒNICIA.

History of Phœnicia. By George Rawlinson, M.A., Camden Professor of Ancient History in the University of Oxford, Canon of Canterbury, Corresponding Member of the Royal Academy of Turin. Longmans, Green & Co. 8vo, pp. xxii., 583. 1889.

With this volume on Phœnicia, Canon Rawlinson retires from the Camden Professorship and closes his long and honorable career as historian. He had the good fortune to offer to the public in his larger works attractive histories of nations and periods little known, yet intensely interesting; his books on Babylonia, Assyria, and Persia, in spite of exacter researches made since they were written, continue to be the most accessible and in general the most satisfactory accounts of these countries in the English language. His wide and varied learning, his admirable historical style, and his power of popular presentation have given him deservedly high reputation as an historian. His larger works may be characterized as eminently useful. More cautious praise must be given to most of his smaller books, some of which are so colored by his peculiar religious opinions as to be historically misleading. It must be added that his scholarship is largely of the English type of two generations ago, which had small acquaintance with modern French and German scientific writings.

Rawlinson is at his best in geographical description and historical narration. His chapters on the land, the climate, and productions, and the political history of Phœnicia leave little to be desired in point of clearness and pleasantness of style. His aim has been to make the facts "readily intelligible to the ordinary English reader," and in this he has succeeded admirably. Without making an oppressive array of learning, he knows how to weave the materials of the ancient and the modern sources into an easy and agreeable narrative. There are few contested points in the history of Phœnicia. The period anterior to the eleventh century B.C. is almost a blank, and for what we know of the country after this time we are dependent almost entirely on foreign sources. No native history exists. It is to Egyptian literature, the Old Testament, the Assyrian inscriptions, the Greek and Latin writers, and Josephus that the modern historian must go for his materials. Nor has the history any interest in itself. Phœnicia developed, so far as we know, no political institutions—this was not its function in the history of civilization. Its career is in this respect strikingly similar to that of Israel—for both these peoples the civil-political constitution was merely the framework of an idea; the idea of Israel was religion, the idea of Phœnicia was commerce. Nothing could be more misleading than the assertion of Deutsch ('Literary Remains,' pp. 162, 163, quoted by Rawlinson, p. 55) that the Phœnicians "could boast of a form of government approaching to constitutionalism." The fact is, that the Phœnician government, whether in the mother country or in the colonies, in the monarchy of Sidon and Tyre or in the oligarchy of Carthage, was of a simple nature, into which the conception of a fundamental law that should control the supreme magistrates does not seem to have entered. Rawlinson does not discuss this question, but confines himself to the narration of the political fortunes of the people—a varied story, which he tells in lively and picturesque style; out of a number of passages, one might point to his summing up of Phœnician history under Assyrian rule (pp. 438, 439), and his description of the siege of Tyre by Alexander (pp. 528, 529), as admirable examples of this sort of writing.

It is perhaps due to the author's desire for brevity that he says little or nothing on various points which we should expect to find discussed. He makes a bare allusion, for example, to Phœnician colonies in Greece proper. Probably he regarded the evidence for such colonization as insufficient; yet the presence of Phœnician names and religious rites on the coast of Greece calls for some explanation. In his smaller history, 'The Story of Phœnicia' (New York, 1889), he speaks of colonies in the islands of the Ægean, and adds that it may perhaps be questioned whether the Phœnicians also occupied the Greek mainland (p. 62); in the larger work, after mentioning the islands of the Ægean, he dismisses the mainland with the remark (p. 104) that a Phœnician settlement in Bœotia was the current tradition of the Greek writers. One might expect here at least some reference to Cadmus, Melicertes, and other names which have been collected by Duncker ('History of Antiquity') and other writers. If there were only a couple of names to be dealt with, they might be accounted for by the visits of Phœnician traders to the Greek coast; but where the mass of facts is so great, they are entitled to serious discussion even in a popular history.

There is a similar lack of seriousness in Rawlinson's treatment of the arts, the language, and the religion of the Phœnicians, and of their origin. He has collected a large number of interesting facts, but his interpretation of the facts is often unsatisfactory. His account of the æsthetic arts is taken from good authorities, chiefly Renan and Perrot and Chipiez; but he gives his examples in isolated form, and hardly attempts to trace in definite outline the development of artistic work. His account of the language, naturally brief in such a work, while generally correct, contains some strange statements respecting the alphabet. He declares that there is no Phœnician letter representing the sound of the English *w*; that *sade* (which he writes *tsade*) is superfluous, since it combines the two sounds *t* and *s*; that there is "redundancy in the two forms for *k*, namely, *kaph* and *koph*, in the two for *t*, namely, *teth* and *tau*, and in the two for *s*, namely, *samech* and *shin*" (p. 379). It is difficult to see how Prof. Rawlinson could have made these statements, which contradict well-known and characteristic facts of Semitic phonetics. The *w*-sound (*waw*) was retained in the Greek digamma, and the differences between *sade* and *samek*, *kaph* and *koph*, *teth* and *taw* are as well marked as, for example, the difference between the two German sounds of *ch*.

Rawlinson's treatment of the religion is lacking in breadth and orderliness. The comparative method, now recognized as necessary in the study of all religious systems, and especially applicable in the case of the Semitic, is hardly employed by him at all—an omission which is not the result of ignorance, since other works of his show good acquaintance with the Babylonian-Assyrian pantheon, but which must be ascribed to his defective method. He has little to say of what may be called the biographical or genetic side of the cultus: he does not discuss the question how far the Phœnicians may have borrowed from the Assyrians and the Aramæans, or the Greeks from the Phœnicians. To the large literature which this latter question has recently called forth he makes no reference. Instead of asking whether Heracles and Aphrodite may have had a Phœnician origin, he has rather inclined to adopt the fashion of the Greeks, who contented themselves with a loose identification of each for-

eign deity with some one of their own. While he mentions the later Phœnician loans from the Egyptian, he persists in always identifying the Phœnician *Hamman* with the Egyptian *Ammon*. He is quite right in attaching small importance to the mythological system which Philo of Byblos pretended to have derived from the Phœnician, Sanchoniathon; but the Phœnician cosmogony deserves more serious treatment than it receives at his hands. No doubt Lenormant has pushed his interpretation of Philo beyond the bounds of discretion (in 'Les Origines de l'Histoire,' vol. i., appendix 2), but that is better than dismissing the whole subject, as Rawlinson does, with the assertion (p. 329) that "if it meant anything to the initiated, the meaning is wholly lost." He does not think it worth while to seek for ideas in the religion. His attitude towards it is not scientifically calm, but rather unfriendly. He credits the Phœnicians with religiousness, but holds that their religious ideas were low and their religious practices largely debasing. His view of the historical progression is that the Phœnicians were at first monotheists, but, through the corruption of fallen humanity, necessarily passed into polytheism. This is only a special application of his general theory of human religious history: "fallen man," he says, "when he becomes conscious to himself of sin, ceases to be able to endure the thought of one perfect infinite being, catches at anything whereby he may be relieved from the intolerable burden of such a thought" (pp. 322, 323). He adds that the imperfection of language helps the result: names, originally expressive of the supreme being's attributes, come to designate other separate beings, and many gods are substituted for one. This view of the origin of polytheism is the opposite of that which prevails among modern scientific historians of religion. The Phœnician pantheon, like all other pantheons, is doubtless a developed nature-worship, and, like all Semitic pantheons, exhibits a striving towards monotheism. The repulsive features of the Phœnician religion were human sacrifice and the licentiousness of certain forms of their worship. But even these facts must be studied not simply from the point of view of a moral catechism, but in the light of the whole national life. Such customs are of course to be deplored and condemned; but it must not be forgotten that there is no ground for believing that the social life of the Phœnicians was inferior in kindliness and purity to that of the Hebrews, the Greeks, and the Romans. The cases are not few where the ethical conduct of a community has been independent of certain prescriptions in its religious code.

Rawlinson decides (chiefly on linguistic grounds) in favor of the Semitic origin of the Phœnicians, probably explaining the statement in the tenth chapter of Genesis, that they are the descendants of Ham, as referring to a race that preceded the Semites in Phœnicia. He finds difficulty in determining their position within the Semitic group (p. 52), but this is mainly because he does not recognize a separate Canaanitic division. His estimate of their character and achievements is decidedly favorable: he credits them with industry and perseverance, audacity in enterprise, adaptability and pliability, and acuteness of intellect, and defends them against the charge of want of good faith. The picture that he gives of their courage and heroism, and of their prowess as traders, navigators, and discoverers, is an attractive one. He regards them as the inventors of the alphabet, and (following Gesenius) thinks it probable that they derived their letters not from Egyptian or Babylonian characters, but from hieroglyphics of their own. It is certainly true that the cuneiform or the Egyptian origin of the Phœnician script has not been clearly proved; of his own theory it may be said that it is quite conceivable, and that the evidence that we have is rather against than for it. The fact, adduced by him, that the names of the letters designate objects (ox, house, etc.) different from those of the Egyptian cannot be regarded as decisive, since the Phœnicians, if they had borrowed from a foreign nation, might easily (as has elsewhere occurred) have given their letters designations based on fancied resemblances to other than the original objects. On the other hand, the absence of all traces of Phœnician ideograms, and the widespread tradition of antiquity that the Phœnician letters came from Egypt, are facts decidedly unfriendly to the hypothesis of a native origin for them.

The subject is at present involved in obscurity, and the same thing must be said of the question as to the primitive home of the Phœnicians, or the point from which they came to the Mediterranean coast. Rawlinson adopts the common view (based on statements of Herodotus, Strabo, and Justin) that their original abode was on the Persian Gulf. This opinion appears to rest on a not very well authenticated Phœnician tradition, and has been called in question by various modern writers, some of whom would find the native land of the Phœnicians in Arabia, while others would identify Justin's "Syrian lake" (for so we must read in Justin 18, 3, and not "Assyrian lake") with the Dead Sea. The data do not seem sufficient at present to permit a definite answer to the question. There are, in fact, no good historical grounds for dividing the early fortunes of the Phœnicians sharply from those of other Canaanitish peoples. Over the early history of all the Semitic nations doubt still hangs; it is in Western Asia, on the Mediterranean, that we first meet Phœnicians, Amorites, and Hebrews, and beyond this point we are not able to trace them with any certainty.

AMERICAN HISTORY IN FOREIGN ARCHIVES.

B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773–1783. With Descriptions, Editorial Notes, Collations, References and Translations. Vol. I., Nos. 1–130; Vol. II., Nos. 131–234. Issued only to subscribers at 4 Trafalgar Square, Charing Cross, London. November, 1889, and December, 1889.

THE first two volumes of Mr. Stevens's great publication have appeared. The execution of the work is almost perfect. The facsimiles are given us on folios of heavy, hand-made paper, each document by itself. We will make but two suggestions: it would be well if, in future volumes, the exact size and shape of the manuscript that is copied were indicated by a line. More care should be taken in the translation of documents in foreign languages. French *livres* are not pounds, but francs.

A collection of correspondence gains immensely by being published in facsimile; the handwriting brings us far nearer to the writer than any type can do. And although Mr. Stevens has promised us in his prospectus that "all documents facsimiled will be of real historical value," we shall not quarrel with him for giving his promise a broad interpretation. The love affairs of Capt. Jo. Hynson are not exactly of historical importance, but they lend a human interest to that fine specimen of the blackguard; and we should be sorry to lose the letter of Ludwell Lee, whose exact age we have not been able to ascertain, to his father in America:

PARIS October 5th 1777

DEAR PAPA I have recieved both your letters which I'll assure you gave me infinite pleasure to see that you are all well in America. Your last came to hand before the first and in both I see your desire that I should apply myself to the study of Eloquence, & the law, which as far as I can I will endeavour to perform, being always ready to do all things which you command me. My Uncle is exceeding good to me in every respect, he gives me speeches to get by heart, which I repeat to him, and he corrects me when he finds me wrong. Under such happy auspices I should improve & I should think myself unpardonable indeed, & very much defective to your goodness & My Uncles, should I not do every thing in my power to do so. I am yet at the Pension studying the Mathematiques, French, & other things which are always useful; either for a soldier or any other emploiment. My Brother is at Nants, & I hear from him very often, he writes very good french, & I am told speaks it very well. I am very glad to hear that you are blessed with another daughter, & hoping to hear from you again soon that you are all well I shall finish by desiring you to give my duty to Mama & love to my sisters & all my relations, & subscribing myself your ever dutiful and affectionate Son

LUDWELL LEE

The two volumes before us are unequally divided between two different subjects. The former of these, which occupies half of the first volume and the whole of the second, is the correspondence of the British Government with its political agents and spies during the year 1777. With this are found intercepted letters and copies of letters opened in the post-office. The tampering with the mails was a regular part of Government in those days. Nor were letters sent by private hand entirely safe. For American business of this sort, the Rev. John Vardill, "an American clergyman who lives chiefly on his Majesty's bounty," was the agent employed, and he seems to have been skilful in his business. Thus we read (134): "Mr. Vardill presᵗᵉ his Compˢ to Mʳ Eden & wishes to see him much, as he has Letters from America to communicate which must be given to the Persons to whom they are directed. Wednesd." And again (137): "Sʳ — Mʳˢ *Bancroft* will leave London, for France, on Tuesday next & will probably be entrusted with Letters to her Husband, & others in Paris. There is a method of obtaining a perusal of them, if you deem it an object worth attending to. You will, if convenient, signify your pleasure — & impute this address not to a desire of meddling, but a zeal for the service & gratitude for the Patronage experienced from Govᵗ by your very humbˡ Servᵗ J Vardill." Further on, we find (138) that, perhaps in consequence of the above letter, a Mr. Hake, who had "some particular influence with Mʳˢ Bancroft," was employed to accompany her on her journey, and that he got possession of all her letters, which were carefully opened, and, without any apparent alteration, returned to her (as they did not appear to contain anything material) after copies had been taken of parts of them.

Among the persons concerned in the correspondence, some are of the highest and some of the lowest station. First we have Lord Suffolk, Secretary of State for the Northern Department, to whom many of the reports are addressed. Then there is William Eden, Esq., one of the lords of the Board of Trade and Plantations, a rising politician, with promotion in prospect and a peerage in the background. Next comes Paul Wentworth, a kinsman to the last royal Governor of New Hampshire, and a person of importance in a small way. This man had arrived in New England from the West Indies as early as 1757, and from that

time, although often absent from the province, had continued to have interests in New Hampshire. In a letter written by the Governor in 1769, Paul Wentworth is spoken of as "personally known to most of the House and Council, and extremely respected by the whole country." Not long after this letter was written, he was appointed one of his Majesty's Council for the province, and in 1774 he was acting as its agent in London. In that year, or in 1775, he seems to have retired from the agency, perhaps on account of Tory sympathies. Wentworth was a rich man, and moved in better society than most Americans in London. Although a loyalist, he kept up his acquaintance with his friends of the rebel party and enjoyed their confidence. So far were his neighbors in New Hampshire from bearing him any especial ill-will on account of his Toryism that, in 1789, Dartmouth College, of which he was a benefactor, conferred on him the honorary degree of LL.D. Yet this man, rich, prosperous, and trusted, was not only working against his friends, as he had a perfect right to do in the interests of the Government under which he was born, but was the principal agent in setting spies upon them. He abused their confidence in the most shameful manner, and was not above the commission of petty larceny on occasion. He writes from Paris on the 11th of May, 1777 (156):

"I have had a visit from Mr Lee; having heard that he lodged at the Hotel d'Angleterre, rue de Richelieu, I sent to take an apartment there, & he immediately called upon me. I returned the visit, & found his servant preparing visit cards, with one of which I made free, and send it inclosed as a curiosity. I took the same liberty with the cards from his visitors, which I have given to Lord Stormont, imagining they may lead to discoverys. I tho't too the enclosed seal may be usefull at the Post office, as it came to a Letter addressed to *The Honorble* A. L., in English under cover to M. Grand, rue monmartre, and I could gather—imperfectly—that it talked of a ship fitting out somewhere for America."

On a later occasion, Wentworth had a meeting with Silas Deane, of which he says (231) that they agreed that both were "strictly bound to secrecy and the confidence of private gentlemen wishing well to both countries." The spy proceeded to sit down as soon as the interview was over, and write out the conversation in detail for the use of the English Government. Paul Wentworth was not entirely trusted in England. King George III., as we learn from his correspondence with Lord North, had no confidence in what the agent reported, unless it were confirmed by others. "He is an avowed stock-jobber," said his Majesty, "and, therefore, though I approve of employing him, I never let that go out of my mind."

We get in these volumes the whole story of another and very subordinate traitor—to our minds, we confess, less disgusting than the prosperous merchant, Paul Wentworth. This is Capt. Joseph Hynson, above referred to, whose affairs take up a good deal of space. We should advise the reader of these papers to begin with that numbered 53, and headed "Minutes [for the King] of what has passed respecting Hynson"; without which many of those that precede it are not fully comprehensible. It appears from this document that Hynson had in former times been employed as a master of several vessels belonging to American merchants, and, being a skilful seaman, was said to have been engaged by Franklin's agents to fit out a sloop fit to carry despatches from France to Philadelphia.

"Mrs Jump, with whom Hynson lodged, & who with many other Ladies mentioned in the Packet N° 3 is much attach'd to him, had from Anxiety for his safety given the first Hint to Verdell [Vardill], who expostulated with Him & found Him disposed to be of any use that might be thought expedient. Verdell however not being authorized to arrange any Plan, Hynson set out for Dover with Nicholson a Virginia Captain engaged to command a Rebel Privateer fitting out at Nantz, & zealous for the Rebels."

Here we have Hynson, a bluff, careless, unscrupulous sailor, caring nothing for patriotism or honesty, ready to serve the King or the rebels, and to betray either to the other. We presently see him a centre of plots, with an English lieutenant-colonel dancing attendance on his movements, and with "two topsail vessels to carry about 16 guns" in readiness. We follow him in the reports of the lieutenant-colonel, and in his own correspondence with the many ladies who are much attached to him. He was kept waiting from month to month at Dover, Paris, Havre, and there was difficulty about his vessel. Lord Stormont, the British Ambassador at the Court of Versailles, had suspicions, not ill-founded, of his trustworthiness. At last the opportunity of being useful arrived. Hynson was waiting at Havre when he found that one Captain Folger had been intrusted by the American Commissioners in Paris with despatches for Congress, and was to sail with them immediately. Whereupon Hynson took an opportunity of sending Folger out on some business in the docks, while he, slipping off the string at one end of the packet, got possession of the despatches, and then, making up a paper equal in length and thickness to what he had taken out, dexterously filled the vacant place, shut up the end of the bundle, and passed the same string back again. On Folger's return the bundle was well covered, put into a bag and sealed, never again to be given out of Folger's hands (unless it were thrown overboard in case of meeting with an enemy) until it should be delivered into the hands of the authorities in America. We do not know how this ingenious trick came to be known, within a few days of its perpetration, to the Commissioners at Paris, but we are glad to learn that Deane refused Hynson's light-minded offer to act as a double traitor.

The second subject dealt with in this collection is the conciliatory bills of 1778, and the Commission sent to America to arrange terms of peace. It is pleasant to turn from the letters of such rascals as Wentworth, Hynson, and Vardill to the correspondence of an honorable man like Lord Carlisle. He went to America on a vain errand, for his mission depended for its success on active military measures, and, before he set out, the British Government had decided, without his knowledge, to carry on only a defensive warfare. When the Commissioners arrived in Philadelphia, they found Sir Henry Clinton preparing to evacuate the city. Congress would listen to no terms unless independence were first conceded, or the whole territory of the United States abandoned by the British armies. The active interference of France was daily expected. Under these circumstances, Lord Carlisle thought it best to offer at once the best terms he was authorized to give. He shortly afterwards drew up a minute of his reasons for so doing, and a paper of considerations of the advantages resulting to Great Britain and America from the terms offered. These papers, and his other writings, including a long private account of the whole work of the Commission, are fair, manly, and reasonable in tone. Lord Carlisle was a wit and an author, and had the reputation of being one of the best-dressed men in London. He was not great, but we cannot help liking him; all the better, perhaps, that he did not succeed in leading back America to the foot of the English throne.

In conclusion, we heartily recommend this collection to all serious students of the history of the Revolutionary War. That history has been so thoroughly studied that no very important fact hitherto unknown is ever likely to be discovered in it. But for the thorough understanding of minor characters and secondary events, and for side lights upon persons and things of great importance, few publications can prove more useful than Mr. Stevens's facsimiles. His enormous labor deserves the fullest support from public libraries and from private collectors.

MORE FICTION.

Chita: A Memory of Last Island. By Lafcadio Hearn. Harper & Bros.

The Light of Her Countenance. By Hjalmar Hjorth Boyesen. D. Appleton & Co.

A Sane Lunatic. By Clara Louise Burnham. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Memoirs of a Millionaire. By Lucia True Ames. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Would You Kill Him? By George Parsons Lathrop. Harper & Bros.

Miss Shafto. By W. E. Norris. Henry Holt & Co.

The Nether World. By George Gissing. Harper & Bros.

'CHITA' is the slightest possible melody set to an elaborate accompaniment. Off the coast of Louisiana lies an archipelago of islands, approached by a course through a half-drowned marsh country, and populated by a motley collection of races, where Malays, Spaniards, and Chinamen may be found. The islands themselves are now mainly known as bathing resorts. One of these, Last Island, once the most fashionable watering-place of the South, was, in 1856, torn in two by a mighty tidal wave, which concentrated into a night's work what the sea is doing for the other islands, slowly and surely, year by year.

The story of 'Chita' is laid in this island region, and has to do with the demolition of Last Island, the subject fitting itself, with a grim appropriateness, to many tragedies of the year just elapsed. A more uniquely picturesque scene for a romance, this side of the Atlantic does not afford. The romance, as already hinted, is, not less than the islands themselves (perhaps for the sake of analogy), so overwhelmed by the real subject of the book—the sea—as to be a mere incident in the great ocean spaces. Possibly it is the Greek half of Mr. Hearn's ancestry crying out, "Thalatta!" At all events, he feels the sea like a poet, and summons to its portrayal in every phase a wild, hypertropical language which is the blemish of the book. Such words as "ivorine," "gracile," and "blattering"; such phrases as "a vibrant lifting up" (of the sea), "a fluttering and scattering of rose-leaves of fire," "a jewel light as of vaporized sapphire," "the stridulous telegraphy of crickets," "scudding mockeries of ridged foam," "imageries multi-colored of mountain frondage," occur till one has a feeling of having dined on lucent syrup tinct with cinnamon. On the whole, the impression left by the book is that of an ill-treated opportunity, a rarely fine subject made tiresome by a lush style.

Mr. Boyesen has done well to name his novel 'The Light of Her Countenance,' for the woman who owns the countenance is the only (and, it must be added, slight) inducement to read the book. She is a Juno-like beauty who

moves through the pages with very expensive clothes and a much-insisted-on "personality." But personality in fiction, unlike that in real life, must be founded on something said or done. The fair Constance of Mr. Boyesen's idolatry says and does nothing of any significance, and the high hopes with which we prepare to be enslaved by her grow fainter with every chapter. When at last she retires from the scene in a costume rendered by sorrow "less aggressively stylish and voluminous" than of old, we are quite ready to part with her, so shadowy has she become. Compensation lies in the fact that when Mr. Boyesen's heroines do say or do anything (except salmon-fishing, in which they excel), it is often something detestable. There is no mean between the beautiful negation Constance, and the handsome American Delia, who goes to Europe as agent for the sale of the Emancipation Waist, on which she discourses freely to English baronets and Italian peers. Her "girlish bravado," as Mr. Boyesen playfully calls it, proves captivating to the English mind, and she becomes Lady Armitage. Anything more depressing than the would-be humor of this episode, it is difficult to imagine. The whole book bears unmistakable imprint of having been made after a prescription—so much tragedy, so much love, so much politics, landscape, and art. No leading motive holds the parts in any relationship, and the novel, obeying a law of nature, is as weak as its weakest part. The strongest part appears to us to be a chapter on Tammany election methods.

'A Sane Lunatic' is a story founded in part upon the blunders arising from the resemblance between twin brothers. The comedy of errors does not end there, however; the twin brothers themselves make as many curious mistakes as they cause others to make, the atmosphere of confusion in which they live having seemingly struck inward. The hero's taking the heroine (who is no more silly than any other well-behaved heroine) for an insane patient, is but one example of the prevalent mental astigmatism of the book. The young woman, and even the old maids and gray-haired parents, succumb to the microbes of mistake which fill the atmosphere, and act and talk at cross purposes in a very parody of comedy. The rest is chatter, chaff, and puns, and the whole, though not without a certain cheap brightness, forms a rather silly book.

To decide upon the merits of the 'Memoirs of a Millionaire' belongs rather to the philanthropist and political economist than to the critic of fiction. In this age of organized charities and of awakened altruism, no book on the mental, spiritual, or material welfare of the race can be simply a romance. It is an appeal or an argument. 'Looking Backward' creates a hundred Bellamy societies, and we can see no reason why, from the present book, there may not spring up all over the land Mildred Brewster clubs. It will be for them and not for the reviewer to test the value of Mildred Brewster's schemes. Whether unsectarian missionaries will avail for promoting the welfare of the degraded in foreign lands, for suppressing the slave-trade, and preventing the liquor traffic between civilized and barbarous nations; whether tenement-houses with co-operative cooking and berth beds will tend to the health and happiness of the poor; whether apartment-houses for the middle classes with separate back yards and windows five feet by three and a half, will solve some of the puzzles of life; whether gifts for libraries throughout the land, if given on condition of the money being duplicated by the recipients, really will make readers of the rural communities of the West, and reduce the numbers of foreign-born insane; whether women really are, "as a rule, more faithful and conscientious than men"; whether twenty-five weekly lectures, illustrated by the stereopticon, with a cornet leading a chorus of school-children, will conduce to "stimulating thought in the direction of good citizenship"; whether colored orphanages are the appointed means of grace at the South; whether social clubs for young factory girls and men (where the entertaining is done by five or six "King's Daughters," with their gentlemen escorts) will improve the morals and manners of the factory contingent; and whether buying up enough stock in Southern papers to control them is going to expel Bourbonism—these are some, but by no means all, of the problems to be tested by trial when the 'Memoirs of a Millionaire' shall have founded its family of clubs. If they do not save the world, we think there will be no need to preserve the book as a novel.

The last few pages of Mr. Lathrop's very long story explain the title. Shall a man who has committed murder suffer the death-penalty, or would it be better for him to live and "make his penance a long and purifying endurance"? The latter view is loftily and nobly urged in the few concluding pages. Yet never had lofty and noble climax so many, so prosaic, or so irrelevant approaches. The earlier chapters contain a minute and rather diverting account of the wheat market, and of the causes and progress of a wheat panic. This alone would have made a small novel and an entertaining one; but it proves to be only an incidental divertisement: there follow volumes of satire upon the superficial culture of certain New York social circles; then more upon New York elections; now an old maid's meddling between a man and his wife holds the scene for many pages, and threatens to become the leading motive of the story; next, a long diatribe upon ocean steamers is interjected; finally, on page 303, the murder is committed, and the serious business begins of discussing what is the right punishment for taking a life. Naturally, the dignity of the end is put in forlorn aspect by the chaos that goes before. In a word, construction is hopelessly lacking. The purpose, when at last reached, is strongly stated, but although we see it we are in no mood to feel it. It is said that Americans find themselves equally and only at home in the antipodal regions of hard facts and of romance. Mr. Lathrop is a striking example in point. Now he invests his steam-engines and grain-elevators with dramatic interest; again, his fancy gleams with a light akin to that ray which Hawthorne threw on land and sea; but in the novel-writers' land, which may be said to lie between the poles, he seems to us far from home.

In 'Miss Shafto,' on the contrary, what chiefly strikes the reader is the absence of the 'prentice hand. All bears the mark of the expert, so far as construction and coherence go. Mr. Norris, above all things, knows how. One is sure of a comfortable, cheerful, and especially of an English hour with him. One will neither be plunged into storm and stress, nor raised to imagination's giddy heights. Good fare is furnished, daintily prepared; the service withal is so perfect that possibly, on reflecting, we find that it misled us a little as to the quality of the cheer. It was not superfine, perhaps, after all; but will any one quarrel with this state of things? No one, surely, who can enjoy a sufficiently satisfactory story, garnished with delightful reflections upon men, women, and things, made in a mood of easy-going cynicism, which, while admitting that things are not ideal, finds that they might be much worse, and that at the darkest they will not last very long.

'The Nether World' is another effort to put the problem of the poor before us. The crowded neighborhoods of East London, with which Mr. Besant has made us familiar, appear in a different aspect, although the street corners and the trades are unchanged. The 'Nether World' is a dreadful place, where there are no happy surprises such as Mr. Besant permits his readers, where the possibility of romance slowly dissipates in the dun-colored atmosphere of economic hopelessness. In the attempt to give an outline of the story, we are struck by the inadequacy of the ordinary critical vocabulary. We cannot say that we are introduced to the characters—we fall afoul of most of them. Longer acquaintance seems only to add to the gloomy sum total of their undesirable natural endowment and its unremunerative spiritual development. The author ought in justice to be relieved of any intention of writing a pleasant story, but it may be questioned whether he meant to give so strongly the impression that in the nether world the only force that can be counted on is the tendency to sag. In the production of this impression the resources of a powerful literary method have been employed. There is little of the sketchy work with which the problems of our time are often detailed in fiction: everything here is stalwart, robust, not to be eluded, not to be whiffed away by impatient distaste, nor ignored by lofty preoccupation. There is darkness that can be felt, and crime that goes to make up statistics, and neither lends itself to a distinctively æsthetic impression. It is terribly real, terribly painful. The imagination of the reader cannot, like most of the people whose bad fortune he follows, find refuge in "the public" and a taste for drink.

A narrative method nearly as minute as that of Scott, inferences as baldly put as if by a statistical expert, produce a reaction at last. Perhaps the best result of this realism is the question left now and then in a reader's mind, Is there really any nether world? Do not Sidney Kirkwood and Jane Snowdon, with their self-denying lives and steadfast ideals, redeem it all? But even if not, one is tempted to ask whether the avowed realism of the result has not occasionally deepened the shadows of description too much. The writer of this notice happened to be in St. John's Square on the day of the great popular demonstration in Regent's Park when the crowd was gathering, and neither surroundings nor people made an impression of hopeless sordidness. The dignity of the past was not unmatched by something very like it in the present. "The people" were often deformed, oftener yet toil-worn and prematurely old, but "the people" were often sturdy and resolutely content. Three college professors from the United States found no difficulty, even at such a time, in establishing relations of intelligent sympathy with the worst-dressed and the worst-featured of the swarming crowds: a common humanity had not been buried far below the surface even by years of toil and trouble in the nether world. The place that holds all sorts and conditions of men cannot, after all, be a world apart.

But there is one effect of this realism greatly needed in the popular consideration of the questions involved. It is the steady emphasis of the fact that these are literally living troubles; that they cannot be settled by logic nor yet by the decisions of a critical moment—they must be haltingly lived out and established by slow years in bone and nerve. Moreover, this story touches upon a difficulty often unrecognized or

eluded by writers of science and fiction—the poor do not, as a matter of course, become possessed of a missionary spirit in proportion as they are more highly organized and better able to maintain themselves. They long to get out of it all, but points of departure are rarely attractive places in a logical, æsthetic, or moral sense. And when they accept the task of living in better spirit the life about them, existence is still a puzzle, still sad to them, though neither so mad nor so bad as that of their neighbors. The characters depicted in 'The Nether World' may be roughly divided into two classes—those who do as they like and are wretched, and those who do as they ought and are not happy. But, cramped as has been the outlook for all, the latter have managed to smuggle in an ideal. It is not necessary to ask for the sources of supply. In plain life, perhaps, people rarely go back of the every-day virtues, patience, charity, long-suffering. For them possession does away with the need of philosophy. The author's realism gives expression to much that is menacing in our time. It calls our attention sharply, almost roughly, to our ill-discharged brotherhood. But, however much of blunder and sin may be laid to our charge, this final victory of the ideal spares us the sight of humanity spoiled and imbruted. "Where they abode it was not all dark. Sorrow certainly awaited them, perchance defeat in even the humble aims that they had set themselves; but at least their lives would remain a protest against those brute forces of society which fill with wreck the abysses of the nether world."

Handbook of Commercial Geography. By Geo. G. Chisholm, M.A., B.Sc., Fellow of the Royal Geographical and Statistical Societies. Longmans, Green & Co. 1889.

No science bearing equally important relations to the welfare of man as affected by his physical surroundings receives so little attention in our higher institutions of learning as geography. Many of our best universities give no instruction in it, few of the students ever possess a good atlas, and most of them are destitute of any systematic knowledge of the science. In this country geography seems to be regarded as a subject like English grammar—if one only masters the elements, the rest can be absorbed by frequenting good society. The study of a range of phenomena and laws influencing most profoundly human history and development is relegated to childhood, when the mind is incapable of grasping their importance. Consequently, the man blunders along with the child's ideas, unless he is aroused by travel or by a growing sense of mortification at his ignorance. The question of trade with South America, as discussed in our papers, offers a pertinent illustration. Very little attention is given to the geographical side of it. Few probably realize that the southeastern European ports are two or three days nearer Buenos Ayres than New York is, or that New York is not two days nearer than are Liverpool and London.

The publication during the past year of three manuals of commercial geography may indicate a growing sense of the importance of the geographical element in industrial life. Such a change of view the work of Mr. Chisholm, with its succinct style and admirable method, is well fitted to promote. It has been his effort to impart an intellectual interest to the facts of geography as relating to commerce. He has kept in view three classes of readers: teachers desiring to enliven the ordinary work in geography by illustrations from commercial life; students in institutions giving especial attention to commercial education; and lastly those beginning commercial life who take an intelligent interest in making their private studies bear upon their business. He first briefly considers these subjects: climate, soil, labor, communication, the destructive action of nature; then about one-third of the book is devoted to a description of the leading commodities and of the conditions of their production. The last half of the text is a systematic review of the world by countries, discussing their natural resources, present condition, and future prospects as fields of commerce. An appendix of fifty pages contains a great variety of illustrative statistics. The most important facts are graphically represented in twenty-nine maps, while an adequate index completes what is one of the best examples of text-book workmanship it has been our pleasure to examine.

In reading the chapter on Great Britain, even one familiar with the country is vividly impressed with the contiguity of her resources: not only are the supplies of coal and iron extraordinarily rich, but they are conveniently situated, both as regards each other and as regards foreign trade. No part of the island is one hundred miles from a seaport, and there are in the United Kingdom more than twenty seaports with a depth of at least twenty-five feet at high water. The whole chapter is a most instructive picture of the influence of geography on industry, and one sees almost at a glance the wonderful natural adaptation of Great Britain for the position in the modern industrial world which an energetic people have given her. Could Aristotle or Strabo have had a presentiment of the forces of modern industrial life, and have known the hidden resources of that foggy island near the boundary of the world, they must have foreseen with absolute certainty that the people of the Mediterranean peninsulas would some time have to resign the first place in wealth and civilization to a people then the mere shadow of a name.

Another vivid impression is, that of all the new lands occupied by Europeans since the era of discovery, the eastern half of the United States is by far the best, in fact the very cream of the whole. As regards the single element of rain, the Russian meteorologist Voeikof asserts that there is "no other part of the earth with a considerable rainfall during the summer months over so great an extent of territory in middle latitudes." Neither South America, Australia, Siberia, nor Africa at present gives promise of possessing a territory at all comparable in general facilities and attractiveness to the United States east of the 100th meridian. When one realizes the dependence of our civilization upon coal and iron, it is difficult to repress a wondering apprehension as to what will happen when the supply of these precious minerals is exhausted. That that event is remote, the reader of Mr. Chisholm's pages cannot fail to conclude. Only a very small part of the known supplies have been worked. In China, "Eastern Se-chwan, and Northern Yünnan might be described as one enormous coalfield." Siberia has one coalfield which alone has an area of 16,000 square miles. A sharp contrast between ancient and modern life is pointed by the simple statement that the cost of smelting a ton of iron by the old Roman method would now be not less than $1,000! Among the countries producing charcoal pig the United States should be included. The production in the census year exceeded 400,000 tons. Among other interesting facts, Mr. Chisholm tells us that in 1887 nearly £4,000,000 worth of avowed oleomargarine was imported into Great Britain (chiefly from Holland), a value more than half that of all the English imports early in the eighteenth century. Other new articles of food are "corned whale" exported from Norway (apparently as corned beef), and dugong bacon exported from Queensland. In the account of United States fisheries, the sword-fishery ought to have been mentioned.

Mr. Chisholm states that German commerce has advanced with greater rapidity in the last twenty years than that of any other European country. The greatest element in the increase of exports is sugar. As this is a result of the bounty system, it can hardly be viewed with the same satisfaction that would be felt over a purely natural increase. An important factor in the increased exports to Spain is potato spirit, which is largely used for adulterating Spanish wines. The Germans have also shown much enterprise in producing "cheap and comparatively worthless articles," which meet the ignorant demand of the people of South America. Among the causes of the general increase in German trade, Mr. Chisholm emphasizes technical and commercial education, the construction of the Alpine tunnels, and the vast acquisition of capital through the French indemnity. We are inclined to regard this last cause as largely illusory. Nine-tenths of the indemnity was applied to war purposes. The increase of capital was indirectly produced by the rapid payment of the Government obligations. Capital thus released became extraordinarily abundant in the market, a speculative spirit was promoted, and there was a "boom" for a while, but the airy edifice collapsed, and in 1873 the financial and industrial depression in Germany was very great.

Mr. Chisholm places the invention of loaf-sugar in the fifteenth century, but an inferior form of loaf-sugar was a staple article in the Levant trade in the middle ages. On p. 384 it is stated that the Erie Canal "was the means by which wheaten bread first came into general use (in place of rye bread) in a large part of the Eastern States." The service of the Erie Canal was rather in providing an Eastern market for western New York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio products. The Middle Eastern States were great wheat-producers in the eighteenth century. But if Mr. Chisholm uses Eastern States instead of New England States, we believe he is still in error. The Erie Canal did not introduce wheat flour into New England for the first time, but exposed New England wheat-growing to a Western competition which it could not stand.

Inasmuch as Mr. Chisholm's error seems to be shared by a prominent American historian (see MacMaster, vol. i., p. 18), it may not be uninteresting to advance some evidence on the other side. In the year 1791–'2 Massachusetts exported 26,736 barrels of flour, and Rhode Island and Connecticut 6,225 and 4,411 barrels respectively. Adam Seybert, in his 'Statistical Annals,' reckons wheat flour as one of the leading exports of Vermont. Payne's Geography (N. Y., 1799) says of New England: "In many of the inland parts wheat is raised in large quantities, but on the seacoast it has never been cultivated successfully, being subject to blasts." Going back a century and a half, we find in the early records of New Haven that in November, 1644, it was voted that every one so disposed should contribute a peck of wheat for indigent students at Harvard. Accordingly, in the record of the General Court for March 16, 1645, we read: "Mr. Atwater, the present Treasurer, informed the Court that he had sent from Connecticut forty bushels of wheat for the College by Goodman

Rodman, for the last year's gift of New Haven, although he had not received so much" (Baldwin's 'Annals of Yale College,' p. 6). These references are sufficient to prove that the ancient Yankees did not live exclusively on johnnycake or Boston brown-bread. Two slight errors of the press may further be noted. On p. 369 the eastern boundary of the arid area of the United States is given as 120° instead of 100°, and on p. 109 the date of Jay's treaty is given as 1792 instead of 1794.

A Life of John Davis the Navigator, 1550-1605, discoverer of Davis Straits. By Clements R. Markham, C.B., F.R.S. Dodd, Mead & Co. 8vo, pp. viii.-301. Illustrated.

JOHN DAVIS was born at Sandridge, Devonshire, in about the year 1550. He was the son of a yeoman who owned a small freehold in the parish of Stoke Gabriel, whose worm-eaten church register contains the record of his marriage and the baptism of his children. The River Dart in this part of its course widens out, resembling a lake surrounded by wooded hills. A little lower down is the land-locked little harbor of Dartmouth, in those days much frequented and the seat of a ship-building industry of some importance. These placid waters were the nursery of a brotherhood of naval heroes. John and Humphrey Gilbert were some years older than John Davis and his brother Edward, but Adrian Gilbert, the half-brothers Carew, and Walter Raleigh were a few years younger. John Davis certainly received a classical education, but his early life is not recorded, though at the age of twenty-eight he appears on the scene as a commander of known valor and responsibility, in whom merchants and other adventurers reposed trust and confidence. He was an acquaintance and in some sort a pupil of the celebrated Dr. Dee of Mortlake, whose reputation as a philosopher, mathematician, and collector of books, charts, and aids to navigation, became, in later days, somewhat obscured by his infatuation for the occult sciences.

Through Dee's influence, Cecil and Walsingham were brought to promote explorations for a northwest passage to the Indies, to the expense of which merchants of London and Exeter contributed, and for which a charter was granted by Queen Elizabeth to Walter Raleigh, Adrian Gilbert, and John Davis. Two small vessels, the *Sunshine* of London and the *Moonshine* of Dartmouth, of fifty and thirty-five tons respectively, were fitted out, and sailed June 7, 1585, under the command of John Davis and William Bruton. This expedition rounded Cape Farewell at the south end of Greenland, discovered Davis Strait (penetrating to the Arctic circle), and noted several openings on its western shores. After their return, a second expedition of four vessels, the smallest a pinnace of ten tons, was fitted out to continue the work, and sailed in May, 1586. After coasting along the West Greenland shore, Davis crossed the strait and explored Cumberland Inlet and the coast southward to the 57th parallel. He discovered the rich codfisheries on the Labrador coast and probably reached the northern coast of Newfoundland. A third expedition in the following year attained to 72° north latitude on the West Greenland coast, coasted the "middle pack," discovered Frobisher Inlet, which the geographers of that day had located on the east coast of Greenland, and discovered the entrance of Hudson Strait, with its turbulent currents and "furious overfall." After visiting the Labrador coast, Davis returned to England.

In these voyages all the coasts not actually discovered were remapped and put on a scientific basis. To Davis we owe the most exact delineation of the Labrador coast until modern times. Cabot and the Portuguese had visited it, but their visits led to nothing intelligible in cartography. Davis converted this part of the Arctic regions from half-mythical confusion into a defined area the limits and conditions of which were known, and he clearly pointed out the work destined for his successors. He was the first to make scientific observations for latitude and the variation of the compass in this part of the world.

After his return, Davis took part in the repulse of the Spanish Armada. His next enterprise was a voyage to the Straits of Magellan as a companion of the enterprising and unscrupulous Cavendish. The expedition was unfortunate, but, in spite of the difficulties encountered, Davis made surveys in the Straits and discovered the group now known as the Falkland Islands. Davis and his vessel finally reached Ireland in 1593 in desperate plight, and with losses which practically made him a ruined man. Worse than all, evil had entered his home and left his three children worse than motherless. Davis met his misfortunes with calm fortitude, and passed the succeeding two years in composing and printing a work on navigation, in preparing accurate charts of British waters, and inventing an instrument for measuring the altitude of the heavenly bodies, which was the received instrument until the invention of Hadley's reflecting quadrant in 1731. He also published, under the title of the "Worlde's Hydrographical Description," an appeal for the continuation of the search for a Northwest Passage.

Later, he was with Essex on his expeditions to the Azores; he accompanied as pilot a Dutch expedition to the East Indies, and on his return was appointed chief pilot of the fleet to the first expedition of the East India Company. Among those who laid the foundations of British empire in India he takes an honorable place. On his second voyage, December 27, 1605, while in the Straits of Malacca, he was murdered by Japanese pirates who had been succored by his vessel and injudiciously allowed to retain their arms. Of the four boys who had been companions on the banks of the Dart, three had gone to their reward. Humphrey Gilbert had sunk beneath the Atlantic with words upon his lips which have become immortal. The more peaceful career of Adrian Gilbert had ended quietly at home. Only Raleigh survived, to meet, later, an even harder fate.

Of this life, which we have briefly sketched, Mr. Markham has made a solid yet deeply interesting little volume. Boys who have such books at hand would hardly turn to a dime novel. The publishers have done their part fairly well, though the printing of the illustrations is bad. The maps are good, and there is an excellent index.

Fencing, Boxing, Wrestling. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

THIS latest addition to the "Badminton Library" is quite up to the standard of previous volumes, and the large number of young men who are nowadays interested in these branches of athletics will find in it the newest and most approved theories about their favorite sports. The book is admirably illustrated with intaglio plates and woodcuts after photographs, giving the beginner a very life-like idea of the positions adopted in actual practice, and there is but little to criticise in the work of the different authors. Exception may be taken to some sixty pages of fencing bibliography, doubtless exhaustive and accurate, but somewhat out of place in this volume.

Mr. Grove, in the introduction to "Fencing," tells the story of the growth of the science from the rude contests of the middle ages, which were decided by strength and endurance rather than skill, down to the days of Angelo, whose great book, published in 1763, summed up all that was known of the art at that time. The improvement was very gradual, and it remained for the "terrible" Bertrand, who flourished at the beginning of this century, to practically invent the modern science of fencing. Since his time there has been very little improvement, but whatever has been gained during the century is embodied in the chapters headed "Practical Instructions." From these chapters, with the aid of the illustrations, the beginner can learn all that it is possible for a book to teach of this most difficult and most fascinating exercise. Especially clear and accurate is the explanation of the *ripostes*, and all that relates to the guard, the lunge, the time parries, and the *remises*.

It is much to be regretted that in this important work on fencing little or nothing is said of the sabre—the weapon of both cut and thrust. It is in the improvement of sword play that we must look for the best practical result of excellence in fencing; and if there are not available experts in England, Hartl of Vienna or the celebrated masters of northern Italy should have been induced to tell of the improvements in sabre play that have resulted directly from early training with the foil. In fact, the *tireurs de sabre* in these days have adopted the closer movements and quick lunge of the foil to such an extent that no treatise on fencing can be considered complete without a full account of their remarkable progress.

Coming next to boxing, the reader is treated to an historical introduction, beginning with Virgil's estimate of Paris as the best boxer in Troy, and descending by easy stages to Jackson, who taught Byron, and Gully, who was first champion and afterwards member of Parliament. This was early in the century; and the present generation saw John Morrissey in Congress. The fortunes of the English prize ring declined rapidly from the time of the Heenan-Sayers fight in 1860, and a recent brutal exhibition would seem to show that the lowest depth of degradation has been reached. And yet Mr. Michell, in spite of the fact that his excellent illustrations are invariably of *gloved* sparrers, makes the statement that "the only true and correct style of modern boxing is that in which bare fists are used. All the rest are mere imitations—mere travesties of the original." Now this is a strange incongruity in such a book. Sparring with gloves is an admirable exercise for both mind and muscles, while fighting with bare fists cannot possibly be anything but brutal and demoralizing. The one we are glad to have our sons cultivate; the other should be suppressed by the officers of the law, as it is prohibited by the law in all civilized countries. Apart from this extraordinary statement, Mr. Michell has done his work well, and it would be hard to find elsewhere a more lucid account of the science of boxing. Particularly commendable is the importance rightly attached to the movements of the feet.

Mr. Armstrong has done as well for wrestling, especially in his historical retrospect, as his fellow-workers for their specialties. He gives an interesting and clear account of the wide contrasts that exist between the different kinds of wrestling—such as Cornwall and Devon, Lancashire, Cumberland, catch-as-

catch-can, and Græco-Roman—but he allows his national prejudices to interfere with his judgment when he speaks slightingly of the French (or Græco-Roman) style as compared with the others. As a matter of fact it is free from the brutality that he condemns in the Cornwall and Lancashire styles, while it is a much severer test of endurance, and more conducive to fertility of resource than the Cumberland style, and an impartial spectator would, we think, prefer it to all others. Outside of England it is certainly the most popular kind of wrestling at the present time, and Mr. Armstrong's contemptuous reference to it recalls the insular tone of similar passages in several of the previous volumes of the series. In spite of such blemishes, however, the book, as a whole, is a very good one, and the ever-growing congregation of athletes in this country will derive both pleasure and profit from its perusal.

Israelite and Indian. A Parallel in Planes of Culture. By Garrick Mallery. D. Appleton & Co.

In this pamphlet, the matter of which appeared first in the November and December numbers of the *Popular Science Monthly*, the author, a high authority in Indian ethnology, disclaims altogether any attempt to establish a kinship between the North American Indians and the tribes of Israel. His object is rather to show that, by a critical study of Biblical documents, we can discover the Israelites, at an early date, on the same plane of barbarism, with all its incidents of peculiar laws, beliefs, and customs, which can now be observed among the American Indians; that whatever, among the Israelites of later days, is nobler, stronger, or higher, is the result of outlying or accidental causes—that the Indians, if their development had not been interrupted, might have travelled the same road forward and upward. Col. Mallery carries his parallel through the following subjects: Religious opinions, including belief in a future state; religious practices, including shamans (in comparison with Levites), witches, dreams and divinations, pollution and purification, sacrifice, incense, the Sabbath and circumcision; parallel myths; sociology, including government, punishment, land, and marriage. He then draws his conclusion, which comes mainly to this, that the Israelites are in no sense a peculiar people.

There is undoubtedly much truth in Col. Mallery's comparisons, but also not a little overstatement and hasty generalizing. He follows in the lead of Buckle, Tylor, and other modern writers in calling the Israelites of the first commonwealth ignorant and barbarous, as compared with other nations of their own day. Undoubtedly, in mere material progress, Jerusalem and Samaria were behind Memphis and Thebes, Tyre and Damascus, Nineveh and Babylon. They were the capitals of a nation of farmers and shepherds, and had to borrow elsewhere the skill of the builder, the sculptor, the sailor. The art of writing came to the Hebrews from the conquered Canaanites; but while the remnants of Canaanite or Phœnician writings are few, and these few utterly worthless, the Hebrews employed the Phœnician alphabet for the most powerful and most lasting literature which the world has yet seen. Col. Mallery thinks that during their exile the ignorant captives received the mythology of their more advanced Babylonian masters. It is more probable that the myths of the Euphrates valley had been current among the Hebrews ever since the days when their fathers travelled westward from Haran to Gerar and Beersheba, and the talent was found among them to give to these myths a high moral significance, while the Babylonian version, as we find it in the Izdubar epos, is both gross and grotesque. A people which had produced an Isaiah, Amos, Micah, and Jeremiah had in mental and moral science nothing good to learn from Babylonian or Persian, though, unfortunately for mankind, they learned some sad lessons from the latter.

In comparing the institution of the year of jubilee, as sketched in Leviticus, with the tribal holdings of land among the Indians, Col. Mallery, it seems to us, hits very wide of the mark. On one side there is no private property in land at all; on the other side, property in land run mad. Suppose the estates of England were all held in strict settlement, as many of them are, and laws were passed to forbid the breaking of entails, we should then find what to the writer of Leviticus appeared as the ideal system of land tenure. The spirit of the system is found in Naboth, who braved death rather than sell his vineyard to the King; and in the prophets Elijah and Elisha, who avenged the blood of Naboth on the royal house of Omri. In fact, private property in land is the first necessity wherever the vine, the olive, the fig, and the palm tree furnish the most highly valued crops—for which reason no village communities were ever found in Greece any more than in Palestine.

Col. Mallery will seek in vain for clanship by the mother's side among the oldest and most barbarous Israelites. The patriarchs taught their sons to marry brides from a good (that is, from their own) family. Jacob's great merit is, that he travelled a thousand miles to find his fair cousins, Rachel and Leah, while Esau gratified his impulses by taking for wives, the first best, "daughters of Heth." This feeling is preserved among the Arabs of the desert in our days, and hardly less among the "first families" of Virginia. The son of the noble wife (*Sherifah*) is preferred to the son of the bondwoman or concubine; but Ishmael, as well as Isaac, Dan or Naphtali—as well as Reuben and Simeon—claims heirship from the father.

The people of Israel, Col. Mallery says, were naturally no more monotheistic or endowed with higher moral notions than the nations around them: it was only the prophets who pushed forward, and who finally enforced, the purer moral and religious teachings. But who were those prophets, and why did the people listen to them? The kingly power aided the prophets but seldom; in the northern kingdom, never. Foreign alliances led Solomon into idolatry; they perverted even some of the high priests of the second commonwealth. It was the mass of the people whom the prophets addressed; from these they obtained the assent to a moral code, including the marriage laws, on which all modern civilization is based. While no Israelite has ever made any notable invention in natural science, or in the useful arts, it seems that the race did, in the days of the prophets, beginning in the mists of the unhistoric past and ending with the disciples, show a talent for developing moral ideas which stamps it as peculiar. This talent is but a part of a strong mental fibre plainly to be seen in our days wherever the pressure of the Middle Ages is removed. If in the Jews of Poland and Russia the old Oriental pride and refinement have been pretty thoroughly crushed out, they still do not lack other qualities by which they rapidly come to the front wherever freedom gives them the opportunity.

Col. Mallery may be right in predicting the speedy advent of the time "when both Indian and Israelite will be absorbed in the universal man"; but then the Indian's memory will only live in the by-ways of ancient history, while the Israelite will have impressed himself on the modes of thought and on the laws of all mankind.

Altspanisches Lesebuch, mit Grammatik und Glossar. Von Dr. Adolf Keller. Leipzig: F. A. Brockhaus. 1890. 8vo, viii.–192 pp.

The number of carefully edited texts available for the study of the older stages of the Spanish language, previous to the seventeenth century, is as yet deplorably small. In fact, W. Förster's edition of Guillen de Castro's play "Las Mocedades del Cid" (Bonn, 1878) and Reinhard Stöttner's reprint of the "Amphitrion," by Fernan Perez de Oliva (Munich, 1886) are the only critical editions prepared for class use of which we know, while for the oldest period of the language, embracing the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth centuries, nothing similar has as yet been done. It was therefore with no little pleasure that we noticed last summer the announcement of an 'Altspanisches Lesebuch' intended to introduce the student of Romance philology to the study of Old Spanish by offering him a selection of old texts, some of which are otherwise not easily accessible.

As it now lies before us, however, the book is somewhat disappointing. Not that the material presented is badly chosen or lacks variety: the editor has given us specimens of every class of literature cultivated in Spain during the first three centuries of its literary life. The epic poetry of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries is represented by selections from the poem of the Cid, the 'Libro de Apollonio,' the works of Gonzalo de Berceo, the 'Libro de Alexandre'; the prose, by extracts from the Fueros and other documents relating to the reign of Alfonso the Learned, while the literature of the fourteenth century is illustrated by selections from D. Juan Manoel, the poem of Alfonso XI., Juan Raiz, the 'Danza de la Muerte,' the poem of the Conde Fernan Gonzalez, the 'Rimado del Palacio,' and others. But in order to give such a variety of material within the small compass of 135 pages, the editor was obliged to make the extracts very brief, and herein consists one of the principal defects of the book. To cite only one instance, 288 lines are utterly inadequate to give one an even approximately correct idea of the spirit, the language, in short, of the character, of so important a literary document as the 'Poema del Cid.' While the extract from this poem occupies not quite eight pages, as many as twenty-eight are allotted to selections from the works of Gonzalo de Berceo, many of which might have been omitted without doing injustice to their literary or linguistic value.

Another, and far more serious, shortcoming of Keller's book is the total absence of anything like textual criticism, the editor having evidently contented himself with naming, at the head of each extract, some of the collections and works in which the several selections are either published or discussed. Now, most of the editions quoted by Keller as forming the basis of his text—and he fails to tell us what, if any, method he followed in using them—are uncritical, and hence unreliable, inasmuch as they present us not the original text, but mostly later and more or less corrupted copies, texts the faultiness of which encouraged later editors to venture upon arbitrary corrections. Such is the case, for instance, with the collection of Spanish classics known as the 'Biblioteca de Rivadeneyra,' largely used by Keller for his book. In order to furnish, as he claims to do, the student of Romance philology with a truly

useful text-book for Old Spanish, it was imperative for Keller to go back to the first editions, or, better still, to the best manuscripts wherever such were accessible, scrupulously reproducing the text as presented by them, and giving careful account of every emendation that he saw fit to make. That Keller should have neglected to do this is all the more regrettable as his residence in the capital of Spain must have offered him unusual opportunities for consulting some of the originals of these literary treasures.

Again, the texts presented by Keller contain, as every one knows, much that needs explanation, and for the elucidation of which very little has as yet been done. It was therefore incumbent upon the editor of the 'Altspanisches Lesebuch' to explain the allusions to customs and events, the obsolete phrases and difficult constructions occurring in the text, such as, for instance (p. 1), *la carneia diestra, siniestra* (p. 13), *negro dia* (p. 108), *un mur de franca barba* (p. 117), *la barba cayda;* grammatical peculiarities such as (p. 108) *la su yantar comida*, where the infinitive *yantar* is treated as a feminine, very likely owing to its frequent association with *la cena*. Here, too, Keller has failed to offer any assistance whatsoever. In the grammar and the appendix on dialectic peculiarities, we should have liked to find references to the scientific literature bearing on these subjects, such as Gessner's treatise on 'Das Altleonesische' (Berlin, 1867), Morel-Fatio's article on the 'Libro de Alexandre' (*Romania* iv.), J. Cornu's articles published in the *Romania*, and Baist's treatise on Spanish grammar in Gröber's 'Grundriss,' pp. 689–714.

The book closes with a glossary giving (or rather pretending to give) all the forms occurring in the text. Here again the want of judgment and method makes itself felt. In the first place, it was useless to mention *allega, castigo*, etc., besides *allegar, castigar*, forms like *enno* for *enlo*, etc., which are explained in the grammatical appendix. By omitting such superfluous material, the vocabulary could have been reduced to nearly one-half of its size. In the second place, the editor would have greatly added to the usefulness of the glossary by referring to at least one passage where each word or signification of a word occurs. Finally, a good many vocables or special meanings have been omitted. Suffice it to mention (p. 33) the figurative expressions for Satan: *rezin malo, draco traydor*, so common in the language of the time; (p. 36) *monge* in the sense of "hermit," not "monk" (cf. *Mod. Lang. Notes* ii., p. 59 60); (*ib.*) *adrede*, and (p. 108) *enjundias*. But numerous and serious as may be the shortcomings of Keller's attempt to give us an Old Spanish Reader, it was certainly well meant, and this may, for the present at least, be welcomed as a convenient collection of specimens of early Spanish.

Lectures on Russian Literature. By Ivan Panin. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THESE lectures are chiefly interesting as coming from the pen of a Russian who has lived out of Russia long enough to make an independent acquaintance with English and American writers, which enables him to draw comparisons between the productions of the principal authors of his native land and those authors who are most familiar to the great mass of the English-reading public. The first lecture is particularly good; the summary of character, aims, and general preparation of his subject, including the well-chosen quotations from the writings of Turgeneff and Tolstoi, and the comparison with Dickens, are just and instructive. Much that is said of Pushkin and Gogol is also just, especially as to the difference between the humor of Gogol and of various English writers. In the lecture on Turgeneff, many points are well brought out; but Turgeneff should not have been used at the end as a "terrible example," for the moral glorification of Count Tolstoi. As a *Russian* writer, Turgeneff is distinctly the superior of Tolstoi in at least two directions. The lectures on Tolstoi form the weakest point of the book. There is too much rethreshing of a subject whose proper place is not in a volume of criticism. The little that is said of Tolstoi's methods is good, but his defects—which should have been alluded to, since it is done in the case of the other writers under discussion—are deliberately ignored. In the last lecture, what one might almost designate as flings at society and societies which are personally obnoxious to the lecturer, reduces it to the rank of a narrow local sermon, and destroys its harmony with the design of the book. Certain peculiarities of language, incident upon the fact that Mr. Panin is not writing in his native tongue, should be mentioned. They only become unpleasant when he preaches. The lectures should have been partly rewritten before being consigned to the wider publicity of a printed volume, and revised by some unprejudiced person acquainted with the subject, in order that they might be relieved of the aggressive personal element which is out of place in critical work.

Life of John Milton. By Richard Garnett, LL.D. (Great Writers Series.) London: Walter Scott. 1890.

DR. GARNETT'S task in writing a short life of Milton was not an easy one, although he falls heir to Masson's exhaustive labors, for Milton's literary position and personal character offer very trying matter to the critic; indeed, there are few authors about whom it is more dangerous to write from first impressions and superficial examination, nor has there as yet been an entirely sympathetic and intelligent narrative of his intellectual life. Dr. Garnett devotes much attention to two points. In the first place, he protests against Mark Pattison's expressed regret that Milton did not devote himself to a purely literary and scholastic career, and he has little difficulty in winning assent to his view that Milton, without interest in public affairs, would have been dwarfed and weakened in all his genius, to say nothing of the loss of the shining memory he left as a patriot. In the second place, he brings prominently forward the poetic temperament of Milton, his sensibility and impulsiveness, so antithetic to the ordinary conception of him as a stern and self-mastered man of an iron and Puritan mould. He cites in support of his view the dependence of Milton on external suggestion in writing his poems; his marriage, with its repeated precipitancy of action—first in the marriage itself, then in the composition of the book upon Divorce, and lastly in receiving his wife back; his romantic sacrifice of his eyesight in the service of the State, and several other leading facts of his life, all tending to the exhibition of "the impulsive passion" of a poet's nature. Both of these points are of prime consequence in the framing of our idea of Milton, and are to be insisted upon.

In other respects the volume repeats the familiar story of Milton's life with much grace of narrative and great carefulness in the detail, in a literary and scholarly spirit. The needful criticism appears from time to time in the proper place. It is clear, pointed, well-articulated, and covers what has been said both in praise and dispraise of Milton. It is helped by a thorough knowledge of poetic literature, and in one or two places is varied by some curious parallelisms with Calderon, where it is impossible that either poet should have known the other's work; and throughout it is supported by the author's firm and unrelaxing hold of the principles of all poetic criticism, which he will not abandon at the bidding of Milton's great fame. In some matters of detail, however, it is impossible for us to agree with him, as in the depreciation of the part of the *Elder Brother* in "Comus," and in the admiration for *Satan* (though in this Dr. Garnett has the weight of general opinion in his favor) as a really heroic figure. The discussion of the prose is admirable. Altogether this brief life seems to us to come very near to a truthful account of the poet, and certainly to exceed its few rivals in all essentials. A full bibliography and an index make it the best starting-point for a study of Milton.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, H. History of the United States of America during the Second Administration of Thomas Jefferson. 2 vols. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $4.
Adams, O. F. Dear Old Story-Tellers. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.
Best, Susie M. The Fallen Pillar Saint, and Other Poems. G. W. Dillingham.
Blunt, W. S. A New Pilgrimage, and Other Poems. Scribner & Welford. $2.
Bonham, J. M. Railway Secrecy and Trusts. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Brenkmann, Prof. C. Hossfeld's New Practical Method for Learning the German Language. N. Y. School-Book Clearing House.
Brooks, Rev. W. R. God in Nature and Life. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.50.
Brinton, Dr. D. G. Rig Veda Americanus: Sacred Songs of the Ancient Mexicans. Philadelphia: D. G. Brinton.
Brooksmith, J. and E. J. Arithmetic for Beginners. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Buck, J. D. The Nature and Aim of Theosophy. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 75 cents.
Caine, H. The Bondman. F. F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
Carpenter, Rev. W. B. The Permanent Elements of Religion. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Cobban, J. MacL. Julius Courtney; or, Master of his Fate. D. Appleton & Co. 25 cents.
Colbeck, C. Cæsar's Gallic War. Book VI. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Collins, F. H. Epitome of the Synthetic Philosophy. D. Appleton & Co. $2.50.
Collins, Wilkie. Blind Love. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Comstock, Prof. Geo. C. Elementary Treatise on the Method of Least Squares. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Cowan, J. Pliny's Letters. Books I, II. Macmillan & Co. $1.20.
Daniell, M. G. Exercises in Latin Prose Composition. Part II. Boston: Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 60 cents.
Davis, E. H. The Second Reading-Book. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 40 cents.
Depew, C. M. Orations and After-Dinner Speeches. Cassell Publishing Co. $2.50.
Eaton, S. The New Arithmetic. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 75 cents.
Ebers, G. Joshua: A Biblical Picture. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents. Also, W. S. Gottsberger & Co.
Emerson, P. H. English Idyls. 2d ed. London: Sampson Low & Co.
Fawcett, E. The Evil that Men Do. Belford Co.
Fenn, G. The Mynn's Mystery. F. F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
Ficklen, Bessie A. Catterel Ratterel (Doggerel). G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Fogerty, J. Countess Irene: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
Fortier, Prof. A. Sept Grands Auteurs du XIXe Siècle. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Fothergill, Jessie. A March in the Ranks. F. F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
France, A. The Crime of Silvester Bonnard. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Freeman, A. C. American State Reports. Vol. X. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.
Freshfield, D. W., and Wharton, Capt. W. J. L. Hints to Travellers, Scientific and General. 6th ed. London: Royal Geographical Society; New York: Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Gibb's Route and Reference Book of the United States and Canada. New York: Gibb Bros. & Moran. $5.
Gilmore, J. R. A Mountain-White Heroine. Belford Co.
Godley, A. D. The Histories of Tacitus. Books III, IV, V. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Goodwin, Prof. W. W. Syntax of the Moods and Tenses of the Greek Verb. Rewritten and enlarged. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.15.
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Twenty per cent. advance for cuts, fancy or other letters not comprised in THE NATION fonts, and all other special typography (subject to approval). Cuts are inserted only on inside pages of cover or fly-leaves, not on outside of cover, nor on pages numbered for binding.	— 15

DISCOUNT on orders amounting to $100 within a year, 10 per cent.; $250, 12½ per cent.; $500, 15 per cent.; $750, 20 per cent.; $1,000 25 per cent.; $2,500, 33⅓ per cent.

Advertisements must be acceptable in every respect. Copy received until Tuesday, 5 P. M.

THE NATION is sent free to those who advertise in it, as long as advertisement continues.

The EDITION of THE NATION this week is 8,500 copies. The Subscription List is always open to the inspection of advertisers.

***Copies of THE NATION may be procured in Paris at Brentano's, 17 Avenue de l'Opéra; and in London of B. F. Stevens, 4 Trafalgar Square, Brentano's, 430 Strand, and George Street, 30 Cornhill, E. C.

London agent for advertisements, R. J. Bush, 92 Fleet St., E. C.

Schools.

Alphabetized, first, by States; second, by Towns.

MASSACHUSETTS, Berkshire.

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MASSACHUSETTS, Boston.

BOSTON UNIVERSITY Law School, Address the Dean, EDMUND H. BENNETT, LL.D.

MASSACHUSETTS, Boston, 259 Boylston Street.

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THE MISSES HUBBARD'S SCHOOL for Girls will reopen October 1, 1889. A limited number of boarding scholars will be received.

MASSACHUSETTS, Cambridge, Larch Street.

HOME FOR BOYS.—DR. ABBOT ADMITS not more than four boys into his family, to fit for college or educate privately. Separate tuition, with best of care in all respects. Charming location, with fine tennis-court. F. E. ABBOT, Ph.D.

MASSACHUSETTS, Duxbury, Powder Point.

POWDER POINT SCHOOL.—PREPARES for scientific school, college, or business. Laboratories. The boys are members of the family. FREDERICK B. KNAPP, S.B. (M.I.T.)

MASSACHUSETTS, Plymouth.

MR. KNAPP'S HOME SCHOOL FOR Boys.—Twenty-third year begins Oct. 1, 1889. Mrs. Knapp, Principal; A. M. FREEMAN, A.B., H'd Master.

MASSACHUSETTS, Quincy.

ADAMS ACADEMY, PREPARATORY and Boarding School for Boys.—Boarding-house entirely reorganized; a few good rooms still vacant. For all information apply to WILLIAM EVERETT, Ph.D.

NEW YORK, Syracuse.

MRS. ALFRED WILKINSON'S School for Girls. Reopens September 17, 1890. Refers to Hon. Abram S. Hewitt, George Wm. Curtis, Hon. Wayne McVeagh, Rev. Edward Everett Hale, Thomas Wentworth Higginson, Hon. Andrew D. White.

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Teachers, etc.

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CHARLES W. STONE, Tutor for Harvard, 68 Chestnut Street, Boston.

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THE NATION.—A BOUND SET, also an unbound set; various vols., both bound and unbound; 25,000 odd numbers. Will buy, sell, or exchange. A. S. CLARK, 34 Park Row, N. Y. City.

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COLLEGE NEWS

IN THE

NEW YORK EVENING POST.

THE EVENING POST has for many years given much space to news from the colleges, and to editorial discussions and important correspondence on educational subjects. The system of special letters from the colleges, published once a week in this paper, has met so cordial a reception among students and graduates as to justify its continuance and extension. This feature will hereafter appear in each Friday's edition of THE EVENING POST, and every means will be used to make these columns a trustworthy source of information on the current topics of educational work and student life. They will contain not only letters from trustworthy correspondents in the leading institutions, but also special articles, some of which are now preparing, on the intellectual, social, and athletic activities of the college world.

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THE EVENING POST, NEW YORK.

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In any family of children, a record of the constitutional peculiarities of each one, and the whole course of his physical development in sickness and in health, is certain to be instructive and may prove invaluable. Such a record is Prof. J. B. Fonssagrives's 'Mother Register,' consisting of a series of tables scientifically arranged for brief and convenient entries. Price, post-paid, 75 cents. [The volume for Girls only—that for Boys is exhausted; but the former will serve for either.]

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THE FORUM.

CONTENTS FOR MARCH.

(Beginning Vol. IX.)

FRANCE IN 1789 AND 1889. FREDERIC HARRISON, the distinguished British critic.—How the French peasant, from his miserable condition in the last century, has become thrifty by his opportunity to acquire land.

WAR UNDER NEW CONDITIONS. GEN. HENRY L. ABBOT.—The improvements that have been made in fire-arms since our civil war; how they have made the methods and weapons of that time antiquated.

A YEAR OF REPUBLICAN CONTROL. SENATOR H. L. DAWES.—A review of the Harrison Administration; what it has done; the work yet before it; how it is keeping the promises of the Republican party.

THE RELATION OF ART TO TRUTH. W. H. MALLOCK.—A discussion of Zolaism in fiction; how far realism is consistent with art.

DO THE PEOPLE WISH REFORM? Prof. A. B. HART of Harvard.—Why the masses of the people are not enthusiastic about civil-service reform; the pleasure of the gambling element of politics; and a lack of appreciation of the danger of the spoils system.

THE SPECTRE OF THE MONK. Archdeacon F. W. FARRAR.—Apropos of the movement to establish Protestant brotherhoods, Archdeacon Farrar writes a review of the good and evil results of monasticism.

A PROTEST AGAINST DOGMA. AMOS K. FISKE.—An argument to show that there is a tendency in the Protestant churches that hold to dogmatic creeds to hinder the progress of religion; an appeal for a Christianity unfettered by dogma.

THE RIGHT TO VOTE. Judge ALBION W. TOURGEE.—An examination of this right under State laws with reference to the *post-bellum* amendments to the Federal Constitution; can the Southern States not disfranchise the Negro?

WESTERN MORTGAGES. Prof. JAMES WILLIS GLEED of Kansas.—An explanation in detail of the growth and operation of Western mortgage companies; how borrowed capital has developed the country; the outlook for both borrower and lender.

THE PRACTICE OF VIVISECTION. CAROLINE EARLE WHITE.—How little the progress of medicine owes to vivisection.

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FOR MARCH
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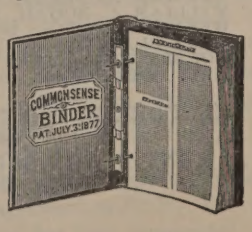

FORTY-FIFTH ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

NEW YORK LIFE

INSURANCE COMPANY.

Office: Nos. 346 and 348 Broadway, New York.

JANUARY 1, 1890.

Amount of Net Assets, January 1, 1889. . . . $89,824,336 19

REVENUE ACCOUNT.

Premiums	$26,021,655 96		
Less deferred premiums, January 1, 1889	1,435,734 86	$24,585,921 10	
Interest and rents, etc	5,028,950 38		
Less interest accrued January 1, 1889	451,605 24	4,577,345 14	$29,163,266 24
			118,987,602 43

DISBURSEMENT ACCOUNT.

Losses by death, and Endowments matured and discounted (including reversionary additions to same)	$6,252,095 50	
Dividends (including mortuary dividends), annuities, and purchased insurances	5,869,026 16	
Total paid Policy-Holders	$12,121,121 66	
Taxes and reinsurances	252,737 17	
Commissions (including advanced and commuted commissions), brokerages, agency expenses, physicians' fees, etc	4,725,652 64	
Office and law expenses, rentals, salaries, advertising, printing, etc	860,768 50	$17,960,279 97
		$101,027,322 46

ASSETS.

Cash on deposit, on hand, and in transit	$5,917,837 72	
United States Bonds and other bonds and stocks (market value, $30,438,441 91)	56,412,163 41	
Real Estate	13,242,871 87	
Bonds and Mortgages, first lien on real estate (buildings thereon insured for $14,400,000 and the policies assigned to the Company as additional collateral security)	18,106,512 50	
Temporary Loans (market value of securities held as collateral, $4,671,563)	3,709,000 00	
*Loans on existing policies (the Reserve on these policies, included in Liabilities, amounts to over $2,000,000)	367,394 39	
*Quarterly and semi-annual premiums on existing policies, due subsequent to January 1, '90	1,635,645 37	
*Premiums on existing policies in course of transmission and collection (the Reserve on these policies, included in Liabilities, is estimated at $1,700,000)	1,104,253 02	
Agency balances	90,299 54	
Accrued interest on investments, January 1, 1890	441,344 64	$101,027,322 46
Market value of securities over cost value on Company's books, . .		*4,026,278 50*

*A detailed schedule of these items will accompany the usual annual report filed with the Insurance Department of the State of New York.

Total Assets, January 1, 1890, . . $105,053,600 96

Appropriated as follows:

Approved losses in course of payment	$440,517 97		
Reported losses awaiting proof, etc	375,398 86		
Matured endowments, due and unpaid (claims not presented)	40,592 49		
Annuities due and unpaid (claims not presented)	29,982 52		
Reserved for reinsurance on existing policies (Actuaries' table 4 per cent. interest)		88,904,186 00	
Reserved for contingent liabilities to Tontine Dividend Fund, January 1, 1889, over and above a 4 per cent. Reserve on existing policies of that class	$6,423,777 13		
Addition to the Fund during 1889	2,300,540 16		
	$8,724,317 29		
DEDUCT—			
Returned to Tontine policy-holders during the year on matured Tontines	1,019,264 18		
Balance of Tontine Fund January 1, 1890		7,705,053 11	
Reserved for premiums paid in advance		40,046 73	
			$97,535,777 68

Divisible Surplus (Co.'s new Standard), 7,517,823 28

$105,053,600 96

Surplus by the New York State Standard (including the Tontine Fund), . . $15,600,000 00

From the undivided surplus, as above, the Board of Trustees have declared a Reversionary dividend to participating policies in proportion to their contribution to surplus, available on settlement of next annual premium.

Returns to Policy-Holders.	Insurance in Force.	Assets.	New Policies Issued.
1887..... $9,535,210	Jan. 1, 1888....$358,935,536	Jan. 1, 1888.... $83,079,845	1887..... 28,522
1888..... 10,973,070	Jan. 1, 1889.... 419,886,505	Jan. 1, 1889.... 93,480,186	1888..... 33,334
1889..... 12,121,121	Jan. 1, 1890.... 495,601,970	Jan. 1, 1890.... 105,053,600	1889..... 39,499

Number of Policies issued during the year, 39,499. New Insurance, $151,119,088.
Total number of Policies in force January 1, 1890, 150,381. Amount at Risk, $495,601,970.

TRUSTEES.

WILLIAM H. APPLETON, ALEX. STUDWELL, JOHN N. STEARNS,
WILLIAM H. BEERS, WALTER H. LEWIS, WILLIAM L. STRONG,
WILLIAM A. BOOTH, EDWARD MARTIN, W. F. BUCKLEY,
HENRY BOWERS, RICHARD MUSER, HENRY TUCK,
JOHN CLAFLIN, C. C. BALDWIN, A. H. WELCH,
ROBERT B. COLLINS, E. N. GIBBS, L. L. WHITE.
H. C. MORTIMER.

THEODORE M. BANTA, Cashier.
A. HUNTINGTON, M.D., Medical Director.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, President.
HENRY TUCK, Vice-President.
ARCHIBALD H. WELCH, 2d Vice-Prest.
RUFUS W. WEEKS, Actuary.

Thirtieth Annual Statement

OF THE

WASHINGTON

Life Insurance Company

OF NEW YORK.

Cor. Courtlandt and Church Streets.

W. A. BREWER, Jr., President.

Assets, Dec. 31, 1889, $10,073,371 27

RECEIPTS DURING THE YEAR 1889.

For Premiums, Interest, Rents, etc	$2,531,928 64

DISBURSEMENTS.

Total paid Policy-holders for Claims by Death, Matured and Discounted Endowments, Cash Dividends, Return Premiums, and Surrendered Policies and Annuities	$1,279,608 25
All other expenditures	569,068 63
Liabilities, Dec. 31, 1889	9,670,823 88
Policies issued in 1889	5,119
Amount of new insurance written in 1889	10,663,767 00
Total number of Policies in force,	21,028
Total amount insured	46,390,324 00

W. HAXTUN, Vice-President and Secretary.

E. S. FRENCH, Supt. of Agencies.

CYRUS MUNN, Asst. Secretary.

ISRAEL C. PIERSON, Actuary.

J. W. BRANNAN, M.D., Medical Examiner.

B. W. McCREADY, M.D., Consulting Physician.

FOSTER & THOMSON, Attorneys, 52 Wall Street, N. Y.

THE POPULAR SCIENCE MONTHLY

FOR MARCH.

CONTENTS.

NEW CHAPTERS IN THE WARFARE OF SCIENCE. VII. Comparative Mythology. Part II. By Andrew D. White.
THE MISSION OF EDUCATED WOMEN. By Mrs. M. F. Armstrong.
ABSOLUTE POLITICAL ETHICS. By Herbert Spencer.
THE LAWS OF FILMS. By Sophie Bledsoe Herrick. (Illustrated.)
THE PSYCHOLOGY OF PREJUDICE. By Prof. G. T. W. Patrick.
ORIGIN OF LAND-OWNERSHIP. By Daniel E. Wing.
THE GROSS AND NET GAIN OF RISING WAGES. By Robert Giffen.
CONCERNING SHREWS. By Frederik A. Fernald. (Illustrated.)
A CHEMICAL PROLOGUE. By Prof. C. Hanford Henderson.
THE PHYSIOGNOMY OF THE MOUTH. By Th. Piderit. (Illustrated.)
THE MEANING OF PICTURED SPHERES. By Prof. J. C. Houzeau.
SKETCH OF A. F. J. PLATEAU. By Sophie Bledsoe HERRICK. (With Portrait.)
CORRESPONDENCE; EDITOR'S TABLE; LITERARY NOTICES, etc.

Price, 50 cents single number; $5 per annum.

D. APPLETON & CO., Publishers,
NEW YORK.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 27, 1890.

The Week.

THE "World's Fair in New York" has been killed so many times during the past sixty days that one killing more or less does not signify. The mourners must now be very much in the mood of an undertaker's hired man: they have mourned so often that they can relish a pipe and a good glass of beer after the funeral. The only ones to be really pitied are the winners of the World's Fair. These are the Chicago men. They have now got to shoulder an expenditure of at least $10,000,000. They have a subscription in hand of about four millions, not more than one-half of which is collectible. The State Constitution forbids them to incur any city indebtedness beyond 5 per cent. of the valuation for State taxes. This limit is already reached. If they raise the valuation for World's-Fair purposes, they raise it for State-taxing purposes also. The Constitution also forbids any city in Illinois to give any pecuniary aid to any private corporation for any purpose. In fact, the city of Chicago is tied up much tighter in this regard than the city of New York. Whatever money is raised must be subscribed by individuals as a donation or a speculation. We wish Chicago every kind of success. We think, however, that she will sicken of her prize before the end of a week, unless she resolutely cuts the Fair down to the size of her purse. This she can do and must do, but the result will be much inferior to the Paris Exposition of last year.

That national politics had much to do with the defeat of New York in the House of Representatives we have no doubt. But it is unfair to put all the blame on Platt, or on Platt and Quay. The Republican party are naturally shy of any job having money in it when they cannot see clearly how it is to be spent. The two-thirds amendment adopted at Albany did not entirely satisfy them. After all is said and done, the city officers of New York are Democrats, and the city's money must go through Democratic hands first. Ten millions is a large sum. A small percentage of it would go a great way in a campaign. An active imagination would magnify the dangers in the eyes of Republican Congressmen, and an active imagination is what they are much blessed with at the present time. New York's Democratic majority is the great bugbear of the party. They cannot endure the thought of its having any more pabulum and means of subsistence, lest it should grow larger in 1892. While they cannot see clearly the channels of disbursement of the ten millions, they say to themselves that it is safer to have the Fair somewhere else than in New York. It is not likely that the result would have been different if Platt and Quay had kept hands off, or if they had never been born. Of course in all this the Republicans were looking at the small sides of the next Presidential campaign, but only the small sides are visible to them now.

Why did the drafters of the World's Fair Bill try to conceal its principal motive? The practice of concealing the object of bills, a favorite one with jobbers and speculators, has been forbidden, or reprobated, at least, by section 16 of article iii. of the Constitution, which says: "No private or *local* bill which may be passed by the Legislature *shall embrace more than one subject, and that shall be expressed in the title*"; and by section 20 of the same article, which says "every law which imposes, continues, or revives a tax shall distinctly state the tax and the object to which it is to be applied, and it *shall not be sufficient to refer to any other law to fix such tax or object.*" Now, any one who had heard nothing of the agitation about the Columbus Fair might, we affirm, read this Fair Bill from beginning to end without a suspicion that it was meant simply to provide for the holding of a six months' fair on a certain portion of Manhattan Island. What does this concealment mean? Why did the preamble to the bill not say boldly that, for the purpose of holding a Columbus Fair in 1892, the city was to issue $10,000,000 in bonds, and have power to condemn an indeterminate area of private property? Was it not because the drafters doubted the constitutionality of their scheme if set out in plain terms, and therefore felt the necessity of evading the constitutional restrictions by indirection, vagueness, and obscurity?

These are the questions which the sober and sensible portion of the public wishes to have answered. They are questions which the newspapers, had they done their duty to the public, would have pressed home at the outset. Any answer to them would explain why it is the bill was never allowed to see the light before it was presented to the Legislature; why its passage was asked for without debate; why no discussion of it has been attempted or permitted by its supporters in or out of doors during its passage; why its journalistic advocates have not ventured on any manly examination of its provisions during the past four weeks; why Mr. Carter's criticism cut so deeply into its vitals; and why it has gone down to Washington a disgrace to the city and to the State and to the newspaper press. No man who cares for his reputation, either personal or professional, likes, if he can help it, to get up openly and defend a subterfuge, a make-believe, a sham, a pretence, or an evasion. This is why it has been passed, not by discussion, but by hullabaloo. Happily there are courts in New York which will do for this shameful measure what the Legislature and the newspaper press ought to have done. We do not profess to know whether it is constitutional or not, but we do know that appearances are against it; that it has been passed under circumstances which make it a discredit to free government. No tribe of barbarians would enact a law of such importance with so little attempt at deliberation or persuasion. It is only despots and mobs who reach decisions affecting public and private rights in this fashion. A State which made a practice of such legislation should have for its coat-of-arms fifty old hats in the air, and "Let her rip" for its motto.

In his memorandum of reasons for approving the World's Fair Bill, Gov. Hill took occasion to establish a precedent for himself for use in vetoing the Fassett Rapid-Transit Bill in case that ever reaches him. He did it, in a decidedly characteristic manner, in the following passage:

> "The measure does not violate the principle of 'home rule,' nor is it inconsistent with correct principles of legislation. The Commissioners designated in the bill are expressly declared therein to be those 'heretofore selected by the Mayor of the city of New York.' (See section 4.) This is a proper recognition of the principle that commissioners to carry out local improvements, or to disburse moneys of a municipality, should be selected by the local authorities themselves, and not by the Legislature. I have for several years uniformly refused my approval of measures in which this principle has been ignored."

The Governor was perfectly well aware when he wrote this that, in selecting the Fair Commissioners, the Mayor was not acting in his official capacity, but as chairman of an informal meeting of a body of citizens who had no existence known to the law. To say of Commissioners so named that their selection is a recognition of the principle of home rule, is a kind of legal reasoning peculiar to our unique Governor.

Nearly a fortnight has passed since the following remarkable confession appeared in a leading editorial article of the New York *Tribune*:

> "Many people fancy, because Gov. Hill carried New York when President Cleveland was defeated, that a plurality of the voters in the State would support him again. *But in that contest, as people here well know, Hill succeeded only because he was able to sell a Presidency for a Governorship.* If he ever puts himself where the other people have a chance to do the selling, he will get a measure of his popularity."

Such a statement from such a source naturally attracted national attention. It was nothing less than a confession that the Republicans had bought the Presidency for Harrison by selling the Governorship to Hill. The language is so explicit as to leave no doubt of the writer's meaning. It says that "Hill succeeded *only* because *he was able* to sell a Presidency for a Governorship." That means that the sale was consummated, with equal guilt on both sides. The statement was not made in an off-hand paragraph, but in the leading editorial article of the day, which is understood to give expression to the paper's most well-considered views. It appeared on Friday, February 14, and though it has been commented upon

since from one end of the country to the other, no attempt to explain or modify or retract it has been made by the *Tribune*. Another newspaper has volunteered the opinion that the statement was "nothing more than an empty phrase tossed off from the point of an inconsiderate and irresponsible pen," but the *Tribune* is the only authority competent to make that explanation, and it has refrained from offering it. So long as it remains silent, explanations of any sort from outside sources are of no value.

The Joint Committee on High License of this city, which has led in the agitation for a high-license law during the past three years, has submitted a bill for the consideration of the Governor and the Legislature which was introduced by Senator Hendricks on Thursday. It places the minimum fee for full liquor license at $300 and the maximum at $500 in cities, and at $100 and $200 respectively in towns. The beer and wine fee is placed at not less than $60 nor more than $150 in cities, and not less than $40 nor more than $100 in towns. Hotel licenses are from $100 to $500 in cities and from $75 to $250 in towns. Store licenses for sales in packages, and not to be drunk on the premises, are graded from $75 to $250 in cities and from $50 to $150 in towns. The druggist fee is placed at $20. This is very moderate high license, and there is no reason save "politics" why the State should not be given the benefit of it. There is, however, slight prospect of this or any other bill becoming a law.

The Joint Committee give, in their memorial, the following reason for New York's failure to secure wise restrictive temperance legislation:

> "It is now clear enough that New York remains behind the other States of the Union in salutary legislation on this great and vital subject, not because a majority of her citizens are not wise and virtuous enough to favor it, but because the pride and jealousy of parties, bad leadership, or discordant factions, prevent the true friends of good laws from coming together and giving effective expression to their common wishes. This state of things cannot long continue, but, so long as it remains, the best citizenship of New York will be both misrepresented and dishonored, and corruption, arising from the liquor traffic, will more degrade the party politics of the State."

No, that is not the real explanation of the condition of affairs. The true explanation was much more tersely given by the New York *Tribune* on the 14th of February, when it said of the election of 1888, when Warner Miller was running on the high-license issue: "In that contest, as people here well know, Hill succeeded only because he was able to sell a Presidency for a Governorship." There can be no high-license or other restrictive temperance legislation hoped for in this State so long as Gov. Hill is in office, and he was put into office by the Republican managers because, in the language of the *Tribune*, "he was able to sell a Presidency for a Governorship." It was not "pride and jealousy of parties" which prompted that sale, but greed of office which impelled the Republican managers to buy the Presidency at any price.

The Democratic managers have concluded to carry to the Supreme Court, at the earliest possible opportunity, the question whether the new rule allowing the Speaker to count a quorum, and thus permitting the passage of a bill by the votes of less than a majority, is in accordance with the Constitution. Such a question could not be submitted to the courts in New York, or New Jersey, or Pennsylvania, or Illinois, or California, or many other States which have adopted new constitutions or amended old ones during the last quarter of a century, because the constitutions of those States require the affirmative votes of a majority in each house to pass a bill. The Constitution of the United States does not contain this provision, but the practice during the first century of Congress was such that the minority could always enforce the principle if they chose to insist upon it. The wisdom of the plan has been abundantly demonstrated in all of the States which have adopted it, and it will be most unfortunate if the Supreme Court decides that the nation can no longer have this needed check upon party legislation.

The Philadelphia *Press* and other high-tariff organs are trying to make a great tariff victory out of the defeat of Mr. Ayres in the late Judge Kelley's district in Philadelphia on Tuesday week. But what are the facts? Mr. Ayres ran as an out-and-out tariff-reformer, with free wool as the foremost plank of his platform. He ran in a district which had for years chosen to Congress a leader among the protectionists, and in a city in which the Republican organization is perfect, while the Democrats are so disorganized that, through local disaffection, their vote at the election last November fell off nearly 50,000 as compared with the vote of the year before. In the face of all this the Republican plurality last Tuesday was kept down to 8,384, as compared with 9,639 in 1888 and 11,509 in 1886, and Mr. Ayres polled 1,400 votes beyond his party strength. The *Press* itself testifies to the discouraging circumstances under which the Democratic campaign was conducted when it says, "The 33,000 votes cast for William J. Eagan for Magistrate show how serious is the split in the Democratic party in this city." When an out-and-out tariff-reformer can make a campaign like this in such a stronghold of protection as Philadelphia, the vitality of the reform cannot be doubted.

No one thing has more disturbed the subsidy-hunters than the publication and extensive circulation by the New York Reform Club of Mr. Wells's address on "The Decline of our Mercantile Marine—Its Cause and its Cure." The *American Economist* has been particularly anxious to break the force of Mr. Wells's arguments and figures, and has recently made a labored effort to refute his statement that, notwithstanding a large increase since 1883 in the facilities for trading with the West Indies, Mexico, Central and South America, through the establishment of new lines of steamers, our exports to these countries declined in the six years from 1883 to 1888 to the extent of 12½ per cent. The New York *Commercial Bulletin* has, however, made a careful investigation of this matter, and, as a result, says that Mr. Wells is entirely right in his conclusions, and that the *Economist* has either "blunderingly compiled its figures or failed to examine the statements it undertook to criticise." The *Bulletin* backs up its assertions by abundant evidence from the latest reports of the Bureau of Statistics.

Assistant Postmaster-General Clarkson says he is going to retire in a few days, because he will then have made practically a "clean sweep" of the Democratic postmasters, and there will be nothing left for a statesman of his school to do. This is the shameless way in which this Iowa spoilsman talks: "I have very nearly served out my sentence. I was sent up for a year against my own protest, but I agreed to serve that time to help the Administration. I think if I had been treated in the same way as ordinary prisoners I should have got some reduction on account of good behavior, don't you? Here I have changed 31,000 out of 55,000 fourth-class postmasters, and I expect to change 10,000 more before I finally quit. I expect before the end of the month to see five-sixths of the Presidential postmasters changed. Then I can paraphrase old Simeon, and say: 'Let thy servant depart in peace.'" The Administration which Clarkson agreed to "help" by thus making a clean sweep, is the Administration constituted by the President who, as candidate, gave the people his solemn pledge that fidelity and efficiency should be the sure tenure of office, and that only the interests of the public service should suggest removals from office.

In the course of his three weeks' speech in favor of the "Bill to Promote Mendicancy," Mr. Blair made an appeal to Southern Senators to vote for the scheme, on the ground that they could thus get some money out of the Federal Treasury as an offset to the large amount they pay into the Treasury to be distributed among pensioners in the North. The Southern press indignantly repels this open attempt to bribe the Southern people into supporting a measure. "This argument," says the Savannah *News*, "will not make friends for his bill in the South. The bill must be considered on its merits. Will it be helpful or harmful to the South? That is the question which the Southern people ask with regard to it. If they believed that it would be harmful, they would not favor it, though the amount which it proposed to distribute in the Southern States each year were ten times $7,000,000."

The deadlock in the Iowa Legislature, which has lasted nearly six weeks, was ended last week by an arrangement under which the Democrats get the Speakership, and the Republicans the control of the most important committees. For the first time, therefore, in over thirty years this old-time "banner Republican State" has a Democratic

Speaker, and a Democratic Governor will immediately be inaugurated. The Republicans must now make up their minds what they will do about prohibition. They can maintain the existing law if they choose, or they can allow the substitution of a local-option-law system. Whichever they do, they are pretty sure to get beaten in the next election, for the State will declare against prohibition again if it gets a chance; and, on the other hand, many Republicans will desert the party unless it maintains prohibition.

President Eliot of Harvard gave utterance to some very sound observations upon journalism and schools of journalism in a recent speech in Philadelphia. Because he observed that newspapers were occasionally careless about the character of the men whom they employed as reporters, he was made the victim of a distorted and false report of his remarks, in which he was charged with having made a "bitter attack on the press," and upon the "personal character of reporters employed upon the Boston newspapers." He was compelled to make public denial that he had done anything of the kind, and to explain what he had really said as follows:

"I remember saying that, from my personal experience, I knew that insufficient care was exercised in that respect, and that I thought it was a great injury to the press and to the profession of newspaper men as a class. Then I illustrated that by saying that in one year four men who were dismissed from Harvard for disgraceful offences, not for college pranks, were immediately employed upon newspapers. That was the moral of my remarks—that more care was needed on the part of the managers in the selection of their younger men. Everything that I said tended to the dignifying and elevating of the journalistic profession and not to its lowering."

The treatment to which some reporter in Philadelphia subjected this moderate and accurate statement was the best possible evidence of its truth. He sent to the Boston *Herald* a report in which he represented President Eliot as saying that "the men who are employed as reporters in Boston were drunkards, thieves, deadbeats, and bummers," and as being roundly rebuked for his utterance by one of his own graduates. It is very evident that the *Herald* has been careless in regard to the character of its correspondent in Philadelphia.

What President Eliot said about "Schools of Journalism" is in entire harmony with what has frequently been expressed in these columns. As restated by himself in his enforced explanation, it was:

"My first point was, that I believed the right training for an editorial writer was a thorough training in writing English, and in history, political economy, and modern languages, and that this training could be had in any college with an elective system. Therefore, I thought that the degree of B.A. was better for a journalist than the degree of a special school. Some of the colleges, as you know, have started schools of journalism. I do not believe in them. I believe the right training for a journalist is a thorough training on the lines I have mentioned above."

Here are some interesting facts from the correspondence of the *Evening Post* for legislators who are constantly seeking to check "speculation" by the enactment of laws, showing as they do how certain speculation is to check itself when it is overdone, or when it is conducted in violation of sound business methods. Seats in the Chicago 'Change have fallen in value $3,700 since 1882, and grain speculation is so dull there that many firms are talking of retiring. In the Pittsburgh Oil Exchange, where a few years ago the excitement ran as high as it does in the liveliest times in Wall Street, a day passed recently without a sale; and the fine Exchange Building is to be sold, that the members may find more modest and less expensive quarters. The correspondents give some of the reasons for all this, which all point in one direction, viz., the control of the markets by vast concentrated capital, which can so determine the immediate supply as to eliminate that other factor which was once worth considering—the genuine demand. The ruinous results of vast wheat and oil "deals" in recent years have been much more potent to check "speculation" than any legislation could be, no matter how cunningly devised.

A report comes from the Panama Canal Commission, by way of Paris, that the Commissioners find that only three-tenths of the work has been done, that it is impossible to make a sea-level canal at that place at all, that a canal with two locks only will cost $140,000,000 in addition to what has been spent already, and that it will be best to construct it with six to eight locks. As these facts were over and over again proclaimed by American engineers who visited the works during the lifetime of the Lesseps enterprise, it is probable that the report published by the *Gaulois* is authentic. There was a sudden fall in Panama shares on the Paris Bourse about the time that the Canal Commission arrived in this country on their return, and this may be taken as another sign of authenticity.

It is becoming a very serious question in European politics whether France and England will accede to the German Emperor's suggestion for a joint conference on the labor question. According to the Paris *Temps*, the French Cabinet will not take part in it unless England does. It is tolerably plain that England will not do so, because England, by virtue of her free-trade policy, now has the whip-hand of Europe in the contest for industrial supremacy. The *Economist* discusses the question from the business man's point of view, and shows that what Germany wants is some foreign aid to help her out of difficulties that her protectionist policy has plunged her into. She has fenced out foreign competition from her own borders, but has crippled herself in foreign markets at the same time. The Emperor wants to lessen the hours of labor and otherwise improve the condition of factory operatives, but the owners tell him that they cannot. If any new expenses are put upon them, they must shut up their shops. Then the benevolent and rather soft idea occurs to him that if Germany's competitors would agree to work fewer hours and charge more for their goods, the matter might be easily arranged. Hence the invitation to the labor conference. But, says the *Economist*, each country wants nothing so much as to get an advantage over the others.

"When the rival Powers understand that they are being asked to lighten the weight of toil from German shoulders and to give their fighting opponent a little breathing space, they are certain to say No—'You ask us to assist you to win the race by altering conditions which disturb you worse than they do us, but that is what we cannot and will not do. We want to beat you, not to help you to beat us.'"

The German Emperor's first step in the walks of independence has not been such as to encourage him. The elections for members of the Reichstag have resulted in a large increase of the Socialist vote and of the Socialist membership. Whatever may have been the Emperor's motives for the recent rescripts on the labor question, they have not led the Socialists to transfer any of their political strength to the side of conservatism. On the contrary, they have rallied with greater confidence than ever to the support of Bebel and Liebknecht. What thoughts are uppermost in the mind of Prince Bismarck at this juncture we may perhaps faintly conceive. The Chancellor has ruled Prussia and Germany for a quarter of a century upon the principles of personal government as distinguished from parliamentary government. A wise despotism has been his ideal of political greatness and social security. Arbitrary power, lodged in the hands of the strong man whose sole aim is the prosperity and elevation of his country, is the keystone of his system. It is a system which requires a continued succession of strong men in the right place. It requires not only a succession of Bismarcks, but a succession of Williams. The strong man must always have the support of the wise and confiding Emperor. If one or the other of these fails to appear in due time, the system is in instant peril, and when such peril comes, the consequences are enormous. But Bismarcks are among the rarest products of this world. Not more than one or two in a century are to be looked for among all civilized nations. A wise and confiding Emperor is a much more frequent phenomenon; but the system itself is exactly calculated to produce self-confidence in Emperors, and to cripple or eliminate the strong man even when he appears.

Opposed to this system is the one which teaches a nation to rely upon itself. Parliamentary government does not necessarily dispense with Emperors and Kings; still less does it dispense with the strong man. On the contrary, it supplies means by which the strong man, when Providence sends us one, shall be in his right place, at the head of public affairs. Imperialism in Germany is on trial. Most people have believed that the trial would not come till Bismarck should have passed away. It is fitting that it should come before.

THE WINNING ISSUES OF 1890.

THE turning-point of the politics and the prosperity of the United States, near the close of the nineteenth century, is the present control of the House of Representatives by the Republican party for the first time, with the exception of one Congress, since 1875. Beginning with the election of 1860, to provide for the expiration of Buchanan's term, the Republicans have inaugurated seven Presidents and the Democrats only one; but from the assembling of the House on July 4, 1861, to March 4, 1889, the Democrats have controlled the House during six Congresses of twelve years, and the Republicans during eight Congresses of sixteen years. Since July 4, 1861, Grow, Colfax, Blaine, Keifer, and Reed have been the Republican, Kerr, Randall (six years), and Carlisle (six years) the Democratic Speakers of the House. From the assembling of Congress in 1875 to its assembling in 1889, a period of fourteen years, the Democrats controlled the House during all except two years.

During the Forty-fifth Congress, 1877-79, the Democrats had forty-two Senators, the Republicans thirty-three, and the Independents one. In the next Congress, the relative numbers were the same, but in the next thereafter, 1881-83, the Democrats and Republicans were equal; there were outside of them one Readjuster Democrat and one Independent. In the Forty-ninth Congress, the Republican Senators were forty-two, the Democrats only thirty-four, and now, there being eighty-four Senators (two seats from Montana to be filled), the Republicans have forty-five and the Democrats thirty-seven. In 1891 the terms of twenty-eight Senators (twelve Democrats and sixteen Republicans) will expire, and in 1893 the terms of twelve Democrats and fifteen Republicans. The term of Mr. Evarts will expire in 1891, and that of Mr. Hiscock two years afterwards. Mr. Sherman's term in Ohio will expire in 1893. The terms of the two Republican Senators from Connecticut will end, one in 1891 and one in 1893. Not till the changes in 1895 can Democrats hope to control the Senate, even with the most favorable and winning issues.

During no year since 1860 have Democrats controlled executive and legislative power as Republicans now control, and during no year since 1875 have the Republicans had the power they now have over Federal laws and the Federal Treasury—currency, finance, taxation, surplus, and debt. All the while, excepting one Congress, since the last-named year have Democrats in the House been able, by good rules and good tactics, to prevent bad and plundering legislation coming from the Senate or from anywhere else; but now the barrier has been effectually removed. There is nothing between the taxpayers and the deep sea of extravagant expenditure and extravagant taxation.

To the present House were elected 169 Republicans and 161 Democrats. The last House had 153 Republicans, 169 Democrats, 2 Independents, and 1 vacancy. Nothing can be expected to change the character of the present Congress. The country must lie in the bed it made last November. But the voting for a new House will be next autumn.

Are Democrats, and especially such Democratic leaders in the House (where taxation must originate) as Mr. Carlisle and Mr. Mills, thinking of that, and the issues on which victory can be had? Why did Democrats lose, in November, 1888, the present House? In which States did the loss or gain occur? The changes were in the following States:

States.	Fifty-first Congress.		Fiftieth Congress.	
	Rep.	Dem.	Rep.	Dem.
Connecticut	3	1	1	3
Illinois	13	7	14	6
Indiana	3	10	7	6
Iowa	10	1	8	3
Kentucky	2	9	3	8
Louisiana	1	5	..	6
Maryland	2	4	1	5
Massachusetts	10	2	8	4
Michigan	9	2	6	5
Minnesota	5	..	2	3
Missouri	4	10	2	12
Nebraska	3	..	2	1
New Hampshire	2	..	1	1
New Jersey	4	3	5	2
North Carolina	3	6	2	7
Ohio	16	5	15	6
Pennsylvania	21	7	20	8
Tennessee	3	7	2	8
Virginia	2	8	6	4
West Virginia	..	4	1	3
Total	116	91	106	101

What is the significance of that tabular statement? Why did not the Democratic party, having the executive department in its hands, increase very largely last November its majority in the House? Why did it, on the contrary, lose two members in Connecticut, two in Iowa, one in Louisiana, one in Maryland, two in Massachusetts, three in Michigan, three in Minnesota, two in Missouri, one in Nebraska, one in New Hampshire, one in New Jersey, one in North Carolina, one in Ohio, one in Pennsylvania, and one in Tennessee? All signs now indicate that the conduct of Harrison and of the Treasury, and the doings of the House, if kept up during the present session, will easily give to the *outs* power over the next House; but will the *outs* carry the Presidential election? That will largely depend on the issues formulated by the Democratic leaders during the present session? In politics, as in war, the successful assault on an enemy in position is easiest at the point of least resistance. In the tariff struggle, as an illustration, have Mr. Carlisle and Mr. Mills, and the other Democratic leaders in Congress, selected *that* point, and are they organizing a vigorous onset? Are they, leaving all minor things and minor phases of the tariff to take care of themselves, thinking of the McKinley bill, and free raw materials for our manufacturers, the taxation of which materials tends to strangle manufactures at their birth?

NEW YORK'S CHANCES FOR ELECTORAL REFORM.

IF it were not for Gov. Hill's obstruction, there would be no doubt whatever that the State of New York would secure this winter the enactment of two laws which would bring about the most thorough reform in election methods enjoyed by any American State. Both measures have been introduced in the Legislature by Senator Saxton, and they are both the most carefully drawn of their kind known as yet to American Legislatures. The first is the Ballot Bill, which, while similar in its main principles to the bills vetoed by Gov. Hill in previous years, has been revised and strengthened in the light of experience afforded by the practical operation of a similar law in Massachusetts. This bill was passed by the Senate on Wednesday week under such circumstances as to give hope of its passage in that body over a veto in case the Governor persists in his antagonism. It received the solid Republican vote and also the vote of two Democratic Senators. A third Democratic Senator, who has heretofore fathered Gov. Hill's bogus opposition measure, refrained from voting, on the ground that, as a believer in ballot reform, he did not wish to go on record in opposition even to a measure whose provisions he did not entirely approve. The entire Republican vote together with that of the two Democratic Senators makes a total only one short of the necessary two-thirds required for passage over a veto. There is good reason for believing that the popular demand for the reform will impel at least one other Democratic Senator to favor the Saxton bill when the issue is squarely made between that and no legislation.

The principal changes which Senator Saxton has made in his bill are, first, the grouping of all candidates by parties; and second, requiring the voter to erase the names of all candidates save those for whom he wishes to vote. A separate blank column is provided in which the voter can write the names of such candidates as he chooses in case none of those in the printed lists meet his approbation. Objection has been made to these changes that in various ways they will facilitate strict party voting. It is said that when a voter can indicate his choice by merely striking out all columns of names save those of his own party, the brief time required for this operation will be a sufficient indication that he has voted "straight." It is also said that the blank column affords opportunity for the use of "blanket pasters" which may be got up in the interest of "deals" and other corrupt combinations, and which voters may use instead of voting any of the regular tickets. To both these objections the best answer that can be made is that given by Mr. Henry A. Richmond, in an excellent address upon the scope and need of the reform which he delivered recently in Buffalo. "This reform," he said, "is not instituted for the purpose of encouraging any particular kind of

voting, but for the purpose of enabling the voter to cast his vote uninfluenced either by intimidation or by corruption; and when this result is obtained, how he votes—whether a straight ticket or for independent candidates—is his own matter, and the ticket should be so arranged that he will be able to select the names of the persons for whom he desires to vote with as little trouble as possible."

The great ends aimed at by the ballot-reform movement are the isolation of the voter while preparing his ballot, and the use of no ballots save those provided by the State and distributed in the polling-place on the day of election. When these are attained, no briber can follow a voter to the polls to see how he votes. If he takes note of his time in marking his ballot, he may infer that he has voted a straight ticket, but he cannot tell whether it is the ticket of one party or another. If he gives him a paster, he can have no proof that he has used it. When no ballots can be used save those provided at the public expense, there will no longer be excuse for "assessments" upon candidates or requests for contributions from the rich men of the party for campaign funds. These are the primary objects of ballot reform, and they will have been accomplished in this State when the Saxton Ballot Bill has become a law.

Mr. Saxton's second bill, which is modelled upon the English Corrupt Practices Act, will give us another and no less important reform, but it cannot be of service till the official secret ballot is secured. When the excuse for assessments and campaign funds has been removed, we can then forbid by law the corrupt use of money in elections and can enforce the law. That is what Mr. Saxton's second bill is designed to do, and it seems to be admirably adapted for the purpose. It is in the form of an amendment to the Penal Code, and makes it unlawful for any person, directly or indirectly, by himself or through any other person, to influence in any possible manner, either by bribery, loan, persuasion, promise of money, or office, or any thing of value, the vote of another It also makes it unlawful for a voter to submit to such influence, either in voting or refraining from voting. The specifications are drawn with great minuteness, and cover every possible form of bribery or influence—betting, intimidation, coercion, or restraint, or threats of reduced wages by employers, and all the other familiar methods. After election every candidate is required to file a sworn account of all moneys expended by him, or for him by any one else, in the election. The provision on this point is one of the strongest that have been put in any bill of the kind yet drawn in this country. It reads:

"Every candidate who is voted for at any public election held within this State shall, within ten days after such election, file as hereinafter provided an itemized statement, showing in detail all the moneys contributed or expended by him, directly or indirectly, by himself or through any other person, in aid of his election. Such statement shall give the names of the various persons who received such moneys, the specific nature of each item, and the purpose for which it was expended or contributed. There shall be attached to such statement an affidavit subscribed and sworn to by such candidate, setting forth in substance that the statement thus made is in all respects true, and that the same is a full and detailed statement of all moneys so contributed or expended by him directly or indirectly, by himself or through any other person in aid of his election. Candidates for offices to be filled by the electors of the entire State, or any division or district thereof greater than a county, shall file their statements in the office of the Secretary of State. Candidates for all other offices shall file their statements in the office of the Clerk of the county wherein the election occurs."

The penalties are very severe, as it is most important they should be:

"Whosoever shall violate any provision of this title, upon conviction thereof shall be punished by imprisonment in a county jail for not less than three months nor more than one year. The offences described in this act are hereby declared to be infamous crimes. When a person is convicted of any offence mentioned in section forty-one of this act [all forms of bribery or influence] he shall, in addition to the punishment above prescribed, forfeit any office to which he may have been elected at the election with reference to which such offence was committed; and when a person is convicted of any offence mentioned in section forty-one a [being bribed] of this act, he shall, in addition to the punishment above prescribed, be excluded from the right of suffrage for a period of five years after such conviction. Any candidate for office who refuses or neglects to file a statement, as prescribed, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, punishable as above provided. And, if such candidate be elected, he shall, in addition to such punishment, be suspended from the duties and deprived of the emoluments of his office until the proper statement shall be filed."

There is not, as in the English act, a limitation fixed for campaign expenditures, above which no candidate can go; but while this was considered of importance when put into the English act, practical experience has shown that sworn publication of all expenditures has made it unnecessary. The limit has seldom been reached by any candidate, being on an average one-third higher than actual expenditures.

The unanimous passage of this bill by the Senate on Thursday foreshadows its equally easy passage by the Assembly. The Governor is also committed in its favor, and even if he were to invent excuses to veto it, the prospect appears to be good for its passage over a veto. It is, of course, a far more formidable measure for Gov. Hill and his Tammany allies than the Ballot Bill.

THE NEBRASKA RATE PROBLEM.

JUST what results the Senate expects from its recent resolution on Western corn rates is not very clear. After alleging that the great region east of the Rocky Mountains is unable to obtain actual cost of production for its food products on account of excessive freight rates, it is resolved that the Inter-State Commission investigate whether this allegation is true or not, whether any section of the Inter-State Law is responsible for the situation, and whether a more stringent enforcement of the law would remedy the evil. That opens the whole question of the public regulation of railroad tariffs. Should the law be modified or more stringently enforced? Not a small part of the difficulties of the Inter-State Commission consists in formulating opinions on such a problem as is here presented.

The confusion in the public mind is illustrated by the fact that the petitions presented to the Senate from Nebraska are directly opposed to each other. One asks that the long-and-short-haul prohibition be repealed, as responsible for much of the present trouble in Nebraska. Another petition, from a jobbing city in the same State, remonstrates against any alteration of the law; for in its rigorous enforcement lies the city's hope of competitive sales as against other cities favored by position and by the rail carriers. The Granger sentiment was largely responsible for the Inter-State Act, because it was thought, in part justly, that cities and concentrated traffic in general were too much favored by the railroads. In the present emergency the Nebraska farmer finds the Inter-State Act a hindrance to the low rates which he thinks the railroads ought to grant upon his corn, so that his overproduction may reach an Eastern market at a price high enough to give him a small profit.

If we inquire whether the Nebraska farmer has any ground for his demand, we are met by one great preliminary difficulty. Either the rates upon the different articles carried by the railroads should bear a certain reasonable relation to each other, or they need not. As far as the Inter-State Law goes, it decides this question in favor of an equitable relationship. This is the contention of all interior towns that wish to control the jobbing trade of their section or State—Lincoln, Nebraska, as against Chicago, for example. This contention, applied to the carriage of corn, means that if unusually low rates are granted upon that commodity, every industry, agricultural or manufacturing, in that and other States will insist upon a like reduction because of discrimination. The usual argument is, "If the railroads can carry corn at that rate and make money, they can carry my goods at a corresponding price. Am I not as much in need of help as the farmer of Nebraska?" And under our present laws the argument has force.

One point about the long-and-short-haul discussion is not often referred to. If the famous fourth section should be struck from the law, the question of "undue preference or advantage" would still remain to be decided, and this would involve the rightfulness of a proportionately greater charge for a shorter distance. It is possible that the fact of the presence of a specific section in the Inter-State Act is itself at times a hindrance to justice. Naturally the Inter-State Commission, in interpreting the law, lays stress upon the necessity of conforming to this specific rule. It is also possible that the Commission's respect for the supposed wishes of Congress and the nation has led it a little too far. The Commission is quoted as saying, for instance, that a local rate between two points must bear a certain relation to the proportion of a through rate accruing between the same points on a distant shipment. This, it will be noticed, goes beyond the letter of the fourth section, which deals with aggregate charges only. Many of our disputes about this long-and-short-haul matter could,

on grounds of equity, be settled better by a repeal of the section entirely, thus leaving the question of discrimination to be determined by the general prohibition of undue preference. One objection to this might be that the law is now too vague, and that we ought not to take out the only specific clause. But is the law too vague? Is it not thus rather conforming to other statutes?

Under our laws a house must be habitable if rent is to be collected by suit. We are nowhere told exactly what habitable means. Cases have been tried in times past which furnish a large number of precedents governing the relations between landlord and tenant. Under these precedents it is a matter of fact to be determined by the evidence whether a certain damage releases the tenant or not. Consider the confusion which would ensue should our statutes attempt to define exactly the things necessary for a habitable home. The vagueness may seem unsatisfactory, but it works towards a fairer measure of justice for all concerned. In like manner the vagueness of the prohibition of unjust discrimination in transportation is faulty, mainly through a lack of precedents, though the whole law needs better machinery for its enforcement. The body of men who begin the work of establishing such precedents have a difficult and delicate task. In this respect the community is fortunate in the present Commission. As a means of meting out justice, the Anglo-Saxon mind has not yet invented a better method than by having each side in a dispute state its case as strongly as possible before some impartial tribunal, this deciding between the disputants upon the facts and in accordance with some general principle. The differences of circumstances and of conditions in transportation are endless. No law could possibly cover them all in detail. The statement of a principle should be the only requirement, leaving the application to the Commission, according to the facts in each case. In the Nebraska matter the railroads think that a great reduction in the corn rate would benefit the consumer more than the producer; but, more than all else, they fear that, under the theory of relationship of rates such a reduction would be made the ground for a general demand for similar favors on other articles. At the same time, if we argue that one rate should not be used as a criterion for another rate, we precipitate upon the country all the evils which the Inter-State Act was intended to cure.

Going back to the resolution again, the Commission should have the sympathy of the community. How the "more stringent enforcement" of the law would help the corn-producer is hard to see. If all are agreed upon the correctness of the main principles of the Inter-State Act, it is equally difficult to see how the railroad rates on corn can be pronounced relatively unreasonable; while a pronounced change in any important provision of the act—such as the short-haul rule—would ruin many important business interests established throughout the very corn belt whose products now do not realize the "actual cost of production."

THE ENGLISH LABOR LESSON.

THE results of the strike of the dock laborers in London last year, as told from day to day in the English press, are extremely interesting to those who occupy themselves with what is called "the labor problem." Nothing in the story is more interesting than the closeness with which the whole affair has followed the American experience of four years ago. Here is a passage from the last *Spectator*, containing the lesson of the late English strikes, which might, barring the phraseology, have been found in these columns at almost any time during the spring of 1886·

"The issue thus raised is more serious than any of those on which trade quarrels used formerly to turn. Workmen have a right to give or withhold their labor. It is their own—theirs to sell if they wish to sell it; theirs to keep if they do not wish to sell it. But the very same principle of individual freedom which sustains this claim of the workmen, equally sustains the corresponding claim of the employers. They have a right to give or withhold employment. It is their own—theirs to sell if they wish to sell it; theirs to keep if they do not wish to sell it. The new dock strike directly contravenes this principle. The dock-laborers are endeavoring to prevent the employment of non-unionist men belonging to another trade. As regards their own labor, they are free to do as they please. They need not load any carts if they are minded to stand idle, nor need the unionist carmen bring any carts to be loaded if they prefer to stay at home. But when the members of either union seek, directly or indirectly, to prevent employers from getting other men to do the work which they refuse to do, they are openly attacking individual liberty. They are trying to stamp out non-unionist labor. No union standing by itself can attempt this with any chance of success. It can only be done by violent picketing, and as soon as picketing becomes unmistakably violent, the police interfere. But if unions combine, their power of interfering with non-unionists becomes very much greater. There is no need to use violence to the non-unionists themselves; they have the chance of attaining their end by the quieter method of making the employment of non-unionists inconvenient. In the present case, supposing the laborers' union have their way, any owner of goods employing non-unionist carmen will not get his goods delivered to him. He will send in vain to the dock or wharf where they are stored; the unionist laborers employed there will refuse to load his carts."

What has happened to bring home to the English mind these to us now familiar truths is this: When the casual laborers employed by the Dock Companies struck for higher wages and more regular work, the Dock Companies answered: "We cannot pay you higher wages, because our business will not allow us to do so. We are making no profits now, and some of us are almost insolvent. Nor can we give you regular work, because our business is irregular in its very nature. We sometimes need more labor than we can get, but most of the time do not need one-half of what offers. The fact is, that there are too many of you. It is your frantic competition here in East London which keeps you so poor and miserable. You ought either to go back to the country, where you are sorely needed, or emigrate to some new country. Our stockholders cannot take care of you, because a large proportion of them are very poor themselves."

There is much reason for believing that these words of soberness and truth would have produced the desired effect; that something would have been done to lessen the oversupply of labor in the dock district, and to arrest the drift into London of "casuals" tired of farm labor in the country districts, but for the interference at this point of a body of philanthropists, headed by Cardinal Manning and supported, with curious fatuity, by a portion of the daily press and of the charitable public. These friends of Labor furiously attacked the Dock Companies for their cruelty and injustice, on two grounds: one was that the dock-laborers were very poor and miserable, and the other was, in effect, that anybody who once employs a man is bound to see, ever after, that he has regular employment at good wages. In support of these theses, the strikers, led by a certain labor agitator and Socialist named Burns, were encouraged in every possible way to hold out. Subscriptions for their support poured in from all parts of the country; meetings were held to express sympathy with them; the companies were overwhelmed with abuse; sympathetic strikes among other trades were fomented and set on foot. The working-classes all over the country were plunged in a fever of vague expectation of the great labor millennium. No proper examination of the nature of the problem raised by the strike, or of the probable effect on business of their theory of the rights of labor, was made by any of the dockmen's advocates. The air was filled, among the well-to-do classes, with that curious fear that something revolutionary and tremendous was going to happen to the social organization which some of us experienced here when Powderly began to convert us all (except bankers and brokers) into "Knights of Labor," and threatened to do away with the State and Federal Governments.

The companies at last made some concessions, both as regards money and hours, which they could not really afford to make, but which they felt compelled to make in order to put an end to popular clamor and prevent the ruin of London as a port. The negotiations were conducted on behalf of the laborers by Cardinal Manning, Sir J. Whitehead, and Mr. Sidney Buxton, and an agreement in due form was finally reached, and the men went back to work. Did peace and content then reign? Not a bit of it. The companies have never had a quiet week since. The leaders of the union thought they had discovered that they possessed great power, and felt the need of continually showing it. The trouble began with an attempt to compel the discharge of all the non-unionists employed by the companies during the strike, and every few days have revealed a new grievance, to be redressed by a strike. Moreover, their success fired the imagination of the other London trades-unions. The gasmen struck because the companies tried to make them share in the profits. The carmen and truckmen struck in order to help the dockmen, refusing to deliver goods to be handled by non-union men at the docks, and so on through various connected trades. The loss of money has been very great, and so has the interruption to business and the inconvenience to the public.

Although the strikers are being defeated,

there is not much sign as yet of returning sense and moderation. Minute description of the situation is not needed for American readers. We have here passed through every phase of the crisis. We know all about the right of a laborer to stay permanently, on wages fixed by himself or by his union, in the employment of any one who once chances to employ him. We know all about the right to frighten, maim, mutilate, or murder non-union men if they, in their greater poverty, seek to fill places which union men have voluntarily vacated. We know all about the right to damage an employer's property and hinder his business, if he accepts peaceably the laborer's own decision to leave his service; we know all about the notion that everybody who employs labor must be a rich man, with plenty of money in some secluded spot, which he is bound to produce or divide with Labor whenever Labor asks for it. We are also very familiar with the duty of "society" to guarantee every man against the consequences of his own vice, or folly, or impudence, or laziness, or extravagance. And we are well acquainted with the labor agitator who thunders against capital at labor meetings, and dreads nothing more than cordial relations between employer and employed, because they ruin his business. There is something odd, however, in these days of steam and electricity, in seeing the English public slowly learning their lesson with as much patience and confession of ignorance as if they had never heard of our own recent experience.

THE AIM OF THE GERMAN SOCIALISTS.

THE importance of the victories the Socialists have won in Germany can hardly be appreciated without remembering that they have been denied the use of the ordinary electoral machinery; that is to say, they cannot hold public meetings or publicly distribute documents, and many of their leading men are in exile under police orders. They have, therefore, been obliged to resort to such odd means of canvassing as writing the names of their candidates in chalk on the walls of houses and on the sidewalks, and distributing hand-bills surreptitiously—in many cases through their school-children. They are for the most part poor men, and as no salaries are paid to members of the Reichstag, compensation for their members has to be provided by voluntary contributions. The Paris *Figaro* tells a story of one of their candidates named Viereck, an illegitimate son of the old Emperor William, whose name in German means "Square," and whose supporters, therefore, covered the walls in his district with squares of all sizes on election day, with the single word "elect" written underneath. Among their candidates at the late election, there were twelve carpenters, ten machinists, eight compositors, eight shoemakers, six merchants, four cigar-makers, three tavern-keepers, three masons, three moulders, two gilders, two druggists, eight journalists—a very fair representation of what are called the working-classes of the community. They have displayed such activity that they are said to have held 107 meetings in Berlin, in spite of the police, during the last week of their canvass. It was directed by a central committee sitting in the capital and composed of Bebel, Grillenberger, Liebknecht, Meister, and Singer. They distributed the funds and supplied the speakers. These funds come from all parts of the world, Belgium, Holland, Switzerland, Denmark, France, Austria, and England; but, strangely enough, by far the largest amounts come from the United States. Between the French and German Socialists there has, ever since 1884, been much fraternization. In that year the French made considerable contributions to the German campaign fund, and the Germans reciprocated in 1885.

In view of the rapid growth of the movement in Germany, of course greatly increased attention is being given to the aims of the Socialists. On this point they take every pains to make their meaning clear. At their Congress in Copenhagen, in 1883, they declared distinctly that what they sought was a radical social and economical revolution. They repeated this declaration at Bruggen in 1887. To make assurance doubly sure in the late canvass, they made every candidate sign the following declaration:

> "In the existing state of society all the means or instruments of labor have been monopolized by the capitalistic class; hence the dependence of the working class, the cause of all misery and of all slavery. As political parties act only for the purpose of guaranteeing their privileges to those who are already possessed of them, the working class ought to organize itself in a distinct party, having for its object its own economic emancipation. Every movement should have this end in view."

The Congress at Bruggen also put down, among the things to be striven for, "the expropriation of the soil and of other means of production."

So much for the programme. Its execution is, of course, a long way off. It will, even at the present rate of progress, be ages before the Socialists can in Germany or any other country set up a legislature strong enough to put the State in possession of all the land machinery of the country. The Socialists will win a good many victories in all countries, as long as the owners of property are not seriously alarmed. Wherever they are, Socialists of all shades will be astounded, and, it may be, appalled, by finding how deeply rooted in human nature property is, and what a tremendous resistance it can make to its enemies. So that the danger to it from the present movement in Germany has but little practical interest. What gives this its importance and attracts to it the attention of the world just now, is the exposure it makes of the futility and failure of the economical policy started by Bismarck and taken up by the present Emperor. It shows that not only have the high tariff and the workingmen's-insurance plan proved a complete failure as measures of pacification for the working classes, but that they have strengthened the working classes in their belief that their schemes of social reorganization are feasible. This is where the mischief of the Bismarck policy is now showing itself. A high tariff for the benefit of the workingman is the first step in his conversion to the notion that Government may properly take entire control of the national industry. As soon as this notion has taken a firm lodgment in his brain, the second step, by which he becomes convinced that to make the new system a success the Government should be entirely taken away from the capitalists, is very easy. This step the Germans are now taking. They are beginning to say: If it be true, as these emperors, and princes, and diplomats, and bankers, and other bigwigs say, that it is the duty of Government, and is in its power, to raise the wages of the workingman and make provision for him in his old age, surely the workingman himself is the fittest person to take charge of the matter. Why should it be left any longer in the hands of these gorgeous creatures in fine uniforms, who have never done a day's work in their lives, are living on the earnings of the poor, and have not a particle of real sympathy with them?

A JAPANESE STATE LEGISLATURE.

MITO, January 10, 1890.

JAPAN, like France, has a two-fold division of the country, the one geographical, and the other political. The former, or ancient, division is into *kuni*, of which there are now eighty-four; the latter, or modern division, is into *ken*, of which there are forty-two, besides three *fu*. (The three large cities of Tokio, Osaka, and Kioto, are part of no *ken*, but constitute each a political district, called *fu*). In 1878 the Emperor, in accordance with his pledge that "all measures [should] be decided by public opinion," as the first step towards local self-government, instituted assemblies in the various *ken* and *fu*. These assemblies meet annually in the capital city of each *ken*, and in each *fu*, and are called *kenkwai*, or *fukwai*. The city in which I live is the capital of a *ken*; therefore, I had an opportunity to visit the *kenkwai*, and to investigate the extent and limit of its authority.

In this *ken* the assembly is not provided with a chamber of its own for its meetings, but holds its sessions in the examination room of the High School. Ordinarily, visitors are allowed to be present at the sessions; but the chairman of the assembly is empowered to dismiss or keep out the audience at his discretion. It must, of course, be added, that the audience are expected to preserve proper order; in fact, only recently more stringent regulations have been issued to the police by the Government for the control of the outsiders. The man who expects to become a spectator leaves his card with the outer door-keepers, by whom his name is registered, and from whom a ticket of admission is received, to be given to the inner door-keeper.

At the further end of the room from the entrance on the higher platform is the Chairman's seat. On the lower platform, at his right and left, sit the two clerks, one a long hand recorder and the other a shorthand reporter. On the ground floor, the desks of the members are arranged on the three sides of a rectangle. Beginning on the Chairman's left, the members from No. 1 to No. 21 are on one of the long sides of the rectangle; directly in front of the Chairman, but near the doorway, the members from No. 22 to No. 30 fill the short side; and on the Chairman's left, the remainder, up to No. 50, occupy the other long side. In front of each desk hangs a paper label inscribed with the name and the number of the member. On each desk are an ink-box,

soroban (abacus), and such books and documents as may be needed. In the interior of the rectangle are several *hibachi*, large boxes which contain a charcoal fire. Back of the members on the Chairman's left, sit the audience. There are, of course, also servants to run on errands for the members. Among the representatives are a few old men; but almost all are middle-aged or young. About half of them have discarded the Japanese *kimono* for European dress. The room lacks ornaments altogether, and is far from being pretty according to Occidental ideas. Although the Japanese are very fond of tobacco and saki, no smoking or drinking is allowed in the assembly-room. The members do not lounge about, or sit with their feet on the desks, or envelope themselves in a cloud of smoke, or disgrace themselves by boisterous conduct. During the session they are very orderly; and, however spirited the debate may become, personal rudeness and violence are lacking.

According to the printed rules governing these bodies, they are "to counsel about the budget of expenses to be met by local taxation, and about the manner of collecting such taxes." The members are elected in each *gun* (county) or *ku* (ward) according to the population, at the rate of one member for each 20,000 people; but the number of representatives in one county or ward cannot exceed five. Each legislative district may also select *yobi-in* (reserve members), not to exceed ten, but always twice the number of the regular members. For instance, in this *kenkwai* there are altogether forty-eight representatives; therefore, the districts of this *ken* must elect in all ninety-six "reserve members." As their name indicates, they are to take the places of any regular members who may for any reason be unable to serve. It is thus very unlikely that there would ever be a vacancy to be filled by a special election, except in case the entire body is prorogued. Can any one mention another country where each member of a legislative body has two "reserve" substitutes ready to step into his vacant place?

A candidate for representative must be over twenty-five years of age, a permanent resident of that *ken*, and have lived there for more than three years. He must also be paying an annual land-tax of more than ten *yen*. Idiots, convicts of more than one year's confinement, bankrupts, civil officers, priests and ministers, soldiers and sailors in actual service, are all ineligible. Political offenders are not eligible till five years from the time of release; and those who have retired from public service are ineligible under four years. The qualifications of voters differ from the above in only four respects: electors must be over twenty years of age, permanent residents of that *gun* or *ku*, and be paying annual land-taxes of more than five *yen*, and priests and ministers have the right of suffrage. The term of service covers four years; but the system of rotation prevails, so that the terms of half of the members expire every two years.

From among the members the assembly elects a "standing committee of from five to seven persons," who serve for a period of two years. This committee remains in the capital city throughout the year, and gives its opinion when the Governor asks about the manner and order of carrying out the enactments of the assembly, and about the payment of extraordinary expense. In this committee a majority make a quorum and decide a vote; and at its meetings no spectators are allowed. A member of this committee receives "from 30 *yen* to 80 *yen* per month and travelling expenses"; while an ordinary member of the assembly receives "1 *yen* per diem during the session and travelling expenses." These salaries are all included in the budget of local taxation.

The ordinary annual session opens some time in November, and continues for not more than thirty days. If within that time the public business is unfinished, or if for any reason it seems necessary, the Governor is empowered to call a special session to continue for not more than seven days. In any case the Governor must state his reasons therefor to the Department of State for Home Affairs at Tokio. Likewise, if there is a disagreement between the Governor and the assembly, then both parties, stating the reasons for their opinions, must appeal for a decision to the Department of Home Affairs. In this case the Governor may suspend the assembly; and, if the decision from the central Government comes too late, he may call a special meeting. If the debates of the assembly disturb the public peace, or violate any laws or regulations, the Governor may suspend the assembly, but must notify the Department of Home Affairs. The latter, moreover, has the power at any time to suspend a *kenkwai* or a *fukwai*, but must call a new one within ninety days.

Every session of an assembly is formally "opened" by the Governor of that *fu* or *ken*. The business to come before the assembly is presented in a bill originating with the Governor. At the first reading of the bill, or even at any time, if a member wishes explanations concerning any of the receipts or disbursements, the Governor or his representative must explain. As a matter of fact, the Governor is rarely present to make such explanations in person, but the First Secretary of the *fu* or *ken* is present as his representative throughout the session. Besides him, the chief officer of the particular department whose affairs are under discussion at the time is also present, to answer any questions or make any explanations. These two officials may speak at any time, provided they do not interrupt the speech of a member; but they have no vote.

The discussion of disputed subjects usually comes with the first and the second readings. The third reading is generally a matter of form, though often a final tussle will come then if the contest is close. For instance, at the last session of this legislature, at first an appropriation for the local newspaper was rejected, but on the third reading it was passed by amendment to the original bill. In a debate each member has the right to speak if he does not use improper language concerning others. When a member wishes to address the assembly, he rises, calls out "*Gichō*" (chairman), and gives his number. When the chairman has recognized him by repeating that number, he "has the floor." A majority vote of all the members present is necessary for the passage of a motion.

After the "original bill" has been presented to an ordinary meeting of an assembly, if there are two members who wish to make a petition about other important matters of that *fu* or *ken*, they must first obtain the permission of the assembly, after which the petition will be presented, like a bill, for discussion. If this bill is passed, then it can be presented, as the opinion of the assembly, either to the Governor or to the Department of Home Affairs. No bill becomes a law until it has been signed by the Governor. If the latter does not agree with a bill, he may appeal to the Department of Home Affairs, where it will be finally decided.

If we sum up the extent and limit of the powers of a Japanese local assembly, we may say that in theory a *kenkwai* or a *fukwai* is by no means entirely independent of the central Government, and does not possess absolute control of the matters of its own *ken* or *fu*. It will be noticed that in all cases the final ratification or decision rests with the Governor or the Department of Home Affairs. The latter also has the power in its own hands of suspending an assembly at its discretion. It would seem, then, that theoretically a *fukwai* or a *kenkwai* is pretty much under the control of the central Government, and has very little real power of its own. Its nature appears more like that of an elective advisory board than of a legislative body, so that in one sense the title of this contribution is a misnomer. But in practice and in fact, a wise Governor, though he is an appointive officer of the central Government, does not often put himself in opposition to public opinion unless it be a case of the greatest importance; and the Department of Home Affairs is loath to exercise its authority unless it is absolutely necessary. The central Government holds the power to control these assemblies if it should be necessary, but it also respects public opinion, and allows local self-government as far as possible. Likewise, in the Constitution which goes into effect this year, the Imperial Government, giving up much of its legislative power, also retains sufficient authority not to become entirely subject to the Diet.

It seems necessary, in the present stage of political development in this Empire, that too much authority and prestige should not be suddenly taken away from the central Government and intrusted to the inexperienced and irresponsible people. But we feel assured that, as the people show themselves capable of exercising power, their privileges will be gradually extended. We should not find fault with Japan because in a few years she has not leaped into the enjoyment of political privileges which the English and American people obtained only after centuries of slow and often bloody development; but we should congratulate her because, by peaceful proclamation, she has gradually taken herself entirely out of the pale of Oriental absolutism, beyond even despotic Russia, and may from this year be classed with Bismarckian Germany. C.

MEILHAC'S "MARGOT."

PARIS, February 6, 1890.

THERE is perhaps no more popular writer in Paris, in the circle of journalistic writers, than M. Meilhac, who was for so many years the literary companion of Ludovic Halévy. They both had the good fortune, while they were young, full of gayety and of spirits, of finding in Offenbach a musical collaborator. Their operettas are world-famous; who has not heard of "La Belle Hélène," "Barbe-bleue," etc.? Offenbach had something in him of the genius of Mozart; he was of course but a small reduction of this great man, but he always reminds me of him by the grace, the ease, the loveliness of his melodies. Without Offenbach, Halévy and Meilhac would probably have had only the transient popularity of so many others whose names are now completely forgotten. Thanks to him, they have risen higher; they are still before the public, and they have both become members of the French Academy—somewhat, it must be confessed, to the surprise of those who have continued to regard the Academy with the reverence of the past.

The collaboration of the two operatic writers came to an end after the war of 1870; for what reason? Nobody knows, probably, except themselves and their most intimate friends. Halévy

abandoned the stage completely and gave himself up to novel-writing. He made himself a second reputation, so to speak, by the light stories of 'Madame et Monsieur Cardinal' and the 'Filles de M. Cardinal,' and by the novel 'L'Abbé Constantin,' which opened for him the doors of the French Academy. Meilhac continued to work for the stage. He too soon showed new ambition; he grew more serious, and aimed visibly at becoming a writer of comedies instead of operettas or vaudevilles. An old bachelor, a true Parisian, knowing nothing outside of his dear boulevard, he made his special study of the world which has for its limits the Bastille and the Arc de Triomphe. The moralist can find several worlds in this small universe—all the extremes of vice and of virtue, all the refinements of civilization, with all the permanent instincts of the natural man. To be sure, man always remains the same, in a certain sense; but the modern *coquette*, the modern *ingénue*, are not exactly the coquette, the ingénue of the time of Molière—and the *Célimène*, the *Agnès*, of Paris are not exactly the Célimène, the Agnès, of Chicago or New York—not even those of London, though London is geographically very near us.

Meilhac makes no pretension of being a dramatic creator, he does not undertake to model new types; he contents himself with the old types of French comedy, but he tries to give them their modern look, and he excels in observing the small traits which give these types their present character. He belongs to the new school of realists. Our painters, our sculptors only copy what they see with their own eyes; they do not pretend to invent anything. Meilhac's field of observation has been limited—it has been limited even in Paris; but he has seen well what he has seen; he is a good observer. In the comedy which has recently been produced on the stage of the French Theatre, he has aimed at higher objects than heretofore; he has evidently intended to modernize (if the word may be employed) a subject which had tempted Molière, and which was treated by him in one of his best plays.

"L'Ecole des Femmes" was represented for the first time in Paris on December 26, 1662, at the theatre of the Palais Royal, and played by the troupe of Monsieur, the brother of the King. The printed comedy was dedicated to the famous Madame, so well known by her letters. *Arnolphe* is an old man who keeps an innocent girl in confinement, and tries to protect her against all the seductions of the world. He intends to marry her himself, and he educates her for himself; but Nature has her rights, and the innocent *Agnès* falls in love with a handsome young man, *Horace*. The innocence of *Agnès* is stronger than the experience of *Arnolphe*, youth is stronger than old age; and when the aged *Arnolphe* speaks eloquently of his passion, little *Agnès* tells him quietly,

"Tenez, tous vos discours ne me touchent point l'âme;
Horace avec deux mots en ferait plus que vous."

The subject treated by Molière in the "École des Femmes" is as old as humanity itself. He showed in some parts of his play a boldness which scandalized a portion of the society of his time, and he was so much criticised that he took the trouble to write another play, called "La Critique de l'École des Femmes," which was represented for the first time on the 1st of June, 1663.

Let us see how M. Meilhac has developed this same drama, the competition of old age and of youth. The folly of the old man and the girl's innocence are the cardinal points of "Margot" as well as of the "École des Femmes." But how different *M. de Boisvillette*, an old Parisian bachelor, a club man, a roué, who has nothing to learn in life, is from Molière's *Arnolphe;* and how different is *Margot* from *Agnès*. *Margot* has been charitably brought up by a person who belongs to what Dumas has called the "Demi-monde." She has never seen anybody but women belonging to a perverse society, irregular men and more irregular women. She is innocent when the play opens, but her mind had no purity to lose; the conversation she has heard, the lessons which she has indirectly received, have not prepared her for a virtuous life.

The first act begins in the house of *M. de Boisvillette*. He has been dining with some friends and their lady friends; the company is gone to end the evening at some theatre. *Margot* has been dining there, too, but she has disappeared, she has probably gone home. *Boisvillette* is preparing to go to bed when suddenly, behind a great screen, he sees *Margot* profoundly asleep. He wakes her up, and then begins a very pretty scene. *Boisvillette* is a gentleman, and, accustomed as he is to light society, he treats the young girl with a sort of respect; she takes the opportunity to make him a sort of confession. She begins to understand thoroughly her situation; she is not happy, she feels no inclination for the life of the dissolute woman who has brought her up. She sees no choice; either she must throw herself into the river, or else she must live as the people around her live. *Boisvillette* is moved; he says to her that there is a better thing to do—he will send her somewhere to the country, for two or three years, and he will find her some good, honest, modest husband.

This conversation between an old sceptic, who becomes by degrees sentimental, and the girl, who clings to the hope of saving her innocence, is a model of grace and delicacy. Of course *Boisvillette* feels himself by degrees falling in love with *Margot*. In her new life *Margot* finds herself in contact with a nice young man, the nephew of *Boisvillette;* she falls in love, not with her saviour, but with this young man. They both become more and more miserable. *Margot* has the most tender regard for her protector, but she cannot return his sentiments. *Boisvillette* finds himself ridiculous, absurd: he is too much a man of the world to behave like Molière's *Arnolphe*, but he suffers, he is tortured, and all the more because he knows that his nephew does not care for *Margot*. She, too, learns that her dear *Georges* is going to be married, and becomes desperate; she leaves *Boisvillette's* château, hardly knowing what she will do. She fortunately meets *François*, the keeper of *Boisvillette's* domain, the man whom *Boisvillette* originally intended to give her for a husband. This *François* receives the confidence of her misfortune, and tells her substantially: "After what has happened, since you cannot marry *Boisvillette's* nephew, since you will not marry *Boisvillette* himself, you must look for a protector, for an energetic man, and accept his guidance."

The voice of this *François*, of this "man of the woods," is the voice of stern reality. But it is hardly the voice which *Margot* would have been likely to submit to if she had had a real existence. M. Meilhac has represented *Margot* to us as rather too romantic a person; we cannot admit that she will accept easily a solution which has a sort of brutality about it. *Margot* has been too much spoiled from her earliest youth, her intellect has been refined, even to corruption, by the brilliant conversation of Parisian rakes, of witty, handsome, and unscrupulous women; her heart has been mellowed and softened by the delicate adoration of *Boisvillette;* the incense which he has been burning before her has been of the choicest kind; and the transformation which the gradual progress of his passion has made in him could not but have touched the most tender fibres of her nature. She did not return love for love, but she has been living in an atmosphere of gratitude, of affection, of friendship; she has afterwards herself felt what love is, she has desired to become the wife of her benefactor's nephew. Under such circumstances, we are rather shocked to find her suddenly offering her hand to the coarse "man of the woods," to the man who, good and virtuous as he may be, is, however, in an almost menial position in *Boisvillette's* house. She humbles herself too much; she has not the excuse of feeling that she loves *François*; she marries him merely in order to make an end, to screen herself against the temptations of a vicious life. She is determined to be a virtuous woman, and she sees no other way than this marriage. Well, perhaps there was no other way; perhaps *Margot* has done the best thing she could do; but this end proved a sort of disappointment to the spectators. They all expected *Margot* to marry *Boisvillette* himself, notwithstanding his age. Meilhac has not dared to unite them; he has left *Boisvillette* alone, unhappy; conscious, however, of having done some good and saved a soul. He has left *Margot* united to a strong man who is determined to make her walk straight. Not a very romantic end, you see. The beauty of the first act, and the incoherence of the second and the third, remind one of the Latin verse,

"Desinit in piscem mulier formosa superne."

Correspondence.

THE RIGHTS OF COLOR AT THE SOUTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your editorial in your issue of the 13th stating the aims of the Afro-American League was incorrect, as you will see by the enclosed "Address to the People of the United States" which was issued by the League. As a matter of fact, the Afro-American does not desire any class legislation. Both conventions declared against it. The native-born American of African descent does, however, wish the civil rights which are freely accorded naturalized Americans, but denied to him.

Theoretically the Afro-American is a citizen, endowed with a citizen's rights, but practically he is not allowed to exercise the rights guaranteed him by the Constitution. You, as a Caucasian (I presume you are), can have no proper conception of the indignities heaped upon refined ladies and gentlemen in the South simply because they are of African descent. Educated Afro-Americans 7-8 Caucasian, 1-8 negro, receive the same treatment at the hands of brutal Southerners that illiterate negro field hands get. In the South the negro attends a separate and usually inferior school, he must ride in a separate and filthy railroad car or in the smoking car, he must sit in a separate gallery at the theatre. The hotels refuse to receive him at all. The prejudice against the negro does not even stop at the grave, for his dead must be buried in a separate graveyard. The Southern people have always endeavored to show the negro that he is an inferior, that he belongs to a separate and distinct class.

The Afro-American does not wish to be separated from other American citizens, but he is forced away by the treatment he receives. As a class the colored people have been wronged; they have been prevented from exercising the

right of suffrage; as a class they have been denied their civil rights; they have been murdered in cold blood, without any effort being made to punish the murderers; when suspected of crime, they have been lynched. Having been wronged as a class, as a class they are endeavoring to right those wrongs. Would they be worthy of citizenship if they did less? Suppose the Irish, the Germans, the Italians, or any other class of people were treated as the Afro-Americans have been treated in the South; would they not as a class resent it? Southern legislatures have passed infamous laws aimed at negroes as a class. A week or so ago the Mississippi Legislature resolved to memorialize Congress to repeal the Fifteenth Amendment. In view of these facts, the Afro-American has aroused from his past lethargy, and has determined to demand all the rights to which he is entitled as an American citizen.—Respectfully,

C. F. Adams.

Chicago, February 18, 1890.

[We believe Mr. Adams to be in error as regards the Mississippi Legislature. It took no action in the premises—and it would have made no difference if it had done so.—Ed. Nation.]

THE RACE PROBLEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As a solution of the "race problem" in the Southern States, I have a remedy not nearly as heroic as that of Senators Butler and Morgan, who wish to remove six millions of negroes, more or less, to Africa, which every one knows can and will never be done; less trenchant than that of the legislators at Jackson, Mississippi, who are petitioning for the repeal of the Fifteenth Amendment, which is almost as hopeless of accomplishment as the other; and one differing widely from the propositions of Senators Sherman, Ingalls, and Chandler, who hope by a Federal election law to restore the days of reconstruction, and to carry the Gulf States, by the negro vote, for the Republican ticket.

Unlike Senators Butler and Morgan, I maintain that the negroes, even in their unavoidable inferiority to the white men surrounding them, and while they have no chance to become bank presidents or railroad magnates, or to enter fashionable society, are vastly better off than they could be in Africa for the next one hundred years to come. Unlike the Democrats at Jackson, I neither hope nor wish to see the Fifteenth Amendment repealed. Unlike Senators Sherman, Ingalls, and Chandler, though I do wish that all the negroes should freely vote, I do not wish them to vote solidly for the one party supposed to be most favorable to them.

The suppression of the negro vote in five or six of the Gulf States is certainly a great evil; but its free exercise in the days following upon 1868, with the resulting corrupt governments, State and local, was undoubtedly a much greater evil. There is one other alternative left. It is this, that the negro vote should be divided, as the vote of the poorest laboring class in the Northern States is, in varying proportions, between the two great parties, while the lead in each party, as everywhere in the world, would be taken by men of some wealth, some education, some standing in the community—by men, in short, who have something to lose by bad government. The government of South Carolina under Robert K. Scott and Frank Moses was more intolerable than that of New York city under Tweed, Oakey Hall, and Connolly. With the negroes all voting, but following in two opposing hosts the lead of those white men who would come forward naturally, without aid from outside of the State, South Carolina would enjoy a much better government than the large cities of the North, if only for the reason that its poverty renders politics there less attractive to the most dangerous boodlers.

How, then, is this condition of affairs—a division of the negro vote—to be brought about? Is it at all within the range of possibility?

Answering the latter question first, I say, with proper efforts, it is possible. In two States at least, large numbers of negroes have, within the last year or two, freely and openly voted the Democratic ticket—in Louisiana, many of those who are engaged in growing sugar, on account of the free-trade tendency of the Republican party on the sugar duties; in Virginia, on account of a personal quarrel with Mahone.

Then, how shall the individual Southern negro be emancipated from the domination of his race; and what motive shall he have to separate himself from the Republican party, of which he has so long been the docile follower, rather than a member? The Australian ballot, while protecting the Republican colored voter from the shotgun of the white-liner, will also protect the colored Democrat from the jibes and anathemas of his kinsfolk and his church. The motive and reason why an intelligent negro in the Gulf States should vote for Democratic Congressmen and Presidential electors is not far to seek—not, at least, if the Democratic party plants itself, under the lead of Cleveland, on the one great principle of its existence, viz.: upon free trade, casting aside the quirks, evasions, and straddles of the platform of 1884. Din it in the ears of every colored grower of cotton and corn, to the exclusion of all other political questions, that the Republicans want to cheat him out of his slender income, to make money for the wool-grower, the iron-miner, and the manufacturer, and he will soon understand the tariff. Tell him openly, "It is quite proper for those fellows who work in the furnaces at Birmingham to vote the Republican ticket—and for the white furnace-owners too; it is not a question of North and South, of white or black, but of free trade on one side and robbery on the other," and you are bound to make enough impression on the black Republican phalanx to split it wide open; and when that is done, the race problem is half solved.

Are there Democratic leaders with the needful courage to undertake the task?

L. N. D.

Louisville, Ky., February 14, 1890.

A HINT TO STEAMSHIP COMPANIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "G. M. L.," in your last issue, deserves the thanks of the foreign-travelling public. Perhaps nowhere in the world is there so much competition and eagerness to be the fittest to survive as among the rival steamship companies between Europe and America. Steamers which, ten or even five years ago, were regarded as "ocean greyhounds," are now contemptuously ranked among "old tubs" by the typical American tourist, who always wants the latest, the best, and the most comfortable, at any cost. To meet this want, one floating palace after another is put on the ocean, with ever more comfortable decks, saloons, and cabins. The best steamers have hitherto been usually filled at certain seasons of the year weeks or even months ahead of the date of sailing; but in a year or two more, at the present rate of building, all the competing lines will have nothing but "best" steamers, and then it will be necessary to find some other mode of competitive advertising than increased size of decks, saloons, and cabins, and greater speed.

Now, during the past few weeks steamer after steamer has come in with reports of "terrific weather," "davits broken like pipe-stems," "life-boats carried away," etc. Only five that I have read of report the use of oil, and all with success. It is acknowledged to be so effective, and yet so cheap and so simple, that I wonder it has not yet occurred to any of the companies to advertise the regular use of oil in stormy weather, as a means of safety. I am convinced that the line which should advertise this innovation would soon become the most popular, even if its steamers were not of the record-breaking kind.

Then as to the *free seat* on deck. It is a most extraordinary and outrageous fact that if the first-class passengers on these floating palaces want a movable and comfortable seat, they must bring it along! Were it not that custom blunts the perceptions, this fact would seem so idiotic to every passenger that he would laugh aloud the first moment, and the second indignantly demand of the companies what right they have to treat him like a steerage passenger. It is the steerage principle to ask passengers to bring their tin plates and mattresses and camp-stools, and it is high time that this venerable absurdity and last relic of the steerage principle should be abolished in the first cabin. If any company should decide to introduce free steamer-chairs, I am sure the *Nation* and many other papers would gladly give it a handsome "reading notice." F. H. T.

HOW THE GERMANS TEACH "SEWING."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your readers were recently told of the state of female education in Germany, and in your review of Dr. Klemm's work ('European Schools') they learned of the general method of instruction in that country; perhaps they may be interested to complete the cycle in hearing how sewing is there taught.

Cassel prides itself upon its schools, and reminds each stranger within its gates that the present Emperor and his brother were sent thither to be prepared for the University. The Hohenzollerns had until then been privately educated. In view of the vaunted housewifely qualities of the German women, I thought to gain some useful hints from the way in which sewing, an integral part of the female curriculum, is taught in that town. The Germans have a verb, to sew, but the equivalent of our noun is *Handarbeit*, handwork, and I found that it is handiwork rather than sewing which is taught.

The German schools are all under Government supervision, a few sporadic private ones excepted, and are thus public, but not free, for a fee is exacted. The fees are so graded that the poor are of necessity in one class of schools, called Volksschulen—people's schools—while the higher-priced schools receive the children of the middle class. *Handarbeit* forms part of the instruction of each school year, six hours weekly in the Volksschulen and four hours in the Tochterschulen—daughter-schools—as the better classed ones are oddly called, as if the members of the former only "growed."

When it is remembered that seven years' school attendance is compulsory, one would expect the girl, even when the instruction ceases at fourteen, to be able, not merely to

take the stitches, but, what is equally important, to put together neatly and firmly the parts of her garment; to be, in short, a satisfactory, if not a beautiful, plain sewer. Skilled in that necessary branch, the bright ones could be trusted to "pick up" the simple dressmaking they will need, while the dull would be at least rendered capable in one direction. Perhaps I should concede to the national prejudice instruction in knitting; but one would think that one year out of the seven might be enough for that branch, and that a girl could face life even if she knew but one way of knitting a heel. In fact, the first four school years are given up to knitting four pairs of stockings; to learning that crocheting which forms for the German women the concealed indolence that Hamerton says knitting does for the French around his house; and to stitching in their samplers letters to mark the garments which are still in the air. The poorer girls have thus only three years remaining in which to learn the real sewing so important to them; but even in that time, with the defter fingers and quicker brains resulting from the preceding four years' training, much might be done by a judicious method of teaching. Instead of this the annual pair of stockings is knit, with every possible and impossible heel, and a sampler of all the fancy stitches; crocheting practised in all its intricacies; hemstitching and canvas embroidery—this last presumably to enable them to make the slippers of the Herren, for whose behoof alone they are educated.

Of actual sewing, different seams are practised on a sampler, a couple of dust cloths are hemmed, a girl's and a woman's chemise made, and a half-dozen of the latter cut out in paper one-fifth the natural size. With this the instruction of the poor, to whom skill with the needle is so essential, ceases. The middle class attend school a year or two longer, but their instruction continues of the same varied nature. One year is given to embroidery, another to patching and darning in every possible material, and to making a doll set of house linen.

The result is that they are not a nation of needle-women. I do not know that any part of Germany furnishes ready-made undercloth-ing or hand-embroidery for the export trade. It comes from France and Switzerland. Having vainly sought in Hanover for well-made undergarments, I showed one of mine to the head of the largest establishment for that work in town. "Ah! that is French. May I ask what the gracious lady paid for it?" It was French, but bought at home for the equivalent of 6 marks. "It must have been done in a convent. Now I should have to pay 5 marks simply to get that tucking done by hand. I can furnish the gracious lady a similar one made by machine for 7 marks." The model was hand-made.

As the women sit in the shop doorways or in the public squares, watching their children at play in the sand-piles provided for them by an admirable municipal regulation, they are knitting or crocheting, but so often the latter that one comes to regard them as homely Penelopes who do not wish to finish their task. After a prolonged sojourn in Germany, the sight of women sewing in the gardens of Paris came upon me as a novelty.

The landlady of my German pension and her friends occupied themselves in the same way, and seldom did even their plain sewing, cramped and frugal as their mode of living was. I had for a time a German lady's maid. She wrote a good letter, knew a little French, crocheted me a pair of slippers, but could not do my sew ing. A friend of mine, in the same plight, sent hers for three months to a Schneider Akademie, or school devoted entirely to sewing; yet these girls had had seven and eight years' school instruction in sewing. J. C. N.

CINCINNATI.

"JACKAHICK."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I should be glad to learn the meaning of this Indian word. It occurs in a letter from Peter Sayer to Charles, Lord Baltimore, in 1689: "They said the Indians would not come out [to an interview] except Col. Coursey came. I told 'em a Jackahick from him would do; and I would frame one and send Mr. John Hawkins with it." WM. HAND BROWNE.

Notes.

ROBERTS BROTHERS will publish next month 'The House of the Wolfings,' by William Morris, and Balzac's 'Sons of the Soil' ('Les Paysans') in Miss Wormeley's translation.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have in preparation 'Recollections of a Private,' by Warren Lee Goss.

'Afloat in the Forest,' by Mayne Reid, with a life of the author by R. H. Stoddard, is in the press of Worthington Co.

The National University of Chicago announces a Spanish grammar on a novel plan by Prof. Schele de Vere, of the University of Virginia. The former institution has also arranged for a national circulating library of 20,000 volumes, which will be sent anywhere by mail. Catalogues can be procured for ten cents by addressing 147 Throop Street, Chicago.

Prof. Woodrow Wilson has extracted a chapter from his work 'The State,' and publishes it, through D. C. Heath & Co., as a manual for schools and colleges, under the title of 'The State and Federal Governments of the United States.' It is furnished with a full topical analysis, a bibliography, and an index.

A collection of 'Vaterlandslieder' (Leipzig: F. W. Grunow; New York: B. Westermann & Co.), affords an interesting comparison of the pæans of Freiligrath, Geibel, etc., with those of Körner, Uhland, and Rückert, who voiced the Teutonic enthusiasm in the wars against the greater Napoleon. In its outer dress a most tasteful book, it revives many a battle-song in which the uprising of a united people against the "hereditary enemy" finds most poetic expression.

The *Transatlantic* (Boston) for February 15 gives an unusual portrait of Turgeneff on its first page—a weekly gallery, by the way. In the letterpress we find Francisque Sarcey's defence of his Russian friend's play, "Bread of Another," whose production at the Théâtre Libre evoked laughter and hisses. "I was tempted to rise and shout, Imbeciles!" says Sarcey.

The competition of mechanical with artistic engraving is observable in the numerous magazine ventures in which the dependence for illustrations is almost wholly upon "process." An ambitious attempt in the domain of weekly papers must now be recorded. On February 22 appeared the first number of the *Illustrated American* (New York: Bible House; Chicago: 142 Dearborn Street). It is a small folio of twenty-four pages, in triple columns, on highly glazed paper, of rather elegant typography. With the exception of a separate colored cartoon ("Comrades of the Desert," after Detaille), all the pictorial features have been reproduced by "process," with varying degrees of excellence. These have mostly a timely interest, as, *e. g.*, scenes on our new cruisers, in the Chicago Post-office, at the bench show, at the theatre, etc.; but there is a page given up to Bordentown, N. J., in a series called "Historic America," and a large number of views illustrate a letter from a flippant correspondent who has been sent off to rediscover Brazil. The literary and news departments are not deficient in number or scope, and there is evidence of experience on the part of the management.

The *Round Table* is the name of a weekly journal of sixteen pages to be published at Nashville, Tenn., beginning about March 1. The sample number already issued contains the announcement that discussion of all living issues will be encouraged; that the woman question and prohibition will be freely considered; and that "progress as contradistinguished from Bourbonism in either church or state" will be its general aim. Such a liberal spirit in a Southern journal is very gratifying. This first number contains contributions by H. M. Doak on "Jefferson Davis," by Prof. Charles Forster Smith on "Why Has Georgia a Literature and Tennessee Not?" by Edward W. Bemis on "Progress of Prison Reform," and by W. P. Trent on "The Study of Southern History." Both Maurice Thompson and George W. Cable furnish a short story.

Mr. Spofford, the Librarian of Congress, testifies, as we learn from the Washington *Herald*, that a large number of colored men and women nowadays read instructive books. This reading, he says, is of a serious character—chiefly works on history, travels, government, and politics. Some devote their attention to tales of adventure and to popular scientific works. They are indifferent to treatises on political economy or finance. The remarkable thing is that they do not care for fiction, or, as Mr. Spofford avers, that they are less fond of novel-reading than are white people of the same class. Most of those who come under his observation are the students in attendance upon the local schools and colleges, or ambitious politicians who drift to Washington seeking positions.

Dr. G. E. Manigault contributes to the January number of the *Magazine of American History* a sketch of the life of "Ralph Izard, the South Carolina Statesman" (1742-1804). His particular aim is to refute Mr. Parton's adverse judgment in consequence of Izard's disagreement with Franklin in Paris, and incidentally he seeks to rectify the military reputation of a son of the South Carolinian, who participated in the war of 1812. In both these instances more room would be needed to make the matters in dispute quite intelligible at this day. Dr. Manigault does not adopt a polemic tone, and his sketch gives a pleasant impression of its subject.

In the Providence *Book Notes* for February 15, Mr. Rider discusses the origin of the name of Rhode Island, and concludes to stand by Roger Williams in connecting it with the Isle of Rhodes and the signification of "Island of Roses" in opposition to the view that the name is Dutch and means "Red Island." We ought, by the way, some time ago to have noticed the first number in Mr. Rider's series of "Rhode Island Historical Tracts," issued last year. It is from the pen of the editor himself, and consists of 'An Inquiry Concerning the Origin of the Clause in the Laws of Rhode Island (1719-1783) Disfranchising Roman Catholics.' This disability was an obvious infringement on that "soul liberty" on which the colony was based, as Rhode Islanders maintain with pride; but Mr. Rider persuades himself that, while members of no

other sect were debarred from becoming freemen (*i. e.*, voters), the Catholics were in the same category with disfranchised non-landowners, women, and second sons. It is true that as Roman Catholics they were permitted the free exercise of their religion, but a penalty was certainly laid on their belief, and on theirs alone.

As we spoke, a fortnight ago, of the paper in the Essex Institute Historical Collections concerning the settlement of the Northwest Territory, we may also call attention to Mr. Frederick D. Stone's paper on "The Ordinance of 1787," which comes to us as a reprint from the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*. It is a singularly dispassionate marshalling of the incidents leading up to the Northwest Ordinance of 1787, an apportionment of the several parts in the construction of that famous statute to the great men who severally contributed to its contents and language, and an explanation of the readiness of the South to prohibit slavery in the Territory. It shows conclusively that the Ordinance was a truly national expression, gratifying divers interests, selfish and philanthropic. Dr. Cutler's pretensions suffer most at Mr. Stone's hands, but enough glory is left to Massachusetts and Essex County, even if it has to be shared by Jefferson and Grayson.

The latest report of the Executive Committee of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin makes the customary exhibition of steady growth. Its newspaper files, a special feature of its collections, now number nearly 6,000 volumes. In connection with the University, an inquiry has been made into the organized groups of foreign nationalities for which Wisconsin is preëminent as respects number and variety. Some hint is given of these, and we see the Irish giving way before the Germans, and the Americans before the Danes. The results of this inquiry will probably be published by the University. The Society has lost its able and efficient cataloguer, Miss Isabel Durrie, a graduate of the University, and one of its curators in the person of Prof. W. F. Allen, of whom an excellent memorial sketch accompanies the report.

The dawnings of the national "Zoo" at Washington perhaps possess the widest interest in Prof. Langley's report on the Smithsonian Institution for the year 1889. But also there is a lamentable passage about the deposit long ago of the Smithsonian's valuable library with that of Congress, and of the utter neglect and inaccessibility of it caused by the shameful delay of the national Legislature to provide a fitting receptacle for the nation's books.

The first annual report of the Director of the Missouri Botanical Garden—the foundation of the late Henry Shaw—is on our table. The School of Botany established in connection with it and Washington University has had as yet but a small attendance, but no extravagant expectations were indulged in on this score.

The forty-fourth annual report of the Director of Harvard College Observatory shows succinctly the amount of work which that institution has accomplished along the lines of its various activities, in addition to the valuable work done at home with the observatory instruments during the past year. By the continued aid of Mrs. Draper and the Boyden fund, an expedition has been sent to Peru, by means of which the southern stars can be included in the most important investigations. Maintaining thus two stations, one in the northern and the other in the southern hemisphere, a greater completeness in the researches is rendered possible than in any other way. Another expedition, to southern California, gives a mountain station under clearer skies than generally prevail at the East, and promises to fulfil the conditions of Mr. Boyden's will. Through a gift of $50,000 from Miss Bruce of New York (who has recently been elected a member of the Astronomical Society of the Pacific), a photographic telescope has been ordered of Messrs. Alvan Clark & Sons, having an aperture of twenty-four inches and a focal length of eleven feet. The library has been increased by 484 volumes and 336 pamphlets. The telegraphic distribution of astronomical intelligence has been continued. In addition to the customary "Annals," twenty-three other publications have appeared during the year.

A very complete and useful 'Account of the Progress in Astronomy in the Year 1886,' by William C. Winlock, taken from the Smithsonian Report for 1886–'87, has recently been issued in separate form.

The Isthmus of Corinth forms the subject of a paper, from a geologic-geographical point of view, by Dr. Alfred Philippson, which fills the entire No. 145 of the *Zeitschrift* of the Berlin Geographical Society, and is accompanied by maps. No. 144, the regular bibliographical close of Vol. 24, is delayed till March 1 for the sake of completeness.

A national "Beatrice Exposition" of feminine arts and industries is to be held in Florence during the months of May and June. Count Angelo De Gubernatis is President of the Executive Committee. The name has been selected with reference to the sixth centenary of the death of Beatrice, who is to be honored by "omaggio alla Donna Italiana, nelle opere del suo ingegno e della sua mano." For the coöperation of natives and resident foreigners a series of fêtes is contemplated—during the first nine days of May to celebrate Dante's falling in love with Beatrice, and on June 9 to commemorate her death. A *Calendimaggio* in costume is named, and *tableaux vivants* illustrating the 'Vita Nuova,' with intermezzos of appropriate song and dance; and an *accademia letteraria* on June 9. The sections of the Exposition will be painting, miniatures, designs, and tapestry; sculpture and engraving; literature; needle-work and embroidery; womanly ornaments; apparatus for instruction (*didattica*); domestic hygiene and food; divers industries.

Lithography was one of the graphic arts which suffered extremely by the rise of photography. It has almost ceased to be thought of as an original art medium, and one needs to be reminded of its past glories, to which the greatest artists of Europe contributed with their own hands. Such a reminder is a catalogue like that of the French, Dutch, German, English, and Russian schools, which Frederick Muller & Co. offer for sale in Amsterdam. It fills seventy-eight octavo pages.

The Johns Hopkins University celebrated on the 22d of February the twelfth anniversary of its opening. In the course of the speeches a letter was read from President Gilman, which was written in a ruined theatre in Taormina, Sicily, and in which he imagined the University assembled in that spot for its annual celebration, and cleverly hit off the characteristic speeches which would be drawn from the several members of the Faculty by the inspiring surroundings. It was announced that, of the various pressing needs of the University for expansion, that of the Chemical Laboratory was to be met by turning over to it for reconstruction the ill-ventilated Hopkins Hall. It was also announced that Mr. Lowell had been obliged, much against his will, to decline to be the first incumbent of the Lectureship of Poetry which was founded last year by the generosity of Mr. and Mrs. Lawrence Turnbull, and that it would be inaugurated next year by Mr. Edmund C. Stedman.

—The *Dedham Historical Register*, a birth of the new year, has one article which every graduate of Harvard will laugh over. It consists of the diary of Nathaniel Ames, the oldest brother of Fisher Ames, and a Harvard Freshman in the year 1758. The extract given covers the whole of that year, and was originally written on an interleaved copy of an almanac which his father had published. The boy entered college at seventeen from Dedham. Wood was brought him from home by Cato (his father's negro), and also his washed linen. He taught school in winter at Dedham some five weeks. The first class-book he mentions is Watts's 'Logic.' He began Homer in September, and Euclid in October of the second year, but did not reach the third book till Christmas. "May 23 the class began Gordan." What was *Gordan?* Probably a tutor. It would seem that the students performed certain services for the head of the institution, for we read: "June 26. President's grass mowed. July 1. Finished the President's hay." Our Freshman wore a wig, for on June 23 he writes: "Left off my wig." His bills were 29*s.* 5*d.* a quarter. In 1754 a college committee had been appointed "to project a new method to promote oratory." Accordingly, declamations are mentioned several times. With the same view plays were acted by the students, but whether publicly is not clear. Entries are of this sort: "July 3. Cato, a play [Addison's], acted at Warren's cham." At that time there were two Warrens in college, Joseph, '59, No. 29, and John, of '60, No. 10. July 6, the entry is, "Cato to perfection." Again, July 14, "Cato more perfect than before." On June 22 the only note is, "Roman father, a play." This play was by William Whitehead, an English dramatist then in high repute, and it was published in 1750. These college dramatic performances are the more noteworthy because they were acted three years before the first theatre was opened in New York, and when Boston would have shrunk in holy horror from such an institution. In the College histories of Prof. Benjamin Pierce and of President Quincy, one can discover no allusion to anything more theatrical than reading the Latin 'Colloquies' of Erasmus.

—But it is in regard to college amusements, pranks, hazing, and indignities to tutors that the old almanac of Ames is at its best. Thus: "April 20. Went a gunning after robins with Hooper." Hooper was head of the class, Ames No. 20. "May 22. Went a fishing with thirteen of my classmates." Thirty-nine was the whole number. The notice of this excursion down the harbor is the longest entry in all the year. Class quarrels were not unknown. The freshman writes: "March 18. Fit with the Sophomores about Cust." What was Cust? "March 20. Had another fight with the Sophomores." "Sept. 12. Hooper [who had sat in the Sophomores' seat ever since July 16] shook a Freshman cu." The meaning of cu is doubtful. In college commons it meant a half-pint of beer, which was allowed per head at breakfast. Or can it have been the cue of the Freshman's periwig? "June 6. Fleeced Mr. Hancock." Hancock was a classmate, and stood No. 6. "June 8. Hoisting of Palmer and Browne." Palmer was No. 6 and Browne No. 27 in Class of '61. In dog-days the boys could not allay their skipping spirits: "Aug. 11. Hedly, Eaton, Dana, Daniel took off the doors." 15th, Hedly and Daniel went to Providence;

16th, Dana ran off; Eaton paid ten dollars. On the whole, the most curious line is this: "October 9 some examined about Bulraging (*sic*) Monis." Bulraging is a word not found in the *omnium-gatherum* of Dr. Murray except as *bully-rag*, and his earliest citation is 1807. It seems also to have eluded all collectors of Americanisms. Yet it is so used by Ames as to show that it was as current in 1758 as its synonyms bull-doze or haze are in 1890. Dr. Murray will thank Ames for usage three score years older than he and all his colaborers could find. Monis, an Italian Jew convert, was teacher of Hebrew. Four times a week the students must all meet him to copy or construe, or parse, or compose, or read without points his sacred gibberish. They or their forerunners had been in this bondage to him forty years when they *bullragged* him. The ultimate result was his resignation. The immediate result is thus described: "October 18, Palmer ['61, No. 6] and Emerson ['61, No. 9] admonished." The next words are hard to interpret, namely: "Monis Hobs and Fuller degraded Dunbar." "Degraded" meant put down to the foot of the class, and there were students of all the above names then in college. Other gleanings as to Calabogus Club, etc., etc., might be added, each affording new evidence that no future historian of Harvard can be equipped for his work without thorough study of Ames's almanac annotations.

—The January number of the *Nord und Süd* contains an article by Dr. Wolfgang Golther of Munich, one of the most promising of the younger generation of Germanists, which is a significant evidence of the growing influence in Germany of the Norwegian school of mythologists. Dr. Golther openly embraces the creed of that school in supporting the thesis that a large (if not the largest) part of the Edda sagas originated from a mixture of Græco-Roman and Christian with native Norse elements. It will be remembered that this hypothesis, when it was first advanced by Prof. Bugge of Christiania in 1881, called forth a storm of opposition from almost every quarter of the Germanistic world. The very sanctum of Teutonic mythology was proclaimed to have been violated, and no other way of expiation seemed to be left but to shower contempt and indignation on the profane intruder. It now appears that Prof. Bugge has emerged hale and hearty from this critical thunder storm; and if his theory, like most new theories, is not free from extravagance and exaggeration, the fact that the Edda reflects the age of the Viking expeditions, of a time when the Norsemen were in constant and close contact with the Irish, Saxon, and Frankish nations, and continually imbibing foreign conceptions and traditions, can no longer be disputed. A German translation of Bugge's chief work has just appeared, under the title 'Studien über die Nordischen Götter- und Heldensagen' (Munich, 1889; New York: Westermann).

—In a pamphlet on 'The Supreme Court of the United States, and the Schemes for Relieving It,' by Mr. Richard C. McMurtrie of the Philadelphia bar, the author speaks with earnestness, and looks in the right direction—towards certainty in law through uniformity in judicial decisions. He deprecates what has seemed to others an inevitable evil, that of the Federal courts interpreting the law in one way and the State courts in another, so that at the present time the responsibility of common carriers in New York or Pennsylvania may depend entirely upon the jurisdiction into which they are brought; and he resolutely protests against the $5,000 limitation on the right of appeal, which in many cases will practically make one law for the appealable and another for the non-appealable cases. The real trouble with the administration of justice in the Federal courts, as in many of the State courts, is that we have not judges enough to do the work of jurisprudence promptly and thoroughly. To relieve the Supreme Court by cutting off from its jurisdiction all cases below $5,000 is to relieve the cook by going without one's dinner. It can also be carried to any extent, just as a humane master of the house might relieve his cook by dispensing entirely with cooked food. The scheme for making intermediate appellate courts out of the present circuit and district judges is but another attempt to evade the necessity of having judges enough. The evil is indeed of legislative responsibility, and an abiding witness to the incapacity of numerous judiciary committees either to construct a scheme or to carry one through Congress. Mr. McMurtrie's pamphlet goes far beyond this evil, and looks to legislation which will bring both Federal and State courts into one harmonious whole. It is a reprint of a newspaper article, and depends too much upon other articles to which it is a reply, but which are not before the present reader. It is unfortunate that he did not recast it, and make it a complete argument of his case instead of leaving it a fraction of a controversy. Still, those lawyers who have given attention to the subject will do well to heed this contribution to it.

—The writers born of the decade 1840–1850 have the floor in the tenth volume of Stedman and Hutchinson's 'Library of American Literature' (New York: Chas. L. Webster & Co.). The most famous name of all on the list, that of Henry M. Stanley, finds a place in this collection by virtue of literary production rather than distinction. The next most famous personage, Henry George, enters by a double right. Bret Harte is the third, and perhaps Henry James the fourth. As in the previous volume, journalists occupy a large space, if somewhat less prominent than before. To that class the humorists belong exclusively—Bret Harte once more (born in 1839), George Alfred Townsend, George T. Lanigan (a Canadian), Philip H. Welch, and Joel Chandler Harris; the South bearing off the palm as in no other period of our country's history. The Southern renaissance is also marked by George W. Cable in fiction, by Sidney Lanier in poetry. Henry George and Edward Bellamy represent the Socialistic stirrings of the time, and the former, with Profs. W. G. Sumner and Francis A. Walker, the economic movement to which machine politics have offered such a sturdy resistance ever since the war. Another noticeable tendency has been towards the revival of historic studies, and here we have John T. Morse, Henry Cabot Lodge, John Fiske, and Eugene Schuyler. The fiction of the decade has a certain brilliancy; A. S. Hardy, Julian Hawthorne, W. H. Bishop, Mrs. F. H. Burnett, Constance F. Woolson, Sarah O. Jewett, Mary Hallock Foote, Elizabeth S. Phelps, and Blanche Willis Howard being added to the novelists already mentioned. In the poetical column the average is pretty low, and the best could not presume to cast lots for the mantles of the surviving peers of Longfellow and Emerson. That the selections in this volume, in which a great many utterly obscure writers occur, are as readable on the whole as in the preceding volumes, we should hardly affirm.

—In our recent review of Ten Brink's 'History of English Literature,' we neglected to state, in speaking of Chaucer, that the author had already treated exhaustively Chaucer from the linguistic and metrical side, in his 'Chaucers Sprache u. Verskunst' (Leipzig: Weigel, 1884). This monograph is of course indispensable to all who wish to master the subject. We need only add here that not a few of the finer points in Ten Brink's general estimate of Chaucer rest upon data embodied in the monograph. And this leads us to speak of another monograph by Ten Brink, although in a very different field, viz., his 'Beowulf-Untersuchungen' (Strassburg: Trübner, 1888). Not being a *Fachzeitschrift*, the *Nation* cannot possibly do justice to the author's erudition. What is involved in the treatment of such a monograph may be inferred from the circumstance that Möller's review (*Engl. Stud.*, xiii.) fills sixty-eight closely printed pages! We can scarcely hope to give even the main points of Ten Brink's theory. In general we may perhaps say that it is a continuation of the so-called destructive school of Müllenhoff, but with a difference. Whereas Müllenhoff assumed one original with successive interpolations, Ten Brink assumes two independent versions or stories, an amalgamation, and a late interpolation. According to Ten Brink, each one of the districts of early England had a hand in the shaping of the Beowulf poem as we now read it in the Cotton MS. Our advice to our readers is to begin the book at the end, with chap. xv, *Ergebnisse*. As for the theory, whether it will stand or fall, in whole or in part, we are not yet ready with an opinion. Unquestionably our knowledge will be promoted by the investigation; but in general we hesitate. We are almost tempted to repay our author his passing compliment to Sievers, p. 211, and designate his critique as "subtle." Ten Brink has striven conscientiously to account for everything, or nearly everything. And this we are inclined to look upon as a foregone impossibility. It was Lessing who held that the search for truth was more productive than the possession of truth.

BANCROFT'S UTAH.—I.

History of Utah. By Hubert Howe Bancroft. 1540–1887. San Francisco: The History Company. 8vo, pp. xlvii., 808.

THE readers of the *Nation* will hardly need to be reminded that we have appreciated the greatness of the task which Mr. H. H. Bancroft has undertaken (and in great part accomplished) in his histories of the Pacific Coast. A plan which aimed at the preparation of more than forty stout volumes was hardly within the possible compass of one man's life work, and the employment of a bureau of assistants was a recognized necessity. Mr. Bancroft had a fair right to say that so long as the books bearing his name were subjected to such revision and editing that he was willing to be responsible for them, the world had little cause to complain. It should rather be grateful for the library of information it received, and for the unlimited application of wealth and labor to make available to the English reader a great mass of historical material of which much might otherwise be lost. Here was no question of literary reputation in the ordinary sense of the word. There was no claim to a diction that might rival a Gibbon, a Macaulay, or the New England Bancroft. The task was confessedly the more modest one of compilation and editing; and, when so understood, it had an honest and useful place among the notable literary performances of the day.

It seems necessary to take this retrospective view of Mr. Bancroft's labors because the new

volume on Utah goes beyond the latitude which, even under the liberal rule above stated, an author-editor may use. We doubt if another instance can be found in literature not avowedly fictitious, where the putative author disclaims responsibility for the text which he presents to the world in the first person. Yet this is what Mr. H. H. Bancroft does in his 'History of Utah.'

The book is divided into twenty-eight chapters. The first two, containing thirty-five pages, give a clear and interesting account of the early explorations of the Great Salt Lake basin from Vasquez de Coronado to Frémont. The last three, containing ninety-four pages, give a fair synopsis of the growth of the Territory in population and wealth, and of its agriculture, mining industries, commerce, and social progress. The other twenty-three chapters, containing six hundred and fifty-five pages (and, of course, the great bulk of the book), give us the story of Mormonism, both in its rise in the older States and its transfer and progress in Utah. The history of Utah would be a meagre thing apart from Mormonism, and it was right enough to trace the strange delusion, in doctrine and in development, in the United States and in its missionary propagandism in Europe. The result, however, is that the book is first and chiefly an extended history of Mormonism.

It is this which gives point and significance to the remarkable declaration of the author, in the preface, that

"the story of Mormonism, therefore, beginning with chapter iii., as told in the text, is from the Mormon standpoint, and based entirely on Mormon authorities; while in the notes, and running side by side with the subject matter in the text, I give in full all anti-Mormon arguments and counter-statements."

In defence of this method Mr. Bancroft adds:

"In following this plan I only apply to the history of Utah the same principles employed in all my historical efforts, namely, to give all the facts on every side pertinent to the subject."

In spite of this plea, we must stick to our assertion that the method is unique in historical literature. It is no new thing for a writer to give at length the claims of a party or a sect, either directly by quotation or indirectly by a condensation of statement or argument attributed to them; but Mr. Bancroft does nothing of the sort. In his own proper person he adopts the rôle of bigoted and partisan Mormons, thinking their thoughts, speaking their words, asserting their incredible nonsense, uttering their fanatical enthusiasms, making their absurd criticisms of received forms of the Christian religion and of modern civilization, exalting their champions as saints and martyrs, and vilifying those who oppose them or abandon them.

There are some brief exceptions to the continuous playing of the part, which every rule of literary criticism would declare to be short interpolations, inserted in a previously complete text, and for which the critical reader naturally seeks a motive and an explanation. Of these insertions, two are of considerable extent. In chapter xv., on Mormonism and Polygamy, there is, contrary to the announced rule, an attempt to give in the text and at some length the "attitude and arguments of civilization" respecting polygamy, and "polygamy's reply." In chapter xx., the story of the Mountain Meadows Massacre is told from quite another than the "Mormon standpoint," though it gives the Scotch verdict "not proven" as to Brigham Young's responsibility for that barbarous crime.

When the character of an extended composition is the subject of criticism, it is difficult to illustrate it by extracts sufficiently brief for quotation in a notice like this. Three or four may help to understand the author's "standpoint." In the beginning of chapter iii., when he is introducing the Story of Mormonism, and is enlarging upon the reasonableness of the purpose already quoted from the preface, there is an effort to picture the religious condition of Western New York about the time of the origin of Mormonism. Speaking of the sects of that day, the author says:

"There was among them much true religion, whatever that may be, yet they were all superstitious—Baptists, Methodists, and Presbyterians—there was little to choose between them. Each sect was an abomination to the others; the others were of the devil, doomed to eternal torment, and deservedly so" (p. 37).

In a description of the Mormons celebrating the 4th of July, 1838, at Far West in Missouri, the author says of them:

"They are hated and despised, though they break not the laws of God; they are hunted down and killed, though they break not the laws of the land. . . . They are not idlers, or drunkards, or thieves, or murderers; they are diligent in business, as well as fervent in spirit, yet they are devils; they worship what they choose and in their own way, like the Dissenters in Germany, the Quakers in Pennsylvania, and the Pilgrims from England, yet their spiritual father is Satan" (p. 119).

After telling the story of the murder of Joseph Smith by the mob in Illinois, the author moralizes in this way:

"Whatever else may be said of Joseph Smith, it must be admitted that he was a remarkable man. His course in life was by no means along a flowery path; his death was like that which too often comes to the founder of a religion. What a commentary on the human mind and the human heart, the deeds of those who live for the love of God and man, who die for the love of God and man, who severally and collectively profess the highest holiness, the highest charity, justice, and humanity, higher far than any held by other sect or nation, now or since the world began—how lovely to behold, to write and meditate upon, their disputings and disruptions, their cruelties and injustice, their persecutions for opinion's sake, their ravenous hate and bloody butcheries" (p. 184).

In summing up the character of Brigham Young, and defending him from the charge of enriching himself, through his autocratic power and by questionable means, the author concludes:

"That with all his opportunities for making money honestly and safely, he should put in peril his opportunities and his high position by stooping to such fraud as was commonly practised among United States officials of exalted rank, is a charge that needs no comment" (p. 674).

These quotations are simply fair samples of the tone and spirit of the whole body of the book. There is nothing to absolve the ostensible author from responsibility for the whole as his personal opinion, unless it be the general purpose declared in the preface. He does not even adhere to any form of literary impersonality, but uses the pronoun "I" with rather more than usual frequency. It is inconceivable that any man not himself a Mormon could have adopted the style and tone of the body of the work. If it is quotation, the whole is one unacknowledged quotation. A hypothesis which will naturally account for all the phenomena is, that the chapters under consideration were prepared by a Mormon writer, and that an editor has occasionally inserted a sentence or a paragraph wholly at variance with the continuity of the text, and contradictory of the "standpoint" professedly assumed.

But how about the footnotes which were to give us, side by side with the text, "all anti-Mormon arguments and counter-statements"? No doubt the footnotes contain a considerable mass of quotations from anti-Mormon books, and numerous references by volume and page; but they by no means make up anything like an adequate or connected presentation of "arguments and counter-statements." They are sufficient, however, to display the anomalous and composite character of the book. A writer's footnotes are presumably references to his authorities and the original materials on which the text is based. Here, on the other hand, we have a professed array of notes to offset and rebut the text. It is something like the arguments between *Diabolos* and *Paraclete* found in old sermons, except that here *Diabolos* is given the place of honor and the fair, easy-reading page in small pica, while the exposure is hidden in the minion notes at the bottom, where only industrious students will work their way through the mass of scraps and references which are there collected. Nor is this all, for the footnotes are not consistently written from one standpoint, but contain, here and there, some of the character usual in other books, *i. e.*, enlarging, explaining, or supporting the text.

One of the most notable of these, beginning on p. 250, is an elaborate argument that exposures of Mormonism are of little weight. It begins with saying: "The rôle of traitor is not one which in any wise brings credit to the performer, either from one side or the other. However great the service he may render us, we cannot but feel that he is false-hearted and vile." We do not find "side by side" with this lengthy note any equally full presentation of the diminishing effect upon the credit of Mormon advocates of the indisputable fact that they have practised the dishonest rule of denying whatever they thought might injure their cause. The flagrant example of this was the sweeping and public denial of polygamy by all their leading men for years after the pretended official "revelation" of it to Smith, and culminating in a solemn denunciation of the charge as a libel, by Taylor, afterward Brigham Young's successor, in Europe at a time when he himself had five polygamous wives in Salt Lake City.

The question is one of the comparative weight and value of testimony, and the Mormon leaders have impeached their own by such systematic dishonesty as is above mentioned. As to the "apostates," every man who changes his creed is in one sense an apostate, whether he is a converted Buddhist or Mohammedan, whether, like Cardinal Newman, he has passed from Anglicanism to Romanism, or to agnosticism like Darwin. In such cases, and in the present age of the world, to call them "traitors" and "vile" is empty railing. There are recognized methods of testing the personal credibility and honesty of each witness, and the influence of good or bad motives under which he speaks. Tested in any such way, the exposures of Mormonism do not suffer by comparison with the apologies for it.

A really valuable feature of the work is its bibliography. Both in his prefatory list of "authorities consulted" and in footnotes made up of uncommonly full tables of references, the author has done much to open the way for any competent student of this singular episode in our history. The more's the pity that he has not given us a judicial and impartial summing up of fair conclusions from the enormous mass of material at his command.

A VICE-QUEEN OF INDIA.

Our Viceregal Life in India: Selections from My Journal, 1884–1888. By the Marchioness of Dufferin and Ava. 2 vols. London: John Murray. 1889.

One who should look at England on a map, and then at India, reflecting that the former rules the latter—five times its own numbers in a region larger than Europe (omitting Russia)—will find in these facts an exemplification of the power of mind over matter. The Indian Army is about the size of ours in the United States, and has as little to do with government. That this governmental phenomenon excites so little interest or study in other countries is explicable by its success. The Government is potentially autocratic. The Viceroy is a more powerful personage than his sovereign, or than any European monarch. As his title implies, "The Viceroy and Governor-General of India" combines the majesty of a monarch with gubernatorial functions long detached from the English crown. He also possesses ministerial powers. As Governor he is a member of the Executive Council of Seven, who each represent a department (finance, war, etc.), and have seats in the Legislative Council, which consists of thirteen English and six Hindu members appointed in England. The Executive Council, appointed in England, may be overruled by its chief member, the Viceroy; and though they may appeal to the Secretary of State, the Viceroy is not bound to await a decision from London if he believes the call for action urgent. It is only by travelling some centuries back that any English monarch can be found with equal powers. We need hardly say that most of the viceregal powers lie hidden in the constitutional armory, from which they are not likely to be withdrawn. Under the long peace which has elapsed since the Sepoy rebellion, there may be observed in the Viceroyalty developments corresponding to those of English royalty. The separation in England of the decorative from the political institutions—one power reigning, another governing—has been a tendency in India also. It has only awaited furtherance by ladies competent to relieve their viceregal lords of the social and ornamental functions of their office, to enable the latter to rest more on their ministerial functions. It has long been realized in England that only a wise and gracious man can be trusted with the viceregal sceptre, and it is beginning to be realized that one of his most essential qualifications is to have at his side a wife able to bear worthily the title "her Excellency."

Those acquainted with Indian affairs need not be informed that by their administration the Marquess and Marchioness of Dufferin and Ava have left the viceregal standard higher than they found it. It was this Viceroy's lot to end the bloody tyranny of Theebaw in Burmah almost without bloodshed, and to be welcomed there as a deliverer. It was the glory of the Marchioness to receive the benedictions of the women of India for having founded—collecting the money herself—a national association for supplying female medical aid to the suffering women of India, who cannot receive male doctors. The "Lady Dufferin Association" is now an established institution whose benefits are felt in every part of the vast empire. The Marchioness travelled with her husband to his official durbars in every part of India, establishing branches of her Association, and was alternately brought in contact with the humble and the splendid aspects of Indian life, with the zenana and the court. All hearts and homes, Moslem and Brahman, were open to her—indeed, she has the reputation in Calcutta of having brought about pleasanter social relations between classes, notably by her reception of Mohammedan ladies at the house of Judge Ameer Ali, whose English wife had been frowned on for her alliance by "mercantile" society. These varied experiences were carefully preserved in "her Excellency's" journal, sent regularly to her mother, and are now published in two handsome volumes.

Even were this book less brilliant than it is, it would be welcome. It may be said that there was but one work on India needed—one dealing with the India of to-day—and Lady Dufferin has written it. The ancient literatures opened by the discovery of the Sanskrit, the rich mythology and wonderful history of India, have so absorbed scholars, its economic and political problems so engaged another class of writers, that the every-day life of those millions has received too little attention. Lady Dufferin might have adopted as her motto Emerson's apostrophe to the botanist:

> "Go thou to thy learned task,
> I stay with the flowers of spring;
> Do thou of the ages ask
> What to me the hours will bring."

Four years of viceregal life made a fair springtime, and she has not allowed many of its flowers to pass by her. She tells just what she sees, whether the shaven outcast widow in her weeds, or the gorgeous princes. Some of her pages may appear burdened with gorgeousness, but on careful examination it will be found that, though the costumes and ceremonials alike glitter, they possess symbolical variations.

The distinct value of the book is in its detailed descriptions of the viceregal round, ceremonial and practical, of native customs and costumes, and contrasts of life, Indian and English. "Her Excellency" cared little for the pomp and luxuries of her place compared with its opportunities for observation. She courageously allows her gown to be removed by a native hostess, and a Hindu dress substituted, and squats on the floor "like a Buddha," and dines on unknowables picked out of bowls with her fingers, and even likes it. She is resolute in breaking down barriers between herself and those around her. Government House, Calcutta, was reached by the new Viceroy on December 14, 1884, and on February 10 following his wife writes home:

"The ball was very nice indeed, and I enjoyed it, for at last I do believe I am making a few acquaintances. Hitherto it has been most uphill work. I may talk all through dinner on Monday to some persons, but when I see them on Tuesday, they not only don't speak to me, but I can't feel sure that a gleam of recognition passes over their faces. Well, last night I saw a glimmer of improvement, and at any rate a few of the great lords and ladies (Burra Sahib and Burra Mem Sahib) did speak to me without being driven to it."

Towards the native religions Lady Dufferin's catholicity is not merely of the perfunctory sort due from a representative of her Majesty, who is an official patroness of Protestantism, Romanism, Brahmanism, and Mohammedanism. She really sympathizes with all sincere worshippers. At Chinsurah, where she delivers prizes to school children, she regrets that some gods should be removed to give her an exalted seat: for "gods, so long as they are objects of faith, should be disturbed for no one" (i., p. 71). In the mosque Jumma Masjid, Delhi, she remarks: "I always do think that a number of Mahometans saying their prayers together is the most devotional sight one can imagine; I don't know any service that can compare with it as an expression of religious fervor" (i., p. 204). The equality of religions which Akbar initiated, but which was followed on his death by an era of strife, has been so firmly reëstablished by England that something like friendliness is appearing between the native temples. Even the banished Buddha has appeared in Hindu temples, as Vishnu has been adopted in some Buddhist temples. To the Christain missionary this may seem chaotic, but Lady Dufferin makes it, rather, kaleidoscopic. At the same time her characteristic humor does not omit the occasional drollness arising out of the singular religious situation:

"I had an afternoon visit from Mr. Broughton, Administrator-General. . . . He mentioned casually that he was trustee for an idol, to which he paid 250 rupees a month. This 'idol' is a sacred stone, and can perhaps scarcely be dignified with the name of 'god,' but the account of it was rather interesting. A deputation was sent to look for two sacred stones in some river, and when they were brought back a meeting was held to decide whether they were really sacred or not. Mr. Broughton had to be present, while a Fakir and some other learned personages squatted on the floor, with a book and the stones before them, and compared them with a real, old, undoubted 'idol' which was brought in for the purpose. This jury gave it against the new candidates, but I suppose the stones appealed, for the verdict was somehow or other reversed, and a suitable throne was procured, upon which the three now sit and receive their monthly stipend." (i., p. 55.)

The extent to which walls of partition that seem adamantine before propagandism are melting before English catholicity, is suggested by the following incident, which is also otherwise notable:

"A native gentleman sent me what they call a 'Dolly,' which is really a tray full of little presents. It was a very interesting one, and he wrote a nice letter with it, saying that we had 'evinced a kindly feeling towards our Eastern customs and the welfare of our women; therefore I venture to send these presents at the earnest request of my wife. The greater part are held auspicious by our women as conducing to the success and long life of their husbands.' One tray contained bouquets and wreaths of flowers, and then there were a quantity of puzzle-boxes, bangles cut in bone, two toilet-baskets covered with cowrie shells, and containing small mirrors, combs, red powder, etc. Mothers present these to their daughters on the occasion of marriage; two large conch shells, one of them a sacred blowing instrument used at marriages, births, etc., and one used at the time of coronation by pouring water from it on the head of the king. 'It dispels all evils where water is drunk out of it or poured on the head.' The red powder is used by Hindu women from the day of their marriage. The bridegroom with his own hand puts this powder on his bride's forehead where the hair is parted, and she always wears it until she becomes a widow. With these things were some models of fish, frogs, serpents, etc., made in clay."

It may be hoped that the words of one who got so near the native heart will weigh when they deplore the evils of Hindu society. In one prize-giving experience, "several of the dolls had to be kept back, as the girls for whom they were destined were being married." She finds it "sad to give a doll as a prize to some poor little creature who, young as she is, is probably on the very verge of matrimony, who may any moment leave her own parents for the tender mercies of a mother-in-law or of an elderly husband, or who, as a child-widow, may be condemned to a sort of outcast existence all the rest of her days." Infant-marriage is the tap-root of a banyan growth of evils; from it results an overpopulation (700 or 800 to the square mile), which is perilously increasing under the civilization that suppresses the wars, diseases, famines, which brought relief in their rough way; and it seems that the offspring of children remain children all their lives, even their deities being dolls. The Government, fol-

lowing its principle of interfering with religion only so far as humanity demands, finds every mitigation turned to an injury. It has rescued the widow from the flames only to see her made an outcast, and in many cases a compulsory family prostitute. It will pretty surely be compelled to prohibit the marriage of children, and one would say that the better Hindu opinion itself demands that the legal age should be raised somewhat. The sorrows of the little married martyrs themselves were chiefly impressed upon Lady Dufferin in the schools with which she had much to do. And we are glad to note her protest against the addition to those sorrows of European clothing:

"I went to give prizes at a zenana mission. . . . The little Hindu girls are most attractive! They do look such miniature women, with their coil of hair (for ribbon), the jewels on their heads, necklaces, bracelets, and anklets; and then their drapery of different-colored muslins, variously put on. It was most amusing to see them come up for their prizes, but I grieve to say that symptoms of European costume are to be seen among them. I had just dealt out a reward or a bribe to a real little Oriental picture when a horrid calico frock, of a purely English pattern, appeared before me! And, alas, even some who began well ended in patent-leather shoes, over which seven or eight silver anklets fell in the most incongruous manner. . . . I was made a most unwilling accomplice, for I had to give out English cotton jackets, and dolls dressed in the 'height of fashion,' and well calculated to spoil the taste of the rising generation."

"These atrocities," adds Lady Dufferin, "are sent out by kind people at home." It is unfortunate that kindness should sometimes kill people, as the Tasmanians were killed off by European clothing. It is to be feared that the repeated protests in this work will hardly reach the rotund Briton who regards the race as having a hat-and-boot destiny, or the matron who would drape the statue of Innocence with Manchester wool. But the Hindus themselves—their literary men, who wrote the 1,300 books published in India in 1889—will be encouraged by this timely aid in their war against the Philistines. We should be glad to quote many of Lady Dufferin's descriptions of native costumes, and must find room for some dancers:

"The [Bhil] women are good-looking, and are most picturesquely dressed, with large red veils covering their heads and skirts, the latter being generally dark blue, a *very* short jacket just over the bosom, and then a hiatus between it and the petticoat. Their arms are laden with bangles of all colors, and their legs are equally covered with brass ornaments. They held each other around the shoulders with one arm, and moved in lines of twenty, the lines overlapping each other and forming a circle. They sang a wild ditty as they danced, and the step, and the song, and their movements went together most beautifully. The step was like our 'chassé' after which they beat time with their feet, and bowed down, the one at the end clapping her hands, and the others making a sweeping motion with the arm that was disengaged. Their dusky faces and their red garments, and their wild music and the perfect time and grace of their movements, made this a most striking sight." (I., p. 227.)

It is but just to remark that Lady Dufferin's attention is not entirely devoted to human beings, there being some striking descriptions of curious fruits, birds, and monkeys. We do not feel sure that our few extracts, selected rather for the points touched than for the treatment, have done justice to the wit and charm of the book, and have less care to criticise it. Now and then, especially at Delhi and Agra, where every mosque has its romance, we have felt the need of some historic or legendary perspective to give the descriptions touches in relief. But our guide is resolute against quotation. We verily believe she would write about California without alluding to the Argonauts, or of Australia without mentioning the Golden Fleece. She does, indeed, give an account of Indian conjurers, of which no doubt the cleverest came before her, without indulging marvel-mongers with one improbable story; nor is Madame Blavatsky even mentioned! A book so without pretension, with no moral or political "mission," aiming only to include us all in the home circle which enjoyed the narratives, may fairly be judged by its adequacy for its own modest and friendly ends. For ourselves we have found it entertaining, suggestive, sparkling, and are content to be without space to find fault.

The Story of an Old Farm; or, Life in New Jersey in the Eighteenth Century. By Andrew D. Mellick, jr. With a Genealogical Appendix. Somerville, New Jersey. 8vo, pp. 743. 1889.

THERE is a small and scattered colony whose members, oppressed by the importance and pseudo-dignity of the society found in the great city below the Harlem, prefer to be known as living near New York rather than in New Jersey. They are chiefly youthful as well as foolish, and to those of them who chance to inhabit Somerset County we commend this volume, in the hope, if not the immediate expectation, that they will appreciate the history and the scenery, interesting and frequently striking, of their country homes. To the majority, inheritors by birth or participants by preference of that attractive region, the volume commends itself.

Through the development of a double motive, this is a double book. The author's original intention was to trace the American history of his own and collateral families more particularly as they swarmed from an old stone house and its surrounding acres. Around this central figure as a core has accumulated an interesting and valuable growth of last-century information, which to the general reader is the book. Starting with his landing at Philadelphia in 1735, there is traced the career, actual and probable, of a native of the Palatinate who established himself in 1751 as a tanner and, by necessity, a farmer on this Somerset slope; and his children and those of his immigrant kinsfolk have part in the tale. The attached genealogy shows that of the thousand or so descendants of those Lutheran settlers all have maintained respectability, many have acquired honor, and some have reached distinction, so that their fertile and exemplary ancestors deserve well of the country. Conscious that the public of to-day is less interested in Johannes Moelich as an individual than as a type, the true historical spirit, blossoming from the filial interest that rehabilitated the pioneer, has also restored much of what might have been seen around his and his children's haunts. And using the old farm as an after-dinner speaker does a toast, as a starting point for a ramble in all directions, a sympathetic pen has reproduced so much of colonial life that no reasonable limits will suffice to outline it. Much of it is important, and nearly all is interesting: of the former, for instance, a discussion of the condition of the German masses and the reasons and methods of their emigration in the eighteenth century (chaps. iii, iv.); of the latter, for example, the explanation that the floors of farm-houses were inclined so that the sand, substituted for carpets, might be more easily swept into the hall (p. 17), and the mention of the "Twenty-four Proprietors" who formerly owned and governed East Jersey, as having "a corporate and active existence to this day" (p. 112). It would be of still further interest to know their present function, and where the association can now be addressed.

The ground covered is so enormous that no discussion of any considerable part is possible, and many topics we marked for comment are perforce abandoned. Intemperance, morals, churches, local slavery, the various phases of German immigration, must be passed by without a word. One may wonder at what is meant by a "gun" fence (p. 236), and be tempted to add the tradition of the spurs to Col. Tilghman's appearance as a bearer of despatches (p. 541); but there is no space.

As warranted by the importance of the subject and the conspicuous part therein borne by New Jersey, the Revolution fills many pages, and nearly every scene of that oft-told drama receives some new and attractive comment in this rehearsal. For instance, we learn that the historical blue and buff was not the Continental uniform, except for Washington, his guard, and some of the generals, but that the line, when uniformed at all, wore colors and facings as diverse as their colonels' fancies. During much of that period Somerset was filled with troops, as the armies watched each other; and the author has well painted the gay reviews and dreary camps, the stirring and the trying life that went on within its borders. It was patriotic service to revive the forgotten skirmishes of Springfield, Plainfield, and Bound Brook, along with the better-remembered affair of Connecticut Farms, where Mrs. Caldwell was slain. Perhaps the most unexpected of these chapters is that wherein the Hessians have lifted from their memory some of the blackness that is so sombre in New Jersey, where, as Mr. Mellick truly states (p. 355), "the very name is still spoken by many with a prolonged hiss-s." He makes a good plea in behalf of those unwilling soldiers, whose odium was first acquired, at the battle of Long Island, by conduct into which they were led by British misrepresentation, and it is very well that a Jerseyman should relieve them of part of their stigma.

This book is so interesting and valuable to the general reader and the local historian that we sincerely hope it will attain, as it deserves, a second edition. With that in view, and not in an offensively critical spirit, the following suggestions are offered. Omit the Moelich genealogy, which may properly be printed separately for those directly interested. Cite, by reference to the copious bibliography, direct authorities for the various statements, giving title, page, and edition. Footnotes would be cumbrous, but references would be acceptable. The author offers to corroborate exactly every statement, but that might involve wearisome correspondence.

A very few further suggestions in the same spirit are offered. The revolt of the Pennsylvania line is described (pp. 528–30) so as to give the impression that the New Jersey troops were also engaged. The incipient mutiny of some of the New Jersey troops later was a very different affair. The statement (p. 533) that Lafayette's command embarked at Trenton on the 1st and reached the Head of Elk on the 3d of March is true, but it is misleading in that it implies that the expedition thither was entirely by water, which was not the case. An odd misprint, due doubtless to an amanuensis, makes (p. 39) the Elector John William as of the House of Newburgh, a hardly allowable Anglicising of Neuburg. One actual error must have followed carelessness of compilation, as where (p. 291) the repulse of Clinton and Parker before Charleston is given as June, 1775, although later (p. 312) it is correctly noted as

1776. It will interest the author to be assured that the "ewe lamb" *did* die in 1854, as he had heard (p. 403), on the 30th of November. The hint is offered that research will probably show that female suffrage prevailed, at least within certain limits, in the region under discussion in the latter part of the last century. This has escaped record here. With one geographical point, we are done. Did not the province line run from Little Egg Harbor to a point on the Delaware in 41° N. lat., in what is now Warren County, instead of approaching Minisink Island in Sussex? In that case it could not cross the Raritan in Somerset, and the surveyor's stone just west of Somerville (p. 111) must have some other significance.

This excellent book is clearly printed, and has a copious table of contents and a full index.

Mountaineering in Colorado: The Peaks about Estes Park. By Frederick H. Chapin. Boston: W. B. Clarke & Co. 1890.

THE first view of the parks of the Rocky Mountains is rather disappointing to many travellers. To most Americans, especially those who inhabit our larger cities, the name park suggests an expanse of greensward covered with a somewhat open growth of trees, while the Englishman looks upon a park as an enclosure stocked with game. In the great enclosed valleys of the Rocky Mountains, however, tree growth is generally confined to the steep slopes of the surrounding mountains, while the game which once abounded in them has long since disappeared, so that the only characteristic of a park they retain is that they are natural enclosures.

Estes Park in northern Colorado is exceptional in possessing an open growth of yellow pine which dots the grassy slopes of the valley, and a few individuals of the larger varieties of game which still roam through the mountains that surround it, while its streams are well stocked with trout. It is the smallest and at the same time the most picturesque and varied of all the Colorado parks, and to ardent lovers of nature possesses the additional attraction that it has not yet been invaded by miners or railroads, but must be reached by twenty-five miles' staging over steep, though by no means dangerous, mountain roads. The fact that a large portion of the valley is controlled by an English company, whose possession of a few thousand acres of land (of little value for agricultural purposes) has served as a text for Congressional declaimers upon the dangers our country runs from being bought up by British land-grabbers, has contributed in no small measure to the preservation of its natural beauty. The little hotel built by this company in full view of the imposing mass of Long's Peak, and a few outlying ranches provided with log houses and tents, afford adequate and reasonable accommodation for the summer boarder from the East, while the frugal-minded farmers from the adjoining agricultural districts of Colorado camp out in the open air along the mountain brooks that run through the valley.

The praises of Estes Park were sung some fifteen years ago by that enthusiastic Englishwoman, Miss Bird, whose imagination clothed with attributes of the most elevated nature the rude mountaineer who guided her in her not very extensive explorations among its mountains. Few visitors penetrate very far into the mountain masses that surround the valley, contenting themselves for the most part with the many excursions to valleys and cañons which radiate out from it, while the more ambitious make the ascent of Long's Peak, which, though not dangerous, is sufficiently difficult and exciting. Mr. F. H. Chapin, an enthusiastic member of the Appalachian Mountain Club, and who had already had some Alpine experience in Switzerland, recently spent the better part of two summers in Estes Park, and made a systematic exploration of all the mountain peaks surrounding it, many of which had probably never been climbed since the early days when this region was surveyed by Government geologists.

Accounts of some of these ascents were contributed from time to time to the journal of the Appalachian Club. They are now written out in more complete form, illustrated by excellent process reproductions of photographs, over fifty in number, taken by the author's own camera and printed in a most charming little volume of 160-odd pages under the auspices of the Club. Mr. Chapin's account of his various ascents is written in a simple and unaffected narrative form, which is perhaps less dignified than if more impersonal; but, as he tells us in his preface, this style is customary in the literature of moutaineering, and it carries with it the impress of truth by its simplicity, and by the absence of blood-curdling adventures that are apt to cast a certain shadow of doubt upon the absolute accuracy of many older travellers' tales. Nevertheless, his ascents were by no means barren of incident, hardship, and even danger.

It is particularly interesting to note how the Rocky Mountains and the Swiss Alps compare in grandeur and attractiveness in the mind of a mountaineer who is equally familiar with either. The charm of contrast between the brilliant verdure of the Alpine pastures and the dazzling whiteness of the névés and glaciers is naturally wanting in the drier climate of the Rocky Mountains, but it appears from Mr. Chapin's account that the vertical face of granite which surrounds Long's Peak on all sides but one, reaching a maximum altitude of 2,000 feet, and "as smooth as the side of Bunker Hill Monument," is unequalled in Switzerland, even in the neighborhood of the famous Matterhorn, whose general slopes, though appearing so nearly perpendicular from below, really stand at an angle of 40°, while the greatest extent of nearly perpendicular cliffs on its sides is only 500 feet.

Mr. Chapin's observations are not confined, however, to inanimate nature, but include many interesting facts with regard to the animal and plant life of the region. His greatest feat, and one of which he is justly proud, was the photographing a band of Rocky Mountain sheep, one of the shyest of wild animals, while facing him at a distance of about a hundred feet. He also took a photograph of a huge silver-tipped grizzly bear at about two hundred yards distance. The volume closes with a list of the flowers of Estes Park collected during the months of July, August, and September by his wife, to whose memory this little volume is dedicated.

Such narrations fulfil a useful purpose, not only in revealing truthfully the natural beauties of our land, but in teaching many, who otherwise might not know, how best to appreciate them.

The Lily Among Thorns: A Study of the Biblical Drama entitled the Song of Songs. By William Elliot Griffis, D.D., Pastor of the Shawmut Avenue Congregational Church, Boston, Mass., and author of 'The Mikado's Empire.' Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890.

To write a popular exposition of the Song of Songs from the standpoint of the modern scholar—this was a good thing to do if it could be done well. Dr. Griffis has felt himself under the necessity of expanding his criticism as much as possible, as if he had set out to write a sizable book; and, as if lacking confidence in the intrinsic merits of the natural interpretation of the poem, he has heaped on them extravagant praises, fearing, apparently, that otherwise they could not successfully rival the attractions of the allegorical interpretations of the past. Far too much stress is laid on the character and career of Solomon, which are of the least imaginable significance: he is simply the typically magnificent and sensual king. Yet a whole chapter is given to him and a good part of another, "Historic Characters in the Poem," one of whom is Abishag! It is quite possible that the relation of this Shunammite to Solomon in the first book of Kings may have suggested the situation in the Song of Songs, but this hardly justifies calling Abishag an historical character in the poem. Dr. Griffis's account of Abishag's "nursing" of King David is unwittingly humorous; and so in general is his treatment of the moralities of David and Solomon. He is in a strait betwixt two—the plain meaning of the narratives, and the conventionally pious reverence for those Hebrew kings. He lets "I dare not" wait upon "I would" with a perplexity that appeals to our sympathies. At one time he brings a railing accusation against Solomon; at another he argues that his harem was an ornamental show, and that he was perhaps not really much more married than the Sultan of Turkey or the late Brigham Young. We are expected to believe that in his youth he was a model of all the virtues, no allowance being made for the *tendency* of the Old Testament histories. His general praise of David does not perfectly agree with his specific statements, and still less with the estimate of Renan in the second volume of the 'History of the People of Israel.'

There are six chapters introductory to the text of the poem, which is given in the Revised Version. Of these the most valuable is that on the dramatic structure of the poem, in which Dr. Griffis is substantially at one with Renan, Réville, Dr. Noyes, and the run of modern critics. The chapter on the "History of the Book" is unsatisfying. Dr. Griffis seems to stand in dread of any plain, straightforward statement of his matter. On page 119 there is a serious mistake: "Theodoret of Syria, who died A. D. 457," is represented as denying the allegorical theory of the book, whereas he was one of the most ardent defenders of this theory. He is apparently confounded with Theodore of Mopsuestia, against whom and other naturalist critics Theodoret projected his defence. Dr. Griffis's statement that, since the time of Theodoret, there have not been wanting Christian scholars to deny the allegorical character of the poem, will hardly bear examination. There was no denial of the allegory from the fifth century to the sixteenth, when it was made by Castellio, one of several heretics whom John Calvin took in hand; but the real beginning of the modern appreciation of the poem was with Grotius in the next century. In the looseness of Dr. Griffis's phrasing, his admirable interpretation has a more orthodox appearance than it can rightly wear.

By far the most valuable part of Dr. Griffis's book is Part II., which contains the text of the poem, without the misleading chapter-heads and glosses of the King James translation, but with explanatory footnotes and indications of the parts belonging to the *dramatis personæ*. Dr. Griffis does not claim for these indications more than a

fair degree of certainty. His arrangement does not differ substantially from that of Réville or that of Dr. W. R. Smith in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' One of the most doubtful parts is the address to the Shulamite at the beginning of the seventh chapter, which is attributed to Solomon by Réville and other critics, to the court ladies by Dr. Griffis. In his commentary further on he suggests certain changes in the translation which have much ingenuity, but are too evidently the result of a desire to conform the wording of the poem to the exigencies of the modern prurient prude.

Part III. is a commentary on the text. It is long drawn out and much too florid and fantastical, but it contains much valuable and interesting matter. Of the book as a whole it is to be regretted that it was not made simpler and more brief. Its general purpose is worthy of all commendation, for it is to rescue the Song of Songs alike from the absurdities of the allegorists and the importations of sensuality, when, in fact, its *motif* is singularly high and pure—the praise of a country maiden for resisting the blandishments of the most magnificent of kings. Dr. Griffis does not discuss the date of the poem, but incidentally he thrusts it back nearly to Solomon's time. Wide is the range of critical opinion; Dr. W. R. Smith assigning it to the tenth century B. C., Kuenen to the ninth. The opinion of Graef that it was written about 230 B. C. is "ingenious," says Dr. Smith, "but nothing more." But this was the opinion of the late Michael Heilprin, whose judgment of the philological considerations which are most insisted on was not likely to be fanciful or unsound.

The Science of Metrology; or, Natural Weights and Measures. A Challenge to the Metric System. By the Hon. E. Noel, Captain Rifle Brigade. London: Edward Stanford. 1889.

THE metric system is now supposed to be taught in the arithmetic course in every school. If it were well taught—say, if a quarter of an hour twice a week for half a school year were intelligently devoted to it—the pupils would for ever after be more familiar with millimetres, centimetres, metres, and kilometres, with grammes and kilogrammes, with ares and hectares, and with litres, than they are ever likely to be with the English units. Who, except an occasional grocer, can guess at a pound within two ounces; or how many, besides engineers and carpenters, can distinguish seven-eighths of an inch from an inch at sight? Yet these are things easily taught. But schools will gradually get better conducted, and foreign intercourse seems destined before very long to receive an almost sudden augmentation; so that the metric system will pretty certainly become more and more familiar, and there may be expected to be some practical movement towards its use in trade. It is quite within the bounds of possibility that, even in a country with as little governmental initiative as ours, fashion may lead to the partial superseding of the old weights and measures, just as the avoirdupois pound superseded the Troy and merchants' pounds, as ells and nails have given place to yards and inches, as lasts and stones, firlots, kilderkins, long tons, great hundreds, and innumerable other units have disappeared within this century. If the litre, the half-kilo, and the metre were only not all severally greater than the quart, the pound, and the yard, there might be shops to-day where the keepers would affect to be unacquainted with English weights and measures.

There is little real difficulty in changing units of weight and bulk, were there any positive motive for it, for the things they weigh and measure are mostly used up within a twelvemonth. But with linear and square measure it is otherwise. The whole country having been measured and parcelled in quarter sections, acres, and house-lots, it would be most inconvenient to change the numerical measures of the pieces. Then we have to consider the immense treasures of machinery with which the country is filled, every piece of which is liable to break or wear out, and must be replaced by another of the same gauge almost to a thousandth of an inch. Every measure in all this apparatus, every diameter of a roll or wheel, every bearing, every screw-thread, is some multiple or aliquot part of an English inch, and this must hold that inch with us, at least until the Socialists, in the course of another century or two, shall, perhaps, have given us a strong-handed government.

We can thus make a reasonable prognosis of our metrological destinies. The metric system must make considerable advances, but it cannot entirely supplant the old units. These things being so, to "challenge" the metric system is like challenging the rising tide. Nothing more futile can well be proposed, unless it be a change in the length of the inch. Nevertheless, there is a goodly company of writers to keep the Hon. Capt. Noel in countenance in conjoining these two sapient projects. None of these gentlemen supports the constructive parts of the other's propositions; but they are unanimous against the metric system and the existing inch.

Mr. Noel's system is nearly as complicated and hard to learn as our present one, with which it would be fearfully confused, owing to its retaining the old names of measures while altering their ratios. Thus we should have to learn that 2⅓ feet would make a yard, 4 miles a league, 5 feet a fathom, 625 acres a square mile, 1.953125 cubic ells a cubic yard, 216 cubic inches a gallon, 24 ounces a pound, etc. But it is not intended that this complication shall last for ever, for this lesson, once digested, is to be followed by a clean sweeping away of the decimal numeration and the substitution of duodecimals. Mr. Noel enumerates sixty-eight advantages of his proposal, among them the following: "Mile, one-quarter hour's walk, better than kilometre"; "cubic foot worthier base than cubic decimetre"; "old London mile restored." The scheme is not without merit, and might have been useful to Edward I. Even at this day it must at least have afforded some agreeable occupation to its ingenious and noble author, not to speak of the arithmetical practice.

The Industrial Progress of the Nation. By Edward Atkinson, LL.D., Ph.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1890.

THIS volume is a reprint, with some additions, of the striking series of articles recently contributed by Mr. Atkinson to the *Century Magazine* and the *Forum*. Upon this account it is hardly necessary to do more than call attention to the fact that they may be obtained in book form. Unfortunately the shape of the volume is excessively awkward; and the frequent repetitions of facts and conclusions, unobjectionable in a series of magazine articles, becomes here offensively conspicuous. But if these blemishes are overlooked, the reader will be rewarded by a rich store of information ingeniously arranged and forcibly stated. To us the most interesting feature of the collection is the manner in which Mr. Atkinson has reached his conclusions. We cannot but regard both his premises and his reasoning as frequently wrong, and yet his conclusions are in the main unassailable. This remarkable result is due chiefly to the fact that he is not led astray by materialistic influences, but recognizes the fact that the supreme purpose of human life is the development of individual capacity and character through the struggle for existence. This truth is, of course, incompatible with the pseudo-democratic dogma of the equal desert of all men, and, when supplemented by the economic law that the increase of capital tends, through modern command of natural forces, to the relative increase of wages and decrease of interest, furnishes a skeleton key with which many formidable bolts may be turned. The key may not always fit the lock with logical precision, but it nevertheless opens the door.

The position of Mr. Atkinson is that of reasoned optimism. He has "come to the definite conclusion that, while the power of mankind to consume the products of the earth is limited, the source from which man may draw satisfaction for his material wants is practically unlimited." Not only is this true, but there is also a higher law leading towards an equitable distribution of these products. It is impossible for us to consider the elaborate argument with which Mr. Atkinson supports his position, but we may say that to a material extent it rests upon a rather shadowy basis in assuming that we are about to succeed in supplying ourselves, from the unlimited reservoir of nitrogen contained in the atmosphere, with an abundance of the most expensive and most important element in our food. On the other hand, his demonstration of the misuse of our present blessings in the injudicious selection and wasteful preparation of the principal articles of our diet is extremely practical as well as convincing. Altogether fascinating is the account of his ingenious invention, the "Aladdin cooker," whereby the people of the United States may economize in the preparation of their food to the extent of five cents apiece per day, or about one billion dollars annually. Here, certainly, is "wealth beyond the dreams of avarice."

The conclusions of Mr. Atkinson must be peculiarly exasperating to the "Christian Socialists," so called. He is as good a Christian as any of them, and a strong spirit of benevolence pervades his writings, but he defends the institution of property, even in land. He rejects Ricardo and repudiates Malthus, but he deprecates the interference of Government with individual freedom. Of what avail is it, the professional philanthropist may sadly cry, to have escaped from the logical trammels of the gloomy science of political economy, only to proclaim the effete doctrine that men must take care of themselves instead of being taken care of by the State! The vision of the world revealed by Mr. Atkinson is more magnificent than aught conceived by the Anarchists of Chicago or the Nationalists of Boston, but it is a world fitted for the habitation of human nature as we know it, somewhat improved and developed, to be sure, but still the same, and not the abode either of licentious demons or sensualized angels.

Die Begründung des deutschen Reiches durch Wilhelm I. Vornehmlich nach den preussischen Staatsacten. Von Heinrich von Sybel. Munich: R. Oldenburg; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. xiv., 428; xi., 545. 1889.

OF the first two volumes of Sybel's 'Founding of the German Empire,' which appeared in

November last, already fifty thousand have been sold. This success, which is quite unparalleled in the annals of the German book-trade, and has been rarely achieved in Europe except by a popular French novel, shows the eagerness with which the work of the distinguished historian was anticipated and the general interest which it has excited. This lively anticipation was due to two causes: first, to the author's preëminent fitness for the task which he had undertaken, and, secondly, to the fact that he was known to have access to original sources in the archives of Prussia, Hanover, Hesse Cassel, and Nassau, as well as in the state papers and diplomatic correspondence of the Foreign Office at Berlin, thus enabling him to follow from day to day, and often from hour to hour, every movement of Prussian politics and every counter-movement of its adversaries, and to give an absolutely authentic narration of the course of events.

But still more important in accounting for the impetus which carried the work in so short a time into the highest popular favor, is the fact that when it was published it did not disappoint, but rather exceeded, the public expectation. Sybel nowhere endeavors to conceal his Prussian and National Liberal convictions and sympathies; at the same time, he never permits them to warp his judgment or to obscure his vision. He is neither blind to the faults and follies of his political friends, nor incapable of seeing and recognizing honorable and patriotic motives in the actions of his political foes. As an historian he is superior to all party affiliations. He is also free from every taint of chauvinistic prejudice and vanity, and distinguishes himself in this respect very advantageously from Heinrich von Treitschke, who, in the fourth volume of his 'Deutsche Geschichte' (Leipzig: Hirzel, 1889), covering the period from 1830 to 1840, confesses that he writes exclusively for Germans, and really thinks that this narrow point of view is something to be proud of. Since the war of 1870 and the rapid advancement of Germany to a foremost place among the great Powers of Europe, such aberrations of patriotism have become endemic among German authors and publicists, who find it almost impossible to speak peaceably of other peoples. Their national sentiment is like new wine in the first stages of fermentation, which, not having yet worked itself clear and mellow and settled upon the lees, goes to the head. It is highly creditable to Sybel that his strong love of country and sincere enthusiasm for the fatherland never degenerate into this craze. While writing as a German and from a German point of view, he never panders to these passing whims and conceits, but is keen to detect and expose the inherent defects and weaknesses of the German character which have hitherto stood in the way of national unity and strength. In his judgment of public affairs, he combines the profound erudition of the scholar with the practical experience of the politician, and thus realizes the conditions essential to the ideal historian.

The first volume begins with more than a hundred pages of "Retrospects," divided into six sections, entitled respectively "Oldest Time," "Austria and Prussia," "Foreign Domination and War of Emancipation," "First Years of the Federal Diet," "Effects of the July Revolution," and "Frederick William IV." This introduction is a model of clearness, comprehensiveness, and condensation. One can affirm with justness (and there is no higher reach of praise) that it is fully equal to similar summaries by Ranke, who was an acknowledged master in this sort of general survey and succinct description and delineation. Especially admirable is the sketch of that bundle of heterogeneous and contradictory qualities, the brilliant, bungling, personally fascinating, politically fatuous monarch, the mediæval romanticist on a modern throne—Frederick William IV.

The first attempt to achieve German unity was the revolution of March, 1848, and with this event Sybel's history, properly speaking, begins. The effort was, of course, an utter failure, so far as the realization of this object was concerned, and the chief cause of the failure was the political immaturity of the German people. But it is no disgrace either to an institution or to an individual to be in advance of the age; and the National Assembly of Frankfort holds this honorable position in history. The second volume closes with the Diet of Princes which convened at Frankfort, August 17, 1863, under the presidency of the Emperor of Austria. That the King of Prussia held himself aloof from this august assembly was due solely to the energetic opposition of Bismarck, whose conduct on this occasion distinctly foreshadowed the far-sighted policy which led to the expulsion of Austria from Germany and the final establishment of the German Empire.

It is foreign to our present purpose to enter into a detailed discussion of the two volumes now before us. The third volume is already in type, and the remaining fourth and fifth volumes will appear during the course of the current year. We shall then take occasion to give a more extended review of the entire work, which concludes with the opening of the first German Parliament, March 21, 1871, and the promulgation of the Constitution of the German Empire. We close our present remarks with this excerpt, embodying Sybel's estimate of the Emperor William:

"He was a confessing Christian who, with simple-minded conviction, accepted the creed of his ancestors. Neither a doubting philosopher, like Frederick the Great, nor a liturgist or theosophist, like Frederick William IV., he never aspired to become a church reformer. His piety was in accord with Gospel teaching, without sound of trumpets, neither of sorry countenance; without arrogant positiveness and intolerance. But it was the staff of his life, the solace of his sufferings, the compass of his conduct. His faith gave him an unconditional trust in God, which filled his whole being and upheld him in all his troubles. . . . He was thus conscientious to timidity in every deliberation, absolutely fearless in danger. Nor was his the chivalric courage of excited nerves or ambition: the word fear or danger had absolutely no meaning for him. He strode through life never despairing, never vaunting, always in a perfect equipoise. He was not of the men of genius or of a demoniac nature who either by their superior equipment trace new paths for their century, or with irresistible passion thrust themselves and their peoples into fearful abysses. Not even bright in the sense that his elder brother was bright, can one call him. But he was, what a contemporary says of Rudolph of Hapsburg, an efficient (*ausrichtiger*) man. His whole being was centred in, and fitted for, practical work; he had by nature the gift to conceive the attainable, and an unbiassed clearness of comprehension which asserted itself more particularly in an almost unerring judgment of men. Add to this a rare combination of firmness and flexibility of mind which characterizes the practical statesman as contrasted with the doctrinaire. To the end of his days he remained unswerving in his conservative principles, but without reluctance recognized that, with changing circumstances, the means of preserving power must likewise change, and that progressive reform is the enduring condition of such preservation. As was natural, he was convinced of the necessity of strong kingly power in a commonwealth founded by its rulers, composed of heterogeneous provinces, and surrounded by jealous neighbors."

La Passione di Gesù Cristo: Rappresentazione sacra in Piemonte nel secolo XV. Edita da Vincenzo Promis. Turin: Fratelli Bocca. 4to, pp. xxv., 532.

THE early development of the drama in Italy does not present as much interest as it does in some other countries. Documents relating to the liturgical origin of the drama are almost wholly wanting; and while in France, for example, it is possible to trace with reasonable completeness the growth of the drama from the simple service of the church to the complicated mysteries and the secular drama evolved from them, in Italy such process cannot be traced, and no such regular organic development took place. It is true that in Italy, as elsewhere, the origin of the drama was in the service of the Church, but it does not seem to have developed early (as in France) into a religious drama in the vernacular. There are vague notices of a religious drama performed at Padua in 1243, and a more detailed account of another at Cividale (Friuli) in 1298. This latter was a representation of the Passion, Resurrection, Ascension, Advent of the Holy Ghost, and Last Judgment, and until lately was the only instance known in Italy of the cyclical drama so common in France under the name of mystery.

In Italy from the church service was developed in Umbria in the thirteenth century the dramatic *lauda* (hymn), or *divozione*, which spread into Tuscany, where, in the fifteenth century, it assumed the form of the *sacra rappresentazione*. These may be compared to the French miracle plays which they resemble in many points.

It has always seemed strange that the influence of France, which was so profound during the Middle Ages, did not produce in Italy any imitation of the *mystères* of the fifteenth century. The recent discovery of such an imitation is therefore of great literary interest, and fills a gap hitherto existing in the history of the Italian drama. The work in question, "La Passione di Gesù Cristo," was discovered among the Ashburnham manuscripts recently acquired by the Italian Government, and was purchased by Lord Ashburnham from the notorious G. Libri. The drama contained in the MS. was written by an anonymous author (perhaps the Frate Simone, some sermons by whom appear at the beginning and end of the acts), and performed in 1490 at Revello, a town belonging to the Marquisate of Saluzzo in Piedmont. The enormous length of the play (it fills 542 large quarto pages of print) required three days for its performance, as was the case also with the French *mystère de la Passion*, from which the Italian drama does not differ materially in contents. It opens with the Council in Heaven in which the redemption of man is determined upon, and closes with the appearance of Christ, after his resurrection, to Mary Magdalene. The usual sources (apocryphal gospels, legends, etc.) are employed to supplement the Gospel narrative; and certain episodes, the raising of Lazarus (arranged for acting as a separate play if desired), etc., are treated in great detail. The most interesting of these apocryphal interpolations is that containing the debate between Christ and Satan concerning the redemption of man (p. 226).

The drama is in verse of irregular metre—seven to fifteen syllables, with rhyme in couplets and with occasional lyrical passages. To assist the memory of the performers, the couplet is always divided at the end of a speech. A similar proceeding is found in the French 'Miracles de Nostre Dame,' recently published by

the Société des Anciens Textes Français. The language of the drama is Italian, but mingled with it are many dialectic forms. The author confesses at the end of the work that he has written his play in a language little used by him, and says it is not strange if he has not been able to do his work well. Why he should have felt it necessary to write in Italian for an uncultivated audience accustomed to their own dialect, it is not easy to see. It was probably a concession to the court of the Marquis Louis II., before whom it was performed, and to the crowd of strangers expected from other parts of Italy. At all events, it is an interesting proof of the prevalence of the literary language among the people at that early date.

The intrinsic value of the play is not great, although some of the lyrical passages are not devoid of beauty. The same realistic treatment is observed as in the French *mystères*. For example, Christ is called upon to sing when mocked by his captors, and various popular songs of the sixteenth century are suggested to him (one is a French song, "Matre doxa sor de bon ayre.")

After long remaining unknown, this precious work has recently been published in the most sumptuous manner, which unfortunately will place it beyond the reach of the ordinary student. The firm of Bocca Bros., booksellers to the Queen, wishing to present her Majesty with a proof of their devotion, chose this unique monument of Piedmontese literature, and reproduced it in an *édition de luxe* of 200 copies. The volume is magnificently printed upon hand-made paper, with wide margins, and a facsimile of two folios of the MS. is given. A too brief introduction by the editor, who is librarian of the Royal Library at Turin, gives an account of the MS. and the circumstances of the performance of the drama. The questions raised by the language of the work are passed over in silence, and no glossary of dialectic forms has been given. In spite of these deficiencies, all students of Italian literature will be grateful to the publishers for a work which reflects great honor upon the Italian press.

Great Cities of the Republic. The Story of Boston: A Study of Independency. By Arthur Gilman. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1889. Pp. viii, 507. 8vo.

Two only of the three periods into which the history of Boston may be naturally divided have an adequate treatment in this work. In respect to these two, moreover, Mr. Gilman has told the political history of the colony and Province of Massachusetts Bay, rather than that of its principal town. But it should be acknowledged that to separate the one from the other is a difficulty which confronts all historians of Boston. During the first century and a half of its existence the town exerted a controlling influence throughout New England, while, in the latter part of this time, measures of the first importance to the thirteen colonies were initiated in its town meetings. This part of its history, however, has been so fully told and is so familiar that it might well have been treated very briefly in a work of this kind, and the space gained might have been devoted to portraying the various changing phases of the social, intellectual, and religious life of the town, and especially to telling the story of its commerce and its industries. This, we readily grant, would have been by far the more difficult task; but if it had been done, Mr. Gilman's book would have had a value which it does not now possess. As it is, he simply rehearses the well-worn narrative of the formation of the Massachusetts Company, and the struggles of the people first for their rights under the charter and finally for independence. There is, of course, interspersed some account of the peninsula and its changes with the growth of the town, and there are occasional references to the social life.

With the siege of Boston Mr. Gilman's "story" practically closes, for he has barely touched upon the history of the third period, the last hundred years. The only topics of this time treated, except in the most general way, are the change of the form of government and the mayoralty of Josiah Quincy. The book wears a very attractive appearance, with numerous well-chosen illustrations and maps, and has an excellent index. It is written in an easy, flowing style, which at times has a quaint and Scriptural flavor that lends itself very agreeably to an account of the doings of men in the seventeenth century. There is a lack of life and picturesque incidents, however, which might easily have been supplied. It would, of course, be unjust to expect absolute accuracy, and the author is unusually accurate and painstaking. Still, a few errors have crept into his pages. He repeats, for instance, the old statement that Sir Richard Saltonstall was descended from a Lord Mayor of London who was, in fact, his uncle. The Concord philosopher, A. Bronson Alcott, is called Olcott, in text and index. Joshua Bates gave a hundred, not fifty, thousand dollars to the Public Library, and surely it is an anachronism to call the Salem of Revolutionary days "the sleepy town."

Death No Bane. London: Sampson Low & Co. 1889.

Under this disguising title appears a new translation of the first book of Cicero's 'Tusculan Disputations.' The translator, Mr. Robert Black, late of Pembroke College, presents as an excuse for his work his belief that he has had but one predecessor (anonymous, 1840) in this particular field. We can name three others: G. A. Otis, Boston, 1839; P. A. Nuttall, London, 1841; Dr. A. P. Peabody, Boston, 1886. The newest thing in Mr. Black's version is, perhaps, his rendering of *judices*, in Socrates's speech, by the phrase "my lords," but this is typical of his whole work. It is disfigured by modern slang and colloquialisms, which are entirely out of place in a book of this serious nature, whatever may be their value in the interpretation of ancient writings of a different sort. The sentences, also, although in the main faithfully rendered, are frequently so long as to be wearisome and obscure. Mr. Black should have remembered that the English language is not richly enough inflected to bear the burden of sentences of equal length with those in Latin and Greek. The translation is not divided into the chapters of the original, and is accordingly nearly useless as a work of reference. It is followed by about seventy pages of notes, which are mainly the commonplaces of old-fashioned dictionaries of biography.

For instance, on the state of Lacedæmon we have little but the valuable information that Lacedæmon was the son of Zeus and Taygete, married Sparta, and gave his name to the country. There is scarcely a word upon the subject of philosophy, but we are told that Pembroke College has an orrery similar to the *sphæra* of Archimedes. We hear also that Demosthenes was the "easy first" of Athenian orators, that Socrates performed the "happy despatch" upon himself, and that Æacus was raised to the "judicial bench" in Hades by a "job" perpetrated by his father Zeus. Mr. Black insinuates here and there that he himself is a cold-hearted cynic; we should hardly have believed it of the writer of these words: "In 1795 (and not before) a heartless, cold-blooded attempt was made to deprive 'the blind old man of Scio's rocky isle' of the posthumous fame he had earned over all the world as the author of both *Iliad* and *Odyssey;* and a pundit named F. A. Wolf issued his *Prolegomena* to discredit a belief and a fame which had endured for nine centuries or more." On another page we read that Lycurgus "is said to have had the honor of becoming acquainted with Homer." Mr. Black kindly states that his book "is not intended to be merely of assistance to students of Latin, but also—and chiefly—of use to English readers innocent" of that language. It seems scarcely right to offer to defenceless innocents such lore as these notes present without a warning against its traditionary nature.

The book is printed on heavy paper with wide margins and white cover, and the typework is very creditable to the Chiswick Press.

A Japanese Boy. By Shiukichi Shigemi. New Haven: E. B. Sheldon & Co.

In a neatly printed and bound volume of 128 pages, bearing the above title, a student in Yale College tells the story of his early life in Japan. It is a cleverly conceived and well-written book. Numerous as are descriptions of Japan, and even of the social life of the people, there are very few natives who have attempted, in a foreign language, to lift the veil of private life and let the people speak for themselves. The charm of this unassuming little book is its utter freedom from anything stilted or pretentious. It is noticeable that though the author is not of the old samurai (or gentry) class, but the son of a merchant, it never occurs to him to pass himself for anything else than what he is. In other words, he realizes fully that the day of democracy has come to Japan—as well as that Americans have slight regard for mere rank or pretensions that have no basis in personal merit. In his fourteen chapters he pictures vividly school and home life, diet, punishment, bath-houses, evenings at home with dancing and music, actors and theatres, the old castle, angling, New Year's day, kite-flying, holidays, religious festivals and ceremonies, and many other matters of interest. His style is bright and lively, though showing the water-marks (as indeed does that of almost all Japanese who write English) of Peter Parley. His command of a vocabulary at once copious and exact is extraordinary, and is even better attained, we imagine, by an alien who has mastered English by long and patient book-translation than by a native. We have looked for Japanese idioms in Mr. Shigemi's English, but, except the use of "fishes" where we should use "fish," we do not find any. On page 68 he speaks of seeing a "stork"—in this, possibly, following the great crowd of foreign writers; for of the 365 birds common in, and the sixteen species peculiar to, Japan, the only stork known in Japan is a rare bird which few persons, even ornithologists, have seen. Yet it may be that Mr. Shigemi's stork was the real bird, *Ciconia Boyciana* Swinh., called by the Japanese *kodzuru* (little crane), though most probably it was the egret, or *sagi*. In other words, as a rule, Mr. Shigemi, though writing in a chatty, delightful way his boyhood's memories, is extremely accurate. Though some of the customs portrayed are local and not national, his book may be safely recommended as the best picture of home life

among the middle classes in Japan yet produced, and well worthy of a place in all our libraries. In this respect it has a value out of proportion to its modest size and claims.

The Scotch-Irish in America. First Congress, 1889. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.

It is surprising that so little has hitherto been done to trace the history of that remarkable race which established its institutions throughout the great upland region of Pennsylvania and the Southern States. It has been to this region what the Puritans were to New England and the West. Its great men and its great achievements are numberless, and the purity and vigor of the strain seem yet undiminished. For the purpose of recalling a glorious past and encouraging an honorable pride, a congress of the race was called in May, 1889, at Columbia, Tenn., resulting in the formation of a Scotch-Irish Society. The proceedings of this congress and the addresses delivered before it are now presented in the volume before us, which we commend to all who are interested in the study of neglected portions of our history. It is of course only a beginning, but the vein is so rich that its further working is certain. The New England branch of the race is barely mentioned, but its annals alone would furnish an abundance of valuable material.

The permanency of the Scotch-Irish type is strikingly proved by the testimony of the Rev. John Hall of this city. When in this country as a delegate in 1867, he pointed out a man in the audience whom he had never seen before, and declared—correctly as it proved—that he was of the McKee family of Ulster. In his address at this congress he said: "As I looked over the faces of the people here yesterday, I could hardly keep the tears from my eyes as they rested upon so many heads and faces and figures like those with which I had been familiar in Ulster." The fighting qualities of this race have never been questioned, but its terrible courage was never more brilliantly displayed than in the battles of the late war. According to the figures given in one of these addresses, the States of Pennsylvania and North Carolina are those in which the Scotch-Irish element is the largest, and those among whose soldiers the losses in battle were the greatest. Strictly speaking, the losses of South Carolina were greater in proportion than those of North Carolina, but those of the latter State were enormous. Its fighting population in 1861 was 115,000, but it furnished to the Confederate Army 125,000 men, of whom 14,522 were killed, 5,155 died of wounds—not including the wounded who did not die in service—and 20,602 died of disease. Pennsylvania had the highest percentage of killed, on the Union side, viz. 7.1 per cent. of enrolled troops. The Twenty-sixth North Carolina Regiment was pitted at Gettysburg against the One Hundred and Fifty-first Pennsylvania and Cooper's Battery, and out of over 800 men lost all but 216 in the first day's battle, and after the third day mustered only 80 men. The Pennsylvania Regiment lost 335 men. The loss of the Light Brigade at Balaklava is stated to have been about 32 per cent.

Falling in Love; with Other Essays on More Exact Branches of Science. By Grant Allen. D. Appleton & Co. 1890. 8vo, vi., 356 pp.

In this little volume Mr. Allen has gathered twenty-one essays contributed to the *Cornhill*, the *Fortnightly*, and *Longman's Magazine*. He is well known to readers of periodical literature as a skilled purveyor of the ideas of modern science and the facts of biology, neatly enfolded in a literary coating enlivened by a spice of humor. While a critical specialist might take exception here and there to a minor statement of fact, or to the broad and easy treatment of difficult subjects affected by Mr. Allen, he would hardly deny that, on the whole, the essays in question perform a work of great usefulness. Such intermediaries between the technical statements of the investigator and the curiosity of the lay reader are none too numerous. Of the small band who perform this public service, the writer of these essays is especially well qualified from a literary point of view, and we are glad to recognize the unusual measure of success which has attended his efforts to instruct and interest the general reader. The articles here reprinted will be practically new to the majority of Americans. Though of varying degrees of merit, literary or scientific, none of them are dull, and they are free from really important errors of fact. While the professional naturalist will perhaps prefer something more exact and profound, the average man will find his profit, not unmixed with pleasure, in an hour or two devoted to Mr. Allen's pages.

Life of William Ellis (Founder of the Birkbeck Schools). With some account of his writings and of his labours for the improvement and extension of education. By Edmund Kell Blyth. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. 1889.

We have already reviewed at some length a life of Mr. Ellis by his granddaughter, in which his character and labors were described, and, though the present volume is more full in some respects and has much more apparent pretensions to being considered the true and complete biography, it does not add so much to our knowledge as to detain us for more than a moment. The simple and laborious character of Mr. Ellis, his singleness of purpose, his benevolent and practical nature, stand out plainly through all his career. His utilitarian interest, which became absorbed by the one cause of education, was the substance of his life; he believed that the world was to be made over only by forming the minds of the children, and instilling into them the rational grounds for the industrial virtues. To this he devoted time, money, and mind without stint. The present biography contains very full abstracts of his many writings in magazines and books and a good many letters. It brings to the fore somewhat more openly and boldly the radical element in his convictions, the grounds of his opposition to moral teachings out of the Scriptures, upon which he made many sensible observations worth attention by those who would not agree with his conclusions altogether; and all this helps to explain the opposition he met with in certain quarters because of his extreme secularism. He was a thorough Benthamite in opinion and by nature, indifferent to much of the fruits of culture, and generally to the fine arts and imaginative literature, hostile to university ideals of training, and very narrowly limited to the useful in all parts of his thought. But within his bounds he was clear-sighted and able, entirely self-devoted to the good of mankind as he understood it, and sagacious in the practical unfolding of his plans. He was in some degree a speculative and experimental educator, a seeker for new lines, and hence his books contain suggestive ideas and interesting records of experience which make this abstract of them of real value to educators who are not hidebound conservatives. The biography is thus to be regarded as being as much a tract to spread his views as an account of a noble and useful career.

The Castellated and Domestic Architecture of Scotland, from the Twelfth to the Eighteenth Century. By David MacGibbon and Thomas Ross, architects. Vol. III. Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1889. 8vo, pp. xvii., 639.

It is pleasant to receive the continuation, in the third volume, of Messrs. MacGibbon and Ross's book, of which the beginning we noticed some years ago. When the course of a people's architecture can be as clearly followed as in Scotland, there is no plainer witness to the growth of its civilization. Scotland never prospered, like most European nations, so as to efface the architectural testimony to her small beginnings. Her record is of hardship more than of splendor. It shows how the early feudal lord (here as indeed elsewhere) hived his family in his stately castle as the poor are hived nowadays in tenement-houses; and how, in spite of a command of personal service which is now unknown, and the abounding delights of feasting, hunting, and hacking one another to pieces, comfortable living was reserved for these late days. The contrast of Scotland's transitory prosperity in the thirteenth century with her long blight under the English wars of the fourteenth is imaged in the shrinkage from the ampler early castles to the cramped security of the Norman keeps, which superseded them here after being themselves superseded in more prosperous England, and in the cessation of church-building for two centuries while the rest of Europe was blossoming into churches like a field of daisies.

These conditions, and the slow recovery of the country in the sixteenth century, the returning prosperity of the Stuart reigns, are well outlined in the introduction of this volume, and confirmed by the examples which follow. There are not so many important examples as in the first two volumes, but the architectural story is told with the same faithfulness, the same intelligence, the same abundant and clear illustrations. The fourth volume, of which the contents are given in the present, holds in reserve many buildings of architectural and historical interest, and promises to end well a work which is exhaustive, and in its way final.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bigelow, J. William Cullen Bryant. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Clutterbuck, W. J. The Skipper in Arctic Seas. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.25.
Fothergill, Jessie. A March in the Ranks. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Gurrin, T. E. Hossfeld's New Spanish Reader. N. Y. School-Book Clearing House.
Haskell, T. N. Young Konkaput, the King of the Utes. Denver: Collier & Cleaveland.
Hogarth, D. G. Devia Cypria: Notes of an Archæological Journey in Cyprus in 1888. London: Henry Frowde.
Lane-Poole, S. Thirty Years of Colonial Government: A Selection from the Despatches and Letters of the Right Hon. Sir George F. Bowen. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $10.50.
Maclehose, Sophia H. Tales from Spenser, chosen from the Faerie Queene. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Momerie, Prof. A. W. Church and Creed. T. Whittaker. $1.50.
Newton, Rev. W. W. Dr. Muhlenberg. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Noel, Capt. E. The Science of Metrology; or, Natural Weights and Measures. London: Edward Stanford.
Ritter, F. L. Music in America. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $2.
Rockwood, Caroline W. A Saratoga Romance. Funk & Wagnalls.
Rolleston, T. W. Prose Writings of Thomas Davis. London: Walter Scott.
Sessions, F. C. On the Wing through Europe. Welch, Fracker & Co. $1.25.
Shaw, G. B. Fabian Essays in Socialism. London: The Fabian Society, 63 Fleet St.
Shemeld, S. P. The New Prodigal. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Skrine, J. H. A Memory of Edward Thring. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Sladen, D. B. W. Australian Poets, 1788-1888. Cassell Publishing Co. $2.
Sloane, T. O'C. Facts Worth Knowing. Hartford: S. S. Scranton & Co.
Steele, G. M. Rudimentary Psychology. Boston: Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.

Fine Arts.

EXHIBITION OF THE AMERICAN WATER COLOR SOCIETY.

THE average of technical excellence rises steadily at the exhibitions of the Water-Color Society. In the present exhibition, if we take the pictures on the line, almost everything is creditable, except that there are always pictures on the line, by one right or another, that ought not to be placed there, and there are always some over doors and other high places that ought to be down. Seven or eight years ago there were about half-a-dozen pictures in each exhibition that were picked out and spoken of everywhere as "good things" or "fine water-colors," and there was much to pass by between them. Now we find not half-a-dozen such pictures merely, nor a dozen even, but thirty or forty, and most of the rest are so much better than they used to be that there is scarcely any comparison to be made.

But though technical excellence is much more general, a good deal of fault can still be found with American water-color painting. For one thing, there is apparently a widely prevailing belief that a water-color may be made of anything that comes handy, regardless of the fitness of the subject or motive for treatment in this particular medium. An old study in oil that has never been finished, and that never will be finished unless the painter means to go back to the place where he worked at it and finish it on the spot where he can get his facts from nature, is made to do service for a picture in water-color; for whatever is wanting in the oil study can be left vague in the water-color, and washes and blotches of pretty tints fill up the doubtful places. At least some of our painters must proceed on such a principle, and there is too much of that sort of incomplete work in the exhibitions. Not that everything should be made out, but accuracy and truth are necessary, and no really good work is without them. The truth need not be given in detail, but it must be given. The most charming water-colors, perhaps, are those in which it is suggested only, but in these, if they are good, nothing but the truth *is* suggested. Large pictures are better painted in oil, for it is easier to arrive at exact truth in values in this medium; and when it comes to making a picture "hang together" by working over to remedy faults of form or color, it may be done easily enough in oil, whereas in water-color most of the charm of the medium—which consists in frank, simple tints—is marred by such processes, if, indeed, it is not altogether lost. Not every landscape effect lends itself to successful treatment in water-color, though many are admirably suited to it, and sombre interiors cannot be so well painted in it as light ones, the followers of the modern Dutch painters to the contrary notwithstanding. No painter is cleverer in his way than Vibert, and his water-color pictures of interiors with figures are very skilfully worked out. He paints such subjects far better than any of our painters could paint them, yet doubtless there are few among them who would care to paint as Vibert does. Good drawing and careful painting will not alone make a good water-color, least of all when it is applied to a subject that is not suitable. Jacquemart, the well-known etcher, who died a few years ago, was one of the ablest of painters in water-color. His pictures were never carried very far, but the effect of nature was always faithfully rendered, and there was a never-failing charm in the direct, simple way in which it was noted on the paper. He never elaborated detail, and never blurred and scoured his paper for "effects." There are some pictures in this exhibition that resemble the work of Jacquemart in general treatment; those by Mr. Hassam and Mr. Wiles may be mentioned particularly.

Another fault in American water-color work as it is seen at the exhibitions at the Academy is triviality—both in subject and treatment. Light, sketchy work is not trivial *because* it is light and sketchy, but there are many pictures here that aim to be light and sketchy and are only tame and thin. This is the fault of insufficient skill in handling the medium, and of a timidity that causes the painter to stop without entirely realizing his first intention. The triviality of subject is even more apparent. The upper part of the walls is covered with landscapes in which not two thoughts have been given to composition, and with figure pictures in which the element of grace or beauty or strikingness of pose does not enter at all. Some pictures, too, look as though they were but parts of some other composition—pieces saved out of the wreck. Many exhibitors evidently have been satisfied with trifles, and have sent them here; the lesson they have to learn is, that a bad sketch is not any the more worth looking at because it is painted in water-color than it would be if it were done in oil, and that no picture, whatever the medium it is painted in, is worth exhibiting unless it shows something intended to be done and it is well done.

Those of our painters who have in the last few years—during the period of marked progress of which we have spoken—become known as genuine water-color painters, are well represented in this year's exhibition. Messrs. Abbey, Weir, Walker, Wiles, Hassam, Tryon, Smedley, Robinson, Ross Turner, Platt, and Day are some of these, but there is nothing from the one who is best known of all, Mr. Homer, who has, however, made an exhibition of his sketches in the gallery of a well-known dealer.

No painter surpasses Mr. Wiles in dexterity, and if his eye for color were only a little stronger, we should rarely have a fault to find with his work. "On the Coast of the Mediterranean," No. 37, is deficient in color quality, though it is very skilfully painted; and in the large picture, "The Convalescent," No. 393, representing two young girls in a pretty interior, color is not the chief merit. It is sufficiently colored, however, to be satisfying, and it is as well painted as anything in the galleries. But in a smaller picture, "In the Heat of the Day," No. 7, Mr. Wiles is successful in every respect, and this little bit of waterside, with the pavilions on the bank and the launch and row-boats anchored in the stream, is delightful. It might well be taken as an example of right water-color work, and it is to be hoped that we shall see more and more in the exhibitions with the same intention.

Mr. Hassam's methods resemble those of Mr. Wiles, though each is distinctly individual. Nothing could be better in its way than Mr. Hassam's "Paris and the Eiffel Tower from Montmartre," No. 262; and of the five or six other pictures contributed by him, all are excellent in every way, except "A Bit of New York," No. 641, and it is a figure of a man with a street for a background, while the others are pictures of streets and places, and the figures do not count except as color notes. Of the others—"Wet Night on the Boulevards," No. 363; "Under the Obelisk—Thames Embankment," No. 301; "Along the Seine—Bougival," No. 91, and "The Bathing Hour, Broadstairs, England," No. 640—it may be said that no better water-colors have ever been seen in these exhibitions, and that the artist gives proof of such ability and cleverness as a water-color painter that he is entitled to a place in the first rank of those who are already distinguished. Not the least charm in them is their freshness and truthfulness of color. As in Mr. Wiles's work, the method is expressed in two words—frankness and simplicity.

No better illustration of what a delightful thing a water-color sketch may be, if it is painted by a man who is at home in the use of the medium, could well be found than Mr. Blum's "Sketch of a Venetian Bead-Stringer," No. 275. The movement of the girl with her arm extended above her head is well given, the action of the figure is admirably suggested, and it is an agreeable color study. Technically, it is of the cleverest work to be seen, and to artists it is one of the most interesting of the pictures here.

"Peasant Woman Baking Bread," No. 335; "A Barn-Yard," No. 364; "Evening," No. 482, and "A Pastoral," No. 424, are the titles of the four pictures exhibited by Horatio Walker, and there are particular qualities in each of them well worthy of notice. "A Pastoral," however, is so characteristic of Mr. Walker's methods, and is such a fine piece of color and so complete a work, that it will suffice to speak of it alone. "A Pastoral" has for its subject three fat and lazy pigs that have come across the pasture lot, on a fine, sunny day, to lay themselves in the ditch. Mr. Walker paints excellent landscapes and cattle and sheep and horses, but he paints pigs better than any of these. Nobody anywhere, indeed, can paint pigs better than he. This little water-color is like a Millet in its homely truth and unaffected simplicity: the pigs are real pigs, and that they are lazy, existence-loving pigs is plain enough. The picture is admirable in characterization, and soundly painted. It does not belong to the class of work of which Mr. Hassam's or Mr. Wiles's pictures are types, but is one of those in which color is sought for by more intricate processes than in the clear washes used by these painters. It is perfect in its way.

"The Visitors," No. 434, by E. A. Abbey, which shows two pretty English girls in prim bonnets and gowns seated in chairs in the garden in front of a country-house of the last century, possesses much of the charm that is found in the artist's pen drawings that have made him famous. It is a notable instance, in an exhibition where there is so much that indicates shallowness of purpose, of a work that has been seriously composed. It is cleverly painted, and though full attention is given to detail, the ensemble is well kept, and the picture is harmonious and complete. A delightful little picture, and an apt example of technical skill properly displayed, is "Sweetheart," No. 190, by Albert E. Sterner; and a well-drawn and delicately painted little figure is the girl in a blue-check skirt aiming a carbine, "Shooting at a Mark," No. 156, by Theodore Robinson. Mr. Robinson also, among other things, exhibits a "December Landscape," No. 176, that is a fine bit of color, and an effect in nature realistically but tenderly treated. Mr. Tryon's landscapes, Nos. 171, 353, and 470, are noticeable, and there is an excellent winter scene, "Northern Winter," No. 467, by Jervis McEntee, that must be mentioned as the best among the snow pictures. It possesses one very important element that is lacking in much of the landscape work in the exhibition—the element of character, which is as essential in a landscape as it is in a portrait. Character

is a quality that we always find in Mr. Smedley's pictures, and in "A Thanksgiving Dinner," No. 442, "A Late Arrival," No. 313, and "By a Summer's Sea," No. 451, this is the chief merit. The composition of the first-named picture is not of the hap-hazard order—on the contrary, it is well thought out; but it is more the composition of an illustration than of a picture—a difference which lies in the fact that the impression of things as they actually look in nature without presenting them solely to the spectator's point of view is essential to the first, and that in the second the composition should be made with this point of view as the only one to be considered.

The pictures by J. Alden Weir, G. W. Maynard, H. Bolton Jones, H. W. Ranger, J. Francis Murphy, Ross Turner, Mrs. Rosina Emmet Sherwood, C. A. Platt, Francis Day, C. H. Eaton, Carleton Wiggins, D. M. Bunker, C. Y. Turner, W. S. Bucklin, Stanley Middleton, C. E. Cookman, E. L. Durand, Clark Crum, C. Morgan McIlhenney, Edward A. Bell, Charles Mente, Percy Moran, and Alexander Schilling, may be mentioned as among those which form the bulk of notable works in the present exhibition. This is the twenty-third annual exhibition of the Society. The rooms are tastefully decorated, as usual; the hanging is done by groups, according to the tone of the pictures and the color of the borders, and, by a happy innovation, no pictures at all are placed in the corridor. The illustrated catalogue contains a number of well-printed photographic reproductions, as well as pen drawings; but the book is not quite what the catalogue of this pretty exhibition ought to be.

MODERN WOOD-ENGRAVING.

THE Grolier Club is constantly doing something towards enlightening the public concerning the various arts and industries to which it stands as a nerve-centre. Having just held an exhibition of "Books and prints illustrating the origin and rise of wood-engraving," in which was shown a complete progression from the work of the "Formschneider" to the sudden burst of the great art of Albert Dürer, it now supplements that lesson with an exhibition of the work of some of our best-known engravers. Between the first exhibition and the present one, to be sure, there is a hiatus, in the order of production, of more than three hundred years; but, as that period is covered by a partial decadence, and subsequently by the revival of Bewick, about which much has appeared in current literature, it may be assumed that most of those who will be attracted by the subject can supply for themselves the historical omission, and thereby derive the full advantage of the Grolier Club's contribution to the study.

The present collection has been made under the auspices of the Society of American Wood-Engravers, and consists of 258 prints, 101 of which constitute the exhibit by which the Society was represented at the Paris Exposition. On entering the hall in the pretty little club-house where these prints are shown, one is impressed by the entire suitableness of the surroundings. The pictures themselves almost seem conscious of the more than favorable conditions for their appreciation, and take on an hospitable appearance. The show-cases are ranged along the sides of the room, convenient for the examination of their contents. One can read these pictures as he reads a book, going to his favorites over and over again, never tiring of what they say to him. They reveal, for one thing, the strong individuality in the work, which is somewhat surprising after all that has been written concerning the loss of this very quality by the modern engraver through the commonly great reduction of his subject, consequent upon the use of photography in transferring it to his block, and the finikin methods made necessary by this process. We look here in vain for evidences of such disaster; in fact, one of the charms displayed is this strong personal quality in workmanship, and another is the great value of its diversity to the entire collection. It is doubtful if we should wish to prolong our examination greatly if these prints were the result of one man's effort, however skilful, or that of a number of men who worked just alike. Even the interest one might feel in the variety of painters and draughtsmen would be greatly neutralized by uniformity of interpretation; whereas, here one feels a new delight with the discovery of a different translation of any given artist. There are, no doubt, several groups into which these workmen may be divided, as, from sympathy or schooling, a number may adopt similar means of reaching a result; but there is not an instance where personal expression is not distinctly marked.

In these show-cases are to be found the most of the work of Mr. Timothy Cole after the old Italian masters, now being published in the *Century Magazine*. Although these are printed on simple plate paper (a considerable disadvantage as compared with the surrounding "Japan" proofs), one is impressed by the reverential attitude of the engraver towards his "originals," and the consummate skill with which his devotion is expressed. Cole denies himself no advantage to be derived from any modern method of working, but his line is his main dependence, and it is sufficient for his need. It is marvellous that with the simple line he can sustain such pure tones, or make such nice gradations; that, with a line so close as in many of these pictures, he should remain so light and appear so strong.

The general view of the exhibition makes it apparent to what an extent the American engraver is limited by the magazine page. By far the largest portion of these pictures are illustrations which have appeared in the *Century*, *Harper's*, or *Scribner's* magazines. This fact is accountable for much that appears finical in the work of the American engraver to his fellow-craftsmen dwelling in countries where there is greater variety in the dimensions and quality of the work to be obtained. Notwithstanding want of appreciation on the part of the foreign engraver for this small work, it has obtained ample recognition from the foreign press and the foreign artist. As far as it goes it is complete, and has a bigness of its own which bears no relation to square inches. Standing half-way across the hall, one is struck by the distinctness with which he sees the whole intent of these subjects, although reduced to eight inches by five, and the expression of little faces. A closer examination would seem impertinent; nevertheless it discovers other charms worth seeking. But it is not from choice that the American engraver confines his efforts to narrow limits; it is his misfortune that the magazines by which his art has been fostered and encouraged in making what advancement it has, remain the only field for its practice; no avenues opening for progress in any other direction.

The recognition of the fact, by some of our engravers, that every art ought to be self-dependent, has led them to do something on their own account, purely for the sake of art, and depend for remuneration upon the sale of prints; and the evidences of this effort on their part rise above the cloud of pretty illustration like a bow of promise to the future of wood-engraving. All the large pictures on these walls, save two engraved by King for *Harper's Weekly*, are owned by the engravers themselves, and were done with the sole purpose of advancement as stated. First of all are the prints of the Portfolio published three years ago, for the Society, by the Harpers. These pictures, twenty-five in number, form the backbone of the Paris exhibit, and, as placed here, run through its entire length, binding it together and sustaining it at a high artistic level. Then comes Kingsley, who is represented by "Silence," after W. B. Baker, "The Old Mill," after J. F. Murphy, "Midsummer," after Daubigny, and "Historic Ground in the Connecticut Valley," and "In the Harbor," both from original paintings. Kruell has his four portraits of Darwin, William Lloyd Garrison, and Wendell Phillips, which were noticed in these columns on their exhibition at the Century Club last month. Miss Powell has "The Resurrection," after La Farge; and French "A Christmas Vigil," from an original. These prints are all of considerable size. Besides these are "The Spring Time of Love," and "White Birches" by Miss Cooper; a landscape by Dana: and "Mrs. Siddons," after Gainsborough, by Johnson, which are only less in dimensions, the merits being quite equal to those of the larger pictures, and the purpose the same, namely, to break through an outgrown environment.

Another hopeful sign here observed is the amount of original work, where painting and engraving are done by one person. Some of this is of great excellence. There is scarcely a better thing in the exhibition than No. 58, an original by French. It were useless to mention each particular contribution to this interesting and beautiful display. They are all included in the general excellence. Notable features are the strength shown by Kingsley's large work and the delicacy of Kruell's, the etcher's quality that seems to grow upon Johnson, and some of King's large work.

The Society of American Wood-Engravers should learn, from the success of the present exhibition, the value, as an educational force in their interest, of establishing in some fitting institution of this city a permanent exhibit of their work, for there are many people who have yet to comprehend the great beauty of their art.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 6, 1890.

The Week.

PRESIDENT HARRISON has rounded off the first year of his Administration by forcing through the Senate the confirmation of ex-Gov. Warmoth as Collector of the Port of New Orleans. This comes as a climax for a series of bad appointments which the President, in open violation of his solemn personal pledges, has been making with mournful regularity for a full twelvemonth. Nothing that he has done has been more inexplicable than his deliberate attempt to restore to political office and activity the most offensive members of the old carpet-bag régime in the Southern States. He made his first trial of this kind with Mahone, and his abject failure to accomplish anything in Virginia by turning over all the Federal patronage of the State to him appears not to have discouraged him in other directions. Mahone and his party were so overwhelmingly defeated in the November elections of last year that the President dropped him without ceremony; but he had previously been cultivating friendly relations with the Warmoth gang in Louisiana, and he did not break those off. As early as August of last year he offered the Collectorship of New Orleans to Warmoth, and nominated him to the Senate a few months later. If he did not know Warmoth's character in August, he had ample opportunity to learn about it before he sent in his name, for the newspapers at once refreshed his memory; but he must have known it well enough to know that a man more totally unfit for high office could not be found in the whole United States. Warmoth's performances between 1868 and 1875 were so scandalous that the country rang with them, and if Gen. Harrison did not know of them, he must have been blind and deaf.

It is not our purpose to give at this time a complete record of Warmoth's career. A few of its more notorious features will suffice. He was Governor of Louisiana between 1868 and 1872, and during that period the State was a pandemonium of scandal and disorder. "That his administration as Governor was corrupt and bad is unfortunately true," said the New York *Tribune* on December 28, 1874, when it was trying to make out a defence of him for killing a man in the streets of New Orleans. "Most of the Louisiana gang were brought into prominence because they were great rascals," said the *Tribune* again on July 12, 1877. Those two Republican judgments accurately sum up Warmoth's career as Governor. He had been charged before becoming Governor with having defrauded the Government while serving as a special cotton agent in the South. He closed his career as Governor in a fitting manner, by being charged by the Lieutenant-Governor of the State with seeking to bribe him, with an offer of $50,000 and unlimited appointments, to give his assistance to Warmoth in the legislative fight with Kellogg after the election of 1872. The Lieutenant-Governor revealed the offer, and Warmoth was impeached for it by the Legislature. After this exploit he disappeared temporarily from the public view. He left the Republican party and joined the Democratic. In the returning-board disputes of 1877 Warmoth reappeared again, first as a Republican and afterwards ratting to the Democrats. Little has been heard of him since till President Harrison took him up, and that little has not been good.

The President has added one more to the portentous list of editors whom he has muzzled with important public office by appointing Charles E. Fitch, editor of the Rochester *Democrat and Chronicle* and Lecturer on the Ethics of Journalism in Cornell University, a Collector of Internal Revenue. We have made no attempt to keep a list of editors of newspapers in smaller cities and towns who have been given post-offices and other minor places in the service, but it is known to be very large. The list of those conducting prominent journals who have received or been offered important offices now stands as follows:

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J. C. Kinney, Associate Editor of the Hartford *Courant*, Postmaster of Hartford.

Charles E. Fitch, Editor of the Rochester *Democrat and Chronicle*, Internal-Revenue Collector for the Twenty-eighth District of New York.

A remarkable tribute has been paid to Mr. Saltonstall, the removed Collector of Boston, by a large number of the most prominent citizens, representing the Republican party as well as the Democratic. They say that they "have observed with cordial approbation and satisfaction your administration of the Boston Custom-house for the past four years"; that they "have seen that, during your tenure of office, the administration of the Custom-house has been, for the first time in a generation, free from partisan influence; that it has been conducted on business principles by business methods, and by men trained in those principles and methods; that it has been just and considerate to importers and entirely faithful to the Government"; that they "have heard nothing of Custom-house influence in caucuses and conventions, except in the way of complaint from persons who desired and demanded that such an influence should be exerted to advance their personal and political ends, and who have not succeeded in obtaining it"; and that "they have seen the national Civil-Service Law faithfully and fully carried out by a collector of customs in full and obvious sympathy with its spirit and purpose, and who has proved himself a loyal supporter of the great cause of civil-service reform." The appointment of his successor seems to them the appropriate occasion for expressing their satisfaction with Mr. Saltonstall's administration in a public and formal manner, and they therefore invite him to meet them at a public dinner. The testimonial will be read with interest by the man who, as candidate, gave a pledge "that fidelity and efficiency should be the sure tenure of office," and who, as President, has removed the most faithful and efficient collector in the country. But will it make any impression on him? Not the smallest. He will probably "lift up a prayer," and go right on in the old way.

So far as we have been able to discover, not a single Republican newspaper in the land has ventured to notice in any way the *Tribune's* remarkable confession that the Republicans bought the Presidency for Harrison in 1888 by selling the Governorship to Hill. Why is this the case? Why do Republican journals show no indignation over such a declaration from such a source? Why do they not denounce it as slanderous and demand its retraction? Is their silence due to a conviction that the statement is true, and that, therefore, the least said about it the better? There can be no other explanation. No great party of moral ideas would consent to remain silent under a charge so damning unless it was convinced that it could not be disproved. In his famous "soap" speech in 1881, the late President Arthur said: "If it were not for the reporters, I would tell you the truth [about Indiana], because I know you are intimate friends and devoted adherents of the Republican party." That meant that, so far as his knowledge went, there was no fear of protest or disapproval from "devoted adherents of the Republican party" over revelations that elections had been bought. His estimate of the moral sense of his party in 1881 best explains the party's silence now in the face of the *Tribune's* confession, as it best explains the confession itself.

Senator Hoar's answer to Senator Blair, when the latter complained of the scant attention given to his ponderous discourse on

the Mendicancy Bill, was exactly to the point. "If a man sits down in his house," said Mr. Hoar, "and prepares a speech three or four weeks before the measure is coming up that it has anything to do with, and gives notice to the Senate that next Thursday he is going to deliver that speech, how can you expect the newspapers of the country to fill their columns, which they want to sell, with productions that cause the desertion of every seat in the Senate except that which belongs to the man who is speaking, and perhaps his colleague, when they are both here?" This was not a mere personal thrust at Mr. Blair, although it served that purpose excellently well. It pointed at the growing practice in both houses of Congress of preparing set speeches and reading them from manuscript, whereby the Senate becomes a sort of academy or lecture-room or "protracted meeting," and, therefore, a very dull place. Such practices are not allowed in the English House of Commons, and that fact may serve to explain (to Senator Hale, for example) why the London press give much more attention to Parliamentary debates than the New York press give to Congressional proceedings. The Parliamentary debates are real debates, not compositions. They produce intellectual friction, with resulting heat, and this is always fresh and interesting.

Real debates in Congress get into the newspapers easily enough. This very debate on the newspapers, started by Blair, was very fully reported and published, because it was interesting matter. His long-winded essay on education was not noticed by the press, because it was intolerably dull, and the editors knew infallibly that the public would not read it, but would upbraid them for inflicting it upon them. Senator Spooner's speech of Monday does not lack publicity. It was fresh and crisp, and although evidently the product of careful study and reflection, as every speech ought to be, was delivered straight from the shoulder without notes. It was the speech of a debater. The reporters and the Senate alike recognized the tone and flavor and gave close attention to it. Contrast this with Mr. Blair's ponderous sermon. Contrast it with the two deliverances of one speech that Senator Vest reminded us of the other day. This was a case where two members of Congress had bought the same speech "unbeknownst" from a literary hack. One of them got "leave to print" from the House, while the other actually delivered it by reading from his desk, and both copies appeared in the same issue of the *Congressional Record*. This, Mr. Vest said, had actually occurred during his period of Senatorial service.

The new silver bill reported by Senator Jones of Nevada, from the Senate Committee on Finance, is as interesting as anything in Darwin's 'Variation of Animals and Plants under Domestication.' It makes the Treasury the purchaser of both gold and silver bullion, the purchases of the former being without limit and at the fixed price of the present standard, while those of the latter are to be at the market price (in gold) and at the rate of $4,500,000 per month. This is about the monthly rate of production of our mines. The bill would therefore open the treasury to the silver-miners to exactly the extent they desire. "At the market price!" What will be the market price when one purchaser takes half of the world's product? Clearly the market price will be much easier to manipulate than it is now. If the Secrétan syndicate had had a steady purchaser for one-half of all the copper produced in the world "at the market price," would they not have been able to make the market price to suit themselves? This is what they did for a long time without such a purchaser. They made the market price for more than a year, while every consumer was scamping as much as possible. This bill is much more objectionable than the Windom bill, for although that measure is bedevilled also with "market price," it has a provision by which the Secretary can, if he is wide awake, protect the Treasury against speculating syndicates. The clause in the Jones bill, making the Treasury a purchaser of gold bullion without limit, at the present standard, is in one sense the equivalent of present law. The mint now takes all the gold offered, and returns coin for it at the standard rate. This bill provides, however, that for the bullion so taken, whether gold or silver, Treasury notes shall be given, and that those notes shall be redeemed in "lawful money," that is, in gold coin, or silver dollars, or greenbacks, at the Government's option. No gold will be offered on such terms. The only meritorious clause in the Jones bill is that which repeals the present law requiring the coinage of $2,000,000 per month.

The extraordinary thing about the presentation of the Dependent Pension Bill scheme in the Senate the other day was the nonchalance with which the chairman of the Pension Committee presented the estimate that it would call for an addition of $35,000,000 a year to the outlay for pensions, already nearly three times that sum. The entire expenses of the United States Government for any one year never reached so large a total as $35,000,000 until the year 1837. Yet, nowadays, Senators talk of spending as much money as it once cost to conduct the Government as though it were a mere trifle hardly worthy serious attention.

There is a deal of waggishness in the newspapers about the duty on steel rails. It appears that the Committee on Ways and Means think that the duty might be reduced to $10 per ton (now $17) without allowing a pound to be imported from abroad, and they are disposed to make this concession on paper—a concession of form without substance, for a duty of $10 is absolutely prohibitory. But the Scranton manufacturers, of course, lift up their hands in horror, and begin to talk about wages and workingmen. So, too, the Philadelphia *Press* begins to shiver, or pretends to. It acknowledges that the price of rails in England is quite as high as it is here, but apprehends that it might decline there, and that then the opportunity of plundering the American consumers of $17 per ton, as they were plundered two or three years ago, would not recur. "A tariff is more needed in times of depression," it says, "than in times of prosperity." Yes, when the people are feeling poor, then is the time to go into their pockets deepest. "From him that hath not, shall be taken even that he hath." The truth is that the best rails are selling in England at £7 5s. ($34 50) per ton, and in this country at $32. The English makers have to bring their Bessemer ores from Spain and the Mediterranean at a constantly increasing cost, and the price of coke is two or three times higher there than here, and there are absolutely no signs of a change in either particular.

Mr. H. K. Thurber has rushed to the defence of the Pittsburgh Plate-Glass Company (which is reported to have paid net profits last year of $950,000) and the 144 per cent. tariff which enabled them to do it, by saying "that while foreign plate-glass was sold to American consumers in 1870 at $2.50 a square foot, in 1889 the same quality of plate-glass, made in America, was sold to American consumers for 85 cents a square foot," and that this result was due to the protection which the tariff afforded to the American plate-glass industry. In so saying Mr. Thurber has got himself into a dilemma from which he will find it not a little difficult to extricate himself. Thus, if it was the beneficial influence of protection that in the years from 1870 to 1889 brought down the cost of plate-glass in the United States from $2.50 to 85 cents per square foot, what was the influence that brought down the cost of this same article during the same year to the same extent in Great Britain and Belgium, where its manufacture has had no protection? On the other hand, if the United States can now sell for 85 cents what costs $2.50 to produce in Europe (which people unlearned in the subject would be likely to infer from Mr. Thurber's statement), why, in the name of common sense, do we want to keep up a duty of 144 per cent. on the importation of plate-glass?

The spoils politicians of both parties continue to unite in opposition to the onward march of ballot reform. The Republican majority of the West Virginia Senate has killed the bill proposed by the Democratic Governor in that State, which was an excellent measure, embodying the leading principles of the Australian system. There is no State in the Union more in need of the reform than West Virginia, chiefly because the Republican managers have made it debatable ground in the recent Presidential election by sending a large corruption fund there. The solid Republican vote in the State Senate against the reform is merely a confession that the party knows that the enactment of the law would put a stop to further operations of the kind. Word comes from New Jersey that the Democratic leaders there are not in earnest in their professions of zeal for the reform, and will either see to it that no reform bill is passed, or that only a

sham measure is allowed to go on the statute-books. In Maryland the Gorman influence has destroyed all hope of the passage of a measure there this year, unless it be one which will help rather than hinder Gorman methods in elections.

Mr. C. F. Peck, whose brilliant reports on the labor question have from time to time shed effulgence upon New York and added to the gayety of nations, has sent a reply to the State Senate in answer to a resolution asking him certain questions about the practical operation of a swindling bill that passed the Legislature a year or two ago, increasing the pay of laborers on the public works and making them a preferred class of wage-workers. Peck says that while he has no specific information, he is decidedly of the opinion that the said law has had the effect to increase the wages of laborers not in the employ of the State. He thinks that this has been brought about by the force of example. The sight of men getting $2 per day from the State is stimulating to a man who is getting only $1.50 from a private employer: it impels him to demand more pay. If Peck had had his ears open during the last campaign, he would put in a very different answer. He would have said that the extra money paid by the State stimulated industry; that it enabled the laborers on public works to buy more goods of every description, and that in this way employment was increased and the whole community made more prosperous. This, we all know, is what taxation at the Custom-house does. Why should not taxation at the State-house do the same?

Senator Stewart has introduced in the Legislature a bill which, if it became a law, would in time work a needed reformation in the police-court bench of this city. It provides that "no person shall be eligible to appointment as police justice unless he shall have previously served as such justice, or unless he shall have been regularly admitted to the bar as an attorney and counsellor-at-law." One would naturally suppose that the latter requirement, admission to the bar, would be taken as a matter of course by the appointing power, but it has not been. In fact, if it had been in force when our present fifteen police justices were appointed, only three of them would have been selected, for only that number of them had ever seen the inside of a law-book at the time. One was a coal-dealer; one had been on the police force; one was a contractor; one was a manufacturer of window-blinds; four were clerks in public offices; one was a produce-dealer; one was an iron-manufacturer; one was a school-teacher; and one had held various political offices, none of which had anything to do with the interpretation of law. Every man of the fifteen was, however, thoroughly saturated with "politics," and in nearly every instance had been or was still the leader or boss of his district. When we consider that for legal talent of this order the city pays $8,000 a year, just double what the national Government pays to its district judges, and nearly as much as it pays to its Supreme Court Justices, it does not seem unreasonable that the standard should be raised a little.

Opinions may differ as to the propriety of Labouchere's bringing up "the West End scandal," as it is called, in Parliament, but there would seem to be little question as to the injudiciousness of the way he has been disposed of by suspension. Much as he may be distrusted or disliked by thoughtful politicians and by "good society," the Radicals, and especially the working-class Radicals, have great confidence in him and admiration for him. His constituents, the Northampton shoemakers, adore him, and his weekly exposures of the sins and follies of high life in *Truth* make him a much more formidable personage than if he were simply a member of the House. That the aristocratic actors in the scandal have all escaped to parts unknown is a good thing for the community, as their flight means ruin, and their trial would have been in many ways a public misfortune. But the belief has, rightly or wrongly, got abroad that they received notice in time to fly, from some one in authority, with Lord Salisbury's connivance or at his instigation. Of this Labouchere says he has some sort of proof, in the shape of information from some highly placed person, whose name he offered to communicate on paper to the Attorney-General, who was put up in the House to oppose him on behalf of the Government and Lord Salisbury.

It would seem at this distance to have been the best policy to let him blurt out all he knew, name and everything, and then treat the whole affair with as much contempt as it could fairly be made to bear. Instead of this, the Attorney-General, Sir Richard Webster, one of the most aggravating and least convincing of orators, already much discredited by his disingenuousness in the Pigott affair, met him with a simple denial on behalf of Lord Salisbury, and refused to consider what Labouchere had to offer by way of proof. Now, Lord Salisbury, although a very great personage, is well known to be weak on the side of veracity. He has been guilty more than once of what may be called great public falsehoods. His denial, consequently, of any matter likely to discredit him does not carry conviction. When Labouchere refused to receive it as satisfactory, he had the sympathy and approval of the whole body of Radicals, and was secretly justified in the eyes of nearly every man in the House of Commons. The very best thing to have done with him, when he declined to believe Lord Salisbury, was to call him to order and reprimand him. To ask him to retract, and, on his refusal, suspend him, was a huge mistake, and probably the very thing he likes. He is now a martyr, and all England has been set talking about his secret, and will keep talking until he has had an opportunity to blurt it out. Not only the Northampton shoemakers, but the Radical voters all over England, will believe that he has been suspended because the Government and Lord Salisbury did not dare to face his revelations.

Besides Austria and Italy, France and England, nearly all the smaller European Powers have agreed to attend the German Emperor's Labor Conference. The small Powers always like to be asked to a conference of any kind, because it is a sort of recognition of their equality, which is grateful. But there is probably not one of them which expects any practical results from the discussion. There is nothing which the European Powers could agree on to help laborers except the reduction of the huge standing armies. These enormous armaments constitute the only burden on Labor which it is in the power of the governments to remove, and yet probably any such reduction is the last thing the Emperor William thinks of. But the occasion might be turned to good account if the small Powers were to join in a vigorous protest against the size of the German, Austrian, Russian, and French armies. These armies are eating the heart out of their respective countries, and have led to the protectionist experiments under which France, Germany, and Italy are now groaning. The Socialists are fully aware of this fact, and will not let it be forgotten when the Conference is sitting.

The long report on the financial position of Brazil put forth at the end of last December by Minister Barbosa is a good deal of a polemic against the fiscal policy of the Empire. The most serious allegations are of juggling bookkeeping and of underhanded expedients to keep up foreign exchange and the quotations of Brazilian bonds. Quite aside from all this, however, certain parts of Ruy Barbosa's report are of great significance as a protest against the tendency to public "prodigality, which appears to exercise such deep and fatal attraction in our day upon the policy of democracies." If the Minister of Finance correctly represents the drift of the new Brazilian Republic, his words are of much promise when he says: "Let us energetically prune expenses. Let us eliminate useless departments. Let us contract the orbit of officialism. Let us strengthen and improve administration, directing scrupulously the filling of State offices by competency, by merit, by capacity. Let us not multiply pensions, which drop by drop may grow into torrents of ruinous expense. Let us fly from republican favoritism, the immoral and fatal transformation of the old monarchical nepotism. Let us not continue in force, under the new situation, the habits of a nation of place-hunters." Referring to the countless schemes for internal improvement and for agricultural development which had received public sanction and monetary aid from the Empire, Minister Barbosa says that while, of course, the Republic will be bound to execute the contracts entered into under Dom Pedro, it will be against the best interests of the nation to continue that sort of "gross and foolish State socialism." Brazil is not the only country where there is need of having such frank utterances by public men.

STIRRING UP STRIFE.

THREE weeks ago W. B. Saunders, a deputy marshal of the United States Court in Florida, was shot dead from the side of the road one afternoon while out driving, everything indicating that the act was done deliberately, in pursuance of a plot to put him out of the way. It will doubtless seem a harsh thing to say, but no candid person can read the history of the proceedings in the Federal courts of Florida which preceded this shooting, without the conviction that they were calculated to lead to exactly such an outbreak of violence against an officer of the court. Judge Settle, the former District Judge of the United States for the Northern District of Florida, died early in December, 1888, and the Republican Senate during the following year refused to confirm the nomination made by Mr. Cleveland to fill the vacancy, in order to reserve the appointment for a Republican President. Some weeks after Mr. Harrison's accession he named for the place Charles Swayne, but the nomination has not to this day been confirmed. Mr. Swayne was a comparatively briefless lawyer, who went to Florida from Philadelphia but a few years ago, and was not even a member of the bar of the court over which he was placed as presiding officer. To make matters worse, he went upon the bench fresh from the disappointments of a political defeat, to hold a court in which some of those who had opposed him were to be tried. The District Attorney, J. N. Stripling, is described as "a man who had been making a bare living as a lawyer, was at enmity with the people of his own town and county, eager for the profits and emoluments of his office, and ready to use it to gratify his grievances against his old neighbors."

The Northern District of Florida is divided into three divisions, and the system had been to hold terms in each division of the district—one at Jacksonville, in the eastern division; one at Tallahassee, in the middle division; and one at Pensacola, in the western division. Tallahassee is by rail 166 miles from Jacksonville, and Pensacola is 203 miles from Tallahassee, making it 369 from Jacksonville. These divisions were established by a rule of court made by the former district judge, and the rule was based upon acts of Congress establishing these terms of the court for the trial of offences in the part of the State where they were committed. Without any motion made in open court, without any notice to anybody, without any public announcement of such action, this rule of court was secretly set aside on July 2, 1889. It was further ordered at the same time and in the same manner that the Commissioner be intrusted with the power of determining the times and places to which all criminal process and bonds should be returnable, without regard to the nearest terms of the court, either with reference to time or place.

The Federal Jury Law which was approved June 30, 1879, provides "that all such jurors, grand and petit, including those summoned during the session of the court, shall be publicly drawn from a box containing at the time of each drawing the names of not less than three hundred persons possessing the qualifications prescribed in section 800 of the Revised Statutes, which names shall have been placed therein by the clerk of such court and a commissioner, to be appointed by the judge thereof, which commissioner shall be a citizen of good standing, residing in the district in which such court is held, and a well-known member of the principal political party in the district in which the court is held opposing that to which the clerk may belong, the clerk and said commissioner each to place one name in said box alternately, without reference to party affiliations, until the whole number required shall be placed therein." At the same time that the changes regarding places of trial were made, the old Jury Commissioner—appointed by Judge Settle, a Republican—was removed and one Farnell was appointed in his place. The clerk of the court being a Republican, the Federal law required that the commissioner should be "a well-known member of the principal political party in the district opposing that to which the clerk may belong"—that is, in this case, a recognized and representative Democrat. But so far from being a recognized Democrat, Farnell was a leader in an independent movement in his county against the Democratic party at the last election, and had previously been elected to the Legislature by the Independents largely through the support of the Republicans.

A special term of the court was called to meet at Jacksonville in October. An examination of the list of grand jurors showed that twenty-two out of the twenty-three drawn and summoned were Republicans. Some of these were absent and their places were filled, not, as required by the Jury Law, by drawing the names from the jury-box, but by summoning Republicans from among the bystanders. A flood of light is thrown upon the methods by which such a result was brought about through the publication of the following letter, the authenticity of which is admitted by its writer:

> JACKSONVILLE, Fla., July 5, 1889.
> SIR: You will at once confer with Mr. Bulby and make out a list of fifty or sixty names of true and tried Republicans from your county registration list for jurors, United States Court, and forward same to Hon. P. Walter, Clerk United States Court, and it is necessary to have them at once, as you can see. Please acknowledge this. I am, yours truly,
> JOHN R. MIZELL, U. S. Marshal.
> C. C. KIRK, Esq., De Land, Fla.
>
> Please get the names of the parties as near steamboat and railroad stations as possible.

Before such a court, so officered and so conducted, were brought to Jacksonville persons indicted for offences committed in or near Tallahassee, 166 miles away, where, under Judge Settle, such cases had been tried, and even from Pensacola, nearly 400 miles away, where, under Judge Settle, they would have stood trial. In one instance two prominent business men of Tallahassee were served suddenly with warrants citing them to appear the next day before a United States Commissioner at Jacksonville, on a charge of despoiling Government timber lands, although there were two United States Commissioners in Tallahassee before whom their cases would regularly and properly have come. In another case a poor man who drives a milk wagon in Tavares, and who used to carry letters to his neighbors from the Post-office as a matter of accommodation, was arrested on the charge of violating the postal laws in so doing, and ordered to appear for trial before the court at Jacksonville. Of course there was a great deal of money for the court officers in such proceedings, and an incomplete statement furnished by the Attorney-General shows an expenditure of about $10,000 a month for witnesses' fees and fees of jurors and officers from October to February.

Saunders, the man who was killed, had proved his unfitness for the duties intrusted to him in a case which occurred about a year ago, the story of which is thus told: "He had in his hands a warrant for the arrest of one Brownell, who was accused of violating the internal-revenue law. He went out in the night-time, after having had several drinks of whiskey, to the house of this man, who lived in a little cabin in Holmes County. He entered the man's house without notifying him of his warrant or stating what his purpose was, and after stationing Mr. Weller, who was the internal-revenue officer and who had accompanied him, at the back door to intercept Brownell in case he should attempt to escape. . . . Brownell was resting quietly with his family. Alarmed at this invasion, not knowing that it was for any particular purpose, his first thought was that he was being attacked by enemies, and he jumped from his bed and ran to the back door, taking up as he went his gun. When he got out to the back door there was young Weller to intercept him. Supposing he also was engaged in a plot to rob or murder him, he killed Weller and took to the swamp and remained there till the next day."

That so flagrant a prostitution of the processes of justice to the purposes of private gain and partisan advantage should have provoked the people of Florida, until some reckless fellow went so far as to shoot Saunders, is not to be wondered at. It would be impossible to devise a system more cunningly contrived to provoke trouble and stimulate reprisals. The blood of Saunders rests upon the politicians who made him the instrument of their schemes.

The worst feature of this whole business is the suspicion, which it is impossible to avoid, that the Republican politicians really want to stir up just such difficulties as this; that they like to have an occasional Saunders murdered at the South, in order to "fire the Northern heart"; in short, that they are making a last desperate effort to revive the old sectional issue, and escape the new tariff issue, which they dread. How otherwise can one account for such performances as have just been recounted?

PROTECTION AND THE COLLEGES.

IN his report as Chairman of the Committee appointed to inspect the department of Political Economy at Harvard, Mr. John T. Morse, jr., utters an emphatic and apparently despairing protest against the wickedness of the course adopted by that institution towards the doctrine of protection.

So far as his strictures involve an imputation upon the fairness of those intrusted with the selection of instructors in this department, they seem to be sufficiently answered by the dignified and vigorous minority report of Mr. Henry W. Putnam. We need not, therefore, enter into any special discussion of the situation at Harvard College; but Mr. Morse's remarks remind us how familiar the like situation is in the colleges of all parts of the country.

What really troubles Mr. Morse—as it does his protectionist friends in the neighborhood of other colleges—is "the graduation every year of an almost solid phalanx of free-traders"; and he is not disposed to accept as ingenuous the explanation which defenders of the College authorities offer of this phenomenon. The instructors, say these defenders, do not undertake to dictate conclusions as to practical policy; they do endeavor to give the student such a grasp of principles and modes of thought, and such a command of the main facts of the case, as will make them competent to arrive at an intelligent conclusion themselves. Now, it is very hard for Mr. Morse to believe that a training of this kind can possibly have the effect of turning out an "almost solid phalanx" of young men opposed to our present protective policy; and it may therefore be worth while to point out some of the reasons why this effect is really a natural one.

The grounds upon which men honestly uphold protection may be divided into three great classes. The first class has reference to the immediate material benefit supposed to be gained by the nation which practises protection. Of "plain men," probably nine out of ten rest their faith in the benefits of protection upon the propositions that it "keeps the money in the country," and that it makes wages high by furnishing employment to native workers. Glaring fallacies like these—views which ignore the elementary fact that we cannot buy unless we sell, that we cannot employ foreign workmen unless we employ American workmen to produce the wherewithal for our side of the bargain—are of course dispelled at the first touch of rational method. No professor, protectionist or free-trader, German or English or American, would give such crudities and absurdities the countenance of his support. This alone goes a great way towards accounting for the change that takes place in a student's attitude towards the question; for whatever may be the actual merits of the case, a dangerous reaction is sure to set in when a young man suddenly perceives that the arguments by which, at home and in the streets and in the newspapers, he has been most accustomed to see it maintained, are so hollow and worthless. It is true that these shallow delusions do not constitute the whole of the argument which the protectionist makes, even on the point of immediate material benefit; but the more refined arguments on this head—even if we were to grant that they are not merely more complex forms of the same fallacy—have never formed a strong contingent to the protectionist's forces.

The second class of arguments comprises those which bear upon the future material benefit of protective duties; they are summarized in the phrase "protection to infant industries." Now, there was a time when this consideration was extremely influential in forming men's opinions on the subject. Whatever might be the force of the objections to this policy, it had at least the merit of not resting on a palpable delusion. Wise men might see the difficulty of making the policy effective, might point out the exorbitance of the price paid for the nurture of these infants, might foresee the certainty with which what was food for one would turn out to be poison for another; but reasonable men could believe, and did believe, that the price was not too high and that the benefits of the policy were not neutralized by its injuries. But the day of the "infant industries" argument is past; if for no other reason, because the very phrase cannot fail to provoke a smile in these days of giant manufacturing interests. We venture to say that no Harvard professor pronounces the "infant industries" argument intrinsically an absurdity; but he would have to be a very enthusiastic propagandist for protection to give the argument any vitality in the minds of open-eyed young Americans of to-day.

Finally, we come to the third class of arguments, those which are not strictly economic, but rather sociological. Unfortunately for protectionists, these also have been sadly weakened by time. It may have been all very well thirty or forty years ago to raise the cry that with free trade we must all be a nation of farmers, that we must introduce diversified industries by protection, and the rest of it. We are heartily convinced that the notion was erroneous always; but be that as it may, who is going to be stirred by such a cry now? With agriculture depressed and farms deserted, with the sudden and rapid increase of all the evils which we used to regard as confined to the great cities of the Old World, who is to be moved to dread the possible result of withdrawing some of the artificial stimulus which, according to its own advocates, is designed to encourage the pursuit of non-agricultural industries?

We must touch upon one more point raised by Mr. Morse. He cannot believe that there can be any difficulty in procuring thoroughly competent professors who shall be advocates of protection. We believe that what has been said above may serve in a measure to explain why that difficulty does exist now, in a greater degree than in former years. It was never possible for a clear-minded and trained professor of economics to countenance the notions still so current among the people as to the elements of the question; he had to support protection by more subtle considerations, and as a policy designed for more refined and distant uses than those which the wayfaring man looks upon as its purpose. These remoter considerations have lost much of whatever force they once had. But there is still another cause for their breakdown. High protection has now held sway in this country for a quarter of a century; and it has never been guided or inspired by any ascertainable principle except that of imposing on everything as high a duty as the public would by any possibility tolerate. We have not witnessed the spectacle of an assembly of disinterested statesmen at Washington impartially considering the comparative "infancy" of different industries, or the comparative necessity to our social well-being of this or that branch of productive enterprise. We have been witnessing all along a game of grab; and all talk about fine adjustments of complicated industrial matters through such means must strike a common-sense American as mere moonshine. And so we found, in the campaign of 1888, that Prof. Francis Bowen, the most eminent advocate of protection in New England, replied to an invitation to address a Republican meeting by a letter which rivalled, in its denunciation of the present tariff, the most vigorous attacks which were made upon it by any Democrat in that campaign. If Mr. Morse will consider how great must have been the force of that "logic of events" which had driven this able and venerable exponent of protection into the opposite camp, he will perhaps be able to believe that Harvard College chooses her professors of economics purely on the ground of ability, and that nevertheless they turn out an "almost solid phalanx" of tariff-reformers.

A SUGGESTION FOR SUMMER.

Mr. N. J. Bachelder, the industrious Commissioner of Agriculture and Immigration for the State of New Hampshire, has now published the complete pamphlet concerning abandoned farms within the limits of that State, advanced sheets of which have been noticed already in these columns. Mr. Bachelder says: "The wealth and population of New Hampshire are annually increasing, as well as the product of the agricultural and manufacturing industries, the leading interests of the State." He points out that the average amount of savings-banks deposits for each depositor in the State is larger than in any other part of New England excepting Rhode Island, where a few individual deposits of extraordinary magnitude disturb the comparison. "According to the report of the State Board of Agriculture, the value of the live-stock in New Hampshire has increased half-a-million dollars annually for the past two years, and farm improvements have increased in about the same degree." The State is "annually advancing in agricultural interest and methods," there is "a constantly increasing demand for farm products of all kinds," for which "the prices paid correspond with the prices in the Boston market, and are cash sales at the farmers' doors."

Nevertheless, there are reported to the State authorities by the Selectmen of the various towns 1,442 abandoned farms with tenantable buildings, the descriptions and prices of which, as offered for sale, are embraced in the Commissioner's very interesting pamphlet. Mr. Bachelder says: "Many of the abandoned farms are more desirable at the present time than when they became

vacated, by the extension of railroads, the establishment of creameries, and the rapid development of the summer-boarding industry throughout the State." Under these circumstances one naturally expects the Commissioner to say, as he does say, "Doubtless the question arises, why are these farms vacated when circumstances seem so favorable to their occupancy?" To this he makes various answers; there are many reasons why good farms in New Hampshire have been abandoned. We have already dwelt upon the economic side of this question. At present we pass that by for another consideration, which, indeed, is not, as most things are not, altogether without weight on the economic side, but has no direct concern with it.

We do not believe that Mr. Bachelder or anybody else can get farmers of any nationality whatsoever to take up the abandoned lands of his State as means of livelihood by all-the-year-round labor, and we must think the official efforts to that end in New Hampshire, as well as in Vermont and in other like cases, to be ill-directed. But there are persons of larger capital and keener sense and finer taste than the Swedish or Norwegian immigrants, who may be induced to buy these lands, and who will get out of them more real profit in three or four months than the most arduous labor in the farming line could reap in a year, or in several years, demonstrating thereby the mathematical paradox that a part is greater than the whole. We mean the inhabitants of towns who should take up these so-called waste places for their abodes of summer recreation. There are enough of such persons, we believe, to occupy just in this way all of New England that may be had for such purpose, if only they knew where and how to accomplish it, and if they knew how little it would cost each of them to own a real country-place full of natural beauty, a paradise for children, with convenient means of wholesome living, secluded, yet not cut off from the necessaries or even the conveniences of life. It is incredible, almost, that so many people should be willing to spend the summer in close rooms when they might have, at no more expense, a commodious house and all out-doors besides, with entire freedom or chosen companionship at their will, and the sense of proprietorship in fields and streams and woods and hills which in almost every every class of society is one of the deepest and longest abiding pleasures.

Take, for example, a farm offered in the township of Albany in Carroll County, to which for our purpose we give this free advertisement: 200 acres (in the Swift River valley it must be, or very near it), under the shadow of Chocorua, that queen among hills, a mountain of the very first rank in beauty and distinction, though not in altitude. Two hundred acres of land, a hundred and fifty in "wood and timber," the rest in mowing and pasture; a house of seven rooms, with a "barn 25x40"—for $500, or about the cost of the fortnight's trip of a small family along the St. Lawrence and the Saguenay. This is the price, moreover, for part cash; no doubt the property could be got for something less down on the nail. A railway station is but five miles distant, a post-office only three-quarters of a mile away, and the neighbors are Chocorua, Paugus, Passaconaway, and Wonnalancet. There is not a doctor, lawyer, or clergyman in the town, and there is but one shopkeeper—or was, for we fancy he has moved away; yet in any extremity Conway neighborhood provides everything necessary. De Quincey's mother, in her quest for a home in England, insisted upon five qualifications—"good medical advice somewhere in the neighborhood, first-rate means of education, elegant society, agreeable scenery," and "a Church of England parish clergyman, strictly orthodox, faithful to the articles of the English Church, yet to these articles as interpreted by evangelical divinity" We have explained that, supposing them to be insisted upon, these qualifications are not all to be found in Albany township; but Conway may afford the good medical advice and perhaps the clergyman reasonably answering to requirement, society may be imported, if it be wanted, the scenery is most agreeable, and as for means of education, our suggestions apply only to the vacation season.

To consider more curiously, taking this very case, having bought the estate for $500 or less, very little more need be expended for furnishing; a few things, like beds, must be of the very best, everything else better for being severely plain and even cheap. Most becoming on the floors is the sweet simplicity of rag-carpets. The entire quantity of articles which must be permanent in the country-house may be brought within very small cost, everything else needful for comfort being brought up from the house in town. Not more than one man-servant would be required, for the stable and odd jobs, since in such a situation of simple ease there is no need to keep up a place; not only is there nothing to keep it "up" to, but trimness and care are even unseemly; no thing is so fitting as the careless beauty of the wild growths that gather about it from the time of spring flowers till the glory of the golden-rod invests it in midsummer. Such a place will need not more than two or three house-servants in order to be very comfortable within doors; the "barn 25x40" will accommodate two or three horses, which (or, as we prefer to say in speaking of horses, who) can be transported, with the sufficient single groom and such heavy household stuff as may require conveyance, by rail, at a cost of no more than from $50 to $75. Upon such slight small scale of expense our client will find himself completely set up for the summer campaign, with something like wonder as the time goes on at the little outlay required as the price of so much comfort and pleasure. He will not have everything he wants to the last detail—one does not go out of town for that, at least not to many places—but he will have all the necessaries of life about him, and find perhaps a new and unexpected delight in limiting himself to them, while for other things it is not much to drive five miles, at which cost most of them may be had. They are sordid but imperative considerations, these about the means of mere living, yet they must not be allowed to impose overmuch care; the case is one in which the Apostle's dictum must be reversed, for here the things which are not seen are temporal, but the things which are seen are eternal. One is obliged to study ways of living, but in such beautiful retreats it is truer than elsewhere that it is not all of life to live. With food and raiment and needful shelter, all other things will be added to a man of taste dwelling in the Swift River valley.

"The bearings of this observation lays in the application on it." Millionaires need no hints from anybody about the spending of money, but a large number of persons of moderate means pass this present time of every year in small agonies over the disposition of the approaching summer leisure, and the necessary pecuniary provision for it. Before this great company we bring the appeal of the New Hampshire State authorities, not altogether in the manner which they intend, but giving a new direction to it, which may be more practical, more promising, and more profitable than any which they have thought of. Much travel in the country under notice, and some observation of living in such conditions as are here outlined, prompt a wholesome confidence in recommending the experiment here sketched out, to any persons having taste for comparative remoteness and the unfaltering companionship of nature.

It is not only the mountain region which is offered in fee simple by the New Hampshire authorities; the range of selection runs from Rockingham to Coös, and east and west through hill and plain, meadow, woodland, and lake country. No slightest variation of fancy can remain unsatisfied by choice among the opportunities here afforded, and in the case which we have cited the distances from railway and village conveniences is rather above than below the average.

NO NEW CHARTER NEEDED.

THERE could hardly be at this moment a better illustration of the way to waste public money than the investigation into city government which is to be set on foot here this week by a committee of the State Senate. There is nothing to be found out about city government which is not already well known. The forty questions which the Committee is said to be addressing to the Mayors of various cities within the State will bring in nothing new. There is no public question which has received so much discussion during the past quarter of a century as municipal government. There is no subject of legislation in which so many experiments have been tried as city charters. If we remember rightly, we are now in this city living under the eleventh since 1846. There is hardly any division or source of power, hardly any system of checks or balances, which we have not tried. The result, worked out after much tribulation, is that we have in New York and Brooklyn two excellent charters, against

which there is but little to be said, and under which any city in the world might be happy and prosperous. So that although the Committee may hear a great many witnesses and receive a great many letters, they will not come across materials for any new plan of city government, or for any serious amendment of the plan now in use.

Why, then, it may be asked, is not the city better governed? Simply because the offices are not filled by the right men, and for this there is no legislative remedy. The Legislature has given the voters of this city every reasonable opportunity to secure good municipal service. It has done in this direction as much as any Legislature could do, or has done in any country. If, therefore, the municipal government be not now good, it is the fault of those who live under it.

We are constantly told, and truly told, that a municipality is, to all intents and purposes, a business corporation. It is an association of neighbors to tax themselves in order to secure clean, well-paved, and well-lighted streets, good police, good criminal justice, good education for the children of the community, efficient means of extinguishing fires, and cheap and well-regulated means of intramural locomotion. It therefore resembles in many ways a great railroad or great trust company. Its success, like that of all corporations, depends on the manner in which it is officered.

Now, suppose a great business corporation, charged with very complicated duties, were started here to-morrow. What would the public think of its chance of success, what would its chance of success be, if the stockholders went out to Harlem Lane and took for its president a young, and unknown, and slenderly educated sporting man out of a trotting-wagon; went to an obscure law firm, and took the junior partner, even more obscure than the firm, and made him their counsel; went to a school-teacher and made him their architect and gardener, and put him in charge of their building and transportation and stables; went to an old politician, who had never followed any regular calling, and made him their cashier; went to a liquor-dealer, and made him their janitor; and went to the City Hall Park, and made up their list of clerks from the occupants of the benches on a sunny day? Suppose, in addition to this, the stockholders at every meeting, instead of looking into the affairs of the company, seeing how the officers did their duty, whether the business was prospering, and how it could be improved, were to spend the time fighting with each other in order to get dependents, who were incapable of earning their livelihood elsewhere, put on the pay-roll, and were to threaten the President with dismissal for not making places for old drunkards, and cripples, and bummers. Suppose all these things: would not the public be very much amused if, when this company began to show signs of insolvency, the stockholders were to say that its miserable plight was all due to defects in the corporation law of the State, and that with an amended charter they could undoubtedly make money?

Now, this, or something very like this, is what is going on in this city. There is no mystery whatever about its bad government. Any newsboy can lay his finger on the person responsible for any particular abuse. If things are going wrong in the District Attorney's office, it is because in 1887 we, with our eyes open, elected a notoriously unfit person to fill that place. If they are going wrong in the Board of Public Works, or in the Mayor's office, or in the Corporation Counsel's office, or in the Health Board, or in the Civil-Service Board, or in the Street-Cleaning Department, it is simply because we chose, also with our eyes open, to expel from the Mayoralty two Mayors in succession, chosen from the ranks of leading business men—the kind of Mayors all cities of the civilized world have, or ought to have—and put in their place a young man of no prominence, and of whom we knew very little, and that little, for public purposes, not good, well aware that he had the power to fill all our chief offices, and having every reason to expect that he would fill them, with his own cronies, in disregard of the public interest. If the Senate Committee will find out why "Ed" Hagan was made Deputy Street-Cleaning Commissioner, they will have the whole secret of municipal misgovernment before them. But they will find that, far from being a secret, it is an old story.

We defy any one to-day to suggest a change in the charter which will improve our condition. We played our last card when we gave the Mayor absolute power of appointment. The responsibility for the condition of the city was then thrown on the people. They had not begun to feel it, apparently, when they committed the egregious folly of letting Grant creep in between Hewitt and Erhardt. They have, we believe, begun to feel it now. The loss of the Fair will help to bring it home to them. Their Tammany tyrants, had that pageant taken place, would have hidden their misdeeds under the shadow of Columbus's great name. They must now face the world in their own proper garments, and we cannot help thinking the public will know its lesson better in 1892. Decent people who want to live in a decent city are in a majority here, and can take care of themselves perfectly, if they are determined to do it, under the present charter.

SCHOOLS OF JOURNALISM.

THE *Journalist*, a professional organ, has, owing to the continued silence of the "Professors of Journalism," undertaken to tell what is or can be taught in "schools of journalism." It says:

> "The editor of the *Evening Post* must know that there are technicalities of newspaper work which could be taught in a school of journalism, and he must know equally well that none of the existing 'schools' would be guilty of inculcating the ideas so cynically referred to. There are certain technical details which could as well be learned in a school of journalism as in a newspaper office. The sizes of type, methods of condensation, certain tricks of writing head lines and preparing copy, the use or avoidance of words and expressions, the mechanical possibilities and limitations of newspaper work, together with what might be termed 'journalistic ethics,' would form but a small portion of an advantageous special course which would have no bearing upon the degree B. A.
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> "Not long ago a very bright young fellow, a graduate of President Eliot's own college, said to the editor of the *Journalist* that he had worked several weeks in a newspaper office before he had any idea of what the mysterious order, 'Write a stickful,' meant. The burden of teaching these details, which are, to the veteran, second nature, comes upon the already overworked city editor, and the fact that he is often overworked prevents him from filling the office of instructor very graciously."

The "sizes of type" can be learned in a composing-room, by any one, not a born natural, in about half an hour. "Methods of condensation" are, or ought to be, taught in all colleges by the professor of rhetoric. They are simply what is known in diplomacy as "précis writing." "Tricks of writing headlines" had better not be taught anywhere. They are among the worst "tricks of the trade." Headlines are often made to contain the most shameful falsehoods, misrepresentations, and innuendoes known to "journalism." A proper head-line is simply descriptive. "Preparing copy" for the press is or ought to be taught in all colleges. The same thing is to be said of "the use or avoidance of words and expressions." This is part of all good college courses in rhetoric. "The mechanical possibilities and limitations of newspaper work" can be learned in any newspaper office in two or three days—a week at the outside. As to "journalistic ethics," if they differ from the ordinary ethics of social and domestic life, they ought not to be taught to any young man. If they are the ordinary ethics of social and domestic life, no young man who has not learned them ought to be admitted to any kind of "school" except that of a well-conducted jail or penal reformatory. "The very bright young fellow" who was weeks in a newspaper office before he knew what "write a stickful" meant, would be a very silly young fellow if he went to sit under a "Professor" at a "School," in order to find out. You might as well set up a school to teach the technique or slang of any calling.

The truth is, that the mystery which the professors try to throw round what they call "journalism" is intended simply to supply a decent disguise for the intellectual poverty and nakedness of too many of the young men who enter the calling. They keep up their self-respect, or their conceit, in the absence of all other knowledge, by their knowledge of little office tricks, most of them mechanical. No man is proud of knowing what "write a stickful" means, who knows much else. The harm "schools of journalism" do is largely in giving this kind of knowledge a ridiculous importance.

The attacks of the Philadelphia *Press* on President Eliot for some very proper remarks on the conduct of some newspaper proprietors in employing "bright young fellows," without reference to their character and capacity, furnish as good an illustration as we could desire of the soundness of our position on this matter. He condemned some paper for taking into employment four young men, presumably dunces, who had been expelled from college for disgraceful offences. For this, and other remarks of the same sort, the Philadelphia *Press*, or one of its writers, has been assailing him fiercely. Now this very *Press*, about a year ago, printed in its Sunday edition two or three columns of illustrated biography of the seven London prostitutes killed by "Jack the Ripper." Some time before that it printed a similar biography of a well-known colored prostitute of Philadelphia. Of course the text and illustrations, in both cases, were simply a mass of filthy mendacity. The gentleman who paid for this disgusting stuff has gone to Russia as Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the clergy and laity of the United States and

of Elder Harrison of the First Presbyterian Church of Indianapolis. But does any one suppose that the actual compounders of it were scholars and gentlemen? By no means. Newspapers which lay such things before their readers have to employ, if not "drunkards, thieves, deadbeats, and bummers," men who have somehow lost their self-respect, and are on the high-road to one or other of these seductive categories.

REPORT OF THE PARNELL COMMISSION.

DUBLIN, February 15, 1890.

WE have now before us the report of the "Special Commission to inquire into the charges and allegations made against certain Members of Parliament and other persons, by the defendants in the recent trial of an action entitled O'Donnell v. Walter and another." The judges constituting the Commission had, of course, nothing to do with its institution, the references, or their own appointment. They clear the ground by saying:

"We must leave it for politicians to discuss, and for statesmen to determine, in what respects the present laws affecting land in that country are capable of improvement; and we must confine our researches to the question whether the respondents, or any of them, have been guilty of things charged and alleged against them. We have no commission to consider whether the conduct of which they are accused can be palliated by the circumstances of the time, or whether it should be condoned in consideration of benefits alleged to have resulted from their actions."

The judges appear to me to have done their duty well on the whole, their review of the evidence and their conclusions seeming fair according to my own impressions of the events of the last twelve years. I question, however, Mr. Davitt having "established and joined in the Land League organization with the intention by its means to bring about the absolute independence of Ireland as a separate nation." He may have deemed that result neither impossible nor undesirable, but I believe he was actuated mainly by a desire to rescue the mass of his fellow-countrymen from the immediate miseries of their condition.

I need not summarize the "conclusions"—they have of course been telegraphed to you. They have been received with delight by the *Freeman's Journal*. The *Daily Express*, Mr. Balfour's leading organ in Dublin, seems equally well satisfied. The *Times* itself writes:

"The entire system of the League, as described in 'Parnellism and Crime,' is to be traced in the report; and if on certain points we are held not to have established our statements, the general effect remains unshaken. . . . But there are important political deductions to be drawn from them, and we shall be surprised if, when the report has been studied by the country, it will not be accepted as completely confirming the arguments we urged at the momentous crisis nearly three years ago."

In considering the "conclusions" we should of course estimate the proportion of each charge, whether proved or disproved, to the whole volume of forces by which the Land League and National League movements were impelled. On this point the judges do not, nor could they, assist us. All must admit the great power of a movement extending over such wide areas, calling into play such various forces, working through instruments so different and arousing passions so strong. When, therefore, it is found that "the respondents did enter into a conspiracy by a system of coercion and intimidation," that they did "disseminate the *Irish World* and other newspapers tending to incite to sedition and the commission of other crime"; that "the respondents did defend persons charged with agrarian crime, and supported their families"; that they "made payments to compensate persons who had been injured in the commission of crime"—before estimating general culpability we should know what proportion these trangressions, if such they were, bore to the entire scope, extent, and character of the struggle.

It would be idle to contend that the agitation was one of purely moral force. To condemn it on the whole on account of the above findings would be to condemn a righteous revolution because not entirely free from objectionable elements. No doubt "terrible responsibility" has been incurred in the course of the movement. Ireland and her leaders and all concerned fully accept their responsibility. All other means to effective reform had been tried. Those who had given their lives to the investigation of the land question, those who best understood its importance to Ireland, saw no chance of really remedial measures. Those who most despaired of awakening the mind and conscience of England on the home-rule question, most fully realized the depth of degradation to which the present system of government was dragging the country. Moral force had proved ineffective. Recourse to arms was impossible. Was Ireland to sit down hopeless and despised, the sport of the *Times* and the English "comics"? Another has been added to the countless lessons afforded by history, that outraged human nature must sooner or later find some means to vindicate itself.* Parnell and his party, like Columbus with the egg, accomplished "the impossible." And if there was some ugly work in the process, work from which many men of keen sensibilities shrank, we have its best vindication in the result (though possibly a Nemesis awaits us on account of some of the means): ten years ago, land reform declared impossible, peasant proprietary an *ignis fatuus;* today, Irish rents in half the tenant holdings reduced 20 per cent., 11,000 peasant proprietors already constituted, step by step concessions gained far beyond first demands; at present all parties seeking the best means of placing the largest possible amount of the land of Ireland in possession of the occupiers; and where before not a single English member supported home rule, Mr. Gladstone and his party now pledged to its establishment.

Was it a crime that Parnell and his party, true representatives of Irish feeling, ostracised none and were willing to work with every party? The iron had so entered into men's souls here that all who were against England were regarded as friends. Union could be effected only by the policy adopted. Ten years ago the different factions dominant in Ireland were united in common hatred of England. Now they are united in consent to union with her. The extremists have not converted Parnell, but he has converted them. The *Times* admits to-day: "The matters with which the Commissioners have dealt are as strictly questions of fact as any ever submitted to a jury, and have no more to do with politics than the Rule of Three." Had it all along acted upon that view of the case, we should have been saved a world of trouble.

The report affirms nothing with which we were not already acquainted. What could the *Times* and its party do with their verdict, even if altogether in their favor? Would it be to their interest, the interest of England, to break down the present leaders and the present movement? Would they prefer the sullen hatred of everything English of fifteen years ago, to Ireland of to-day looking confidently to Westminster for justice, Mr. Gladstone's portrait in every cottage? Would they, like the boor in the fable, stand idly by the river of Irish discontent until it has passed away, instead of making some intelligent attempt to deal with its source? The institution of the Commission was not statesmanship, but a piece of party warfare. As a moral lesson it may in the end do us no harm, but it has "no more to do with politics than the Rule of Three." The sooner we turn from it the better, and, putting aside personalities, consider the possibilities of the present. D. B.

*For generations the necessity of radical reform regarding the government of Ireland and in its land system had been acknowledged, and many had predicted the trouble certain to arise sooner or later in regard to it, and yet people are astonished when the reckoning has come! I am struck with a certain appositeness in the following remarks by Mr. Garrison (Life, vol. iv, p. 23) at the commencement of the war of secession: "For thirty years the abolitionists have been faithfully warning the nation that, unless the enslaved were set free, a just God would visit it with tribulation and woe proportional to its great iniquity. Now that their predictions have come to pass, are they to indulge in morbid exclamations against the natural operation of the law of immutable justice, and to see in it no evidence of the growth of conscience, the power of truth, or the approach of the long-wished-for jubilee? Surely, this would be to arraign Infinite Wisdom, to be blind to the progress of events."

WEST AFRICAN SIGHTS AND IMPRESSIONS.

ST. PAUL DE LOANDA, January, 1890.

ST. PAUL DE LOANDA is full of anachronisms, indeed, it is itself an anachronism. There is a curious mixture of modern appliances of civilization and customs which are adopted from the original savage inhabitants of the region. In the European quarter of the town the buildings are of old-time architecture, belonging to the middle age rather than the modern. The shops are mostly small, dark, and dirty, and it is exceptional to see a sign over the door to indicate the name of the dealer or the nature of the wares for sale. On the hillside, back of and overlooking the town, is the native quarter. Here the houses are of wattle—small poles interwoven like basket-work and plastered inside and out with mud made of red clay. These houses have been so long built, or the great majority of them have, that the clay has washed off from the outside, showing the frame of wattle-work and the "clinch" of the inside coat of mud. The roof is of long grass, piled on nearly a foot in thickness. Rain, burning sunshine, and time have made these roofs a sombre dark brown, or dusky neutral gray, which blends so well with the surroundings as to make this part of Loanda practically invisible from the distance of a mile.

Loanda is very clean, superficially, although it has no sewers. Much of the surface débris is washed into the harbor by the fierce tropical rains. What is left is gathered up into little baskets by native women, and put into carts, which deposit their loads on the beach, where the collected mass is burned—a very safe and excellent manner of disposal. But although the surface of the town is kept clean, the ground is saturated with the filth of three hundred years of occupation, and the atmosphere of Loanda is filled with a faint, sickly-sweet odor similar to that of sewer gas. It is strange that fever and other diseases are not endemic in consequence; but it is claimed by the inhabitants that the place is far healthier than others on the coast having the same no-system of drainage—which may be true or not, the actual facts in the case having little or nothing to do with their claim for the healthfulness of the town.

Leaving Loanda, the *Pensacola* ran about eighty miles down the coast southward to Cape Ledo, where Prof. Todd established the eclipse

station. This is an exceedingly interesting region and is entirely uninhabited. Cape Ledo itself is a bold, rocky headland, about three hundred feet high, nearly perpendicular for a third of its height down, from which point a talus of fallen boulders and disintegrated rock slopes to the sea-level. The rocks are stratified and were once horizontal, but have been upheaved, having now a dip of twenty-five or thirty degrees to the north. Between the rocky headlands on the east side of the roadstead the cliffs are of red and yellow clay disposed in strata which dip about twenty degrees to north and south of an exceedingly well-defined anticlinal axis. The strike of the axis I did not ascertain. The strata differ in hardness, and the softer ones weather out more rapidly than the others, leaving projections or shelves which give a curiously artificial appearance to the face of the cliff, like courses of Titanic masonry.

In one place, the bold, jutting end of what was once a promontory is isolated from the cliff behind it by a deep gorge, eroded by centuries of tropical rainfall. This vast mass of indurated clay, nearly circular in horizontal section, with broad projections extending around it at a small angle, is a nearly perfect representation of the tower of Babel as authentically pictured in the illustrated "First Readers" of two generations ago.

The vegetation, though tropical in character, shows little of that wonderful luxuriance of growth generally supposed to be the unfailing characteristic of vegetable life in the torrid zone. That which first strikes the Northern eye is the tall, cactus-like euphorbias with their angular trunks and tops of dark-green, fleshy leaves; lofty palms crowned with fan-shaped, rustling foliage, the dead leaves still adhering to the trunk, hanging down in a vast spheroidal mass, in shape and color exactly like an enormous hornet's nest; and the gigantic baobab, its huge trunk (sometimes twenty-five feet in diameter at the base) always tapering rapidly upwards to the point where the branches are thrown out—its foliage light green, among which show the long-stemmed flowers, pure white as the magnolia, but without the fragrance, the pistil prolonged for six or seven inches, and ending in a crowded sphere of stamens more than two inches in diameter. All these attract the stranger's eye, not merely because they are unfamiliar, but for their rare beauty. In some places the ground is covered with a low, dark-green plant, having pinnated foliage which is almost hidden by the multitude of delicate, primrose-yellow blossoms, opening their tender petals to catch the hot African sunshine, but closing again as soon as the genial heat and light are withdrawn at sunset.

This region abounds in game. Every morning the beach showed the tracks of leopards, come down to dig in the sands for eggs of the green turtle; and they were always accompanied by jackals and wild-cats, which had followed, no doubt, hoping to share the feast. Our hunters shot an antelope, and in their wanderings came across the spoor of the eland and several kinds of deer, as well as of the African buffalo.

The Cape Ledo oysters are truly gigantic. I opened one of which the cavity occupied by the bivalve measured nine inches in its longest diameter and four and a quarter across its greatest width. Nor was the specimen an exceptionally large one. I retain the shells for a voucher. The oyster itself was as delicate as the tenderest Blue Point.

The camp of the Expedition was visited several times by members of the Quissama tribe of natives. They were armed with old flint-lock muskets, ornamented from butt to muzzle with narrow strips of brass encircling stock and barrel, fastened to the stock with the old-fashioned, convex-headed brass nails such as were formerly used on hair-covered trunks. Their dress was much more remarkable for its perfect adaptation to a tropical climate than for either quantity or complexity. Some were clothed in the skin of a small wildcat, tied around the waist and hanging down the front; some had progressed so far in civilization as to be the owner (probably, judging from the dirt, the inheritor, from some great-grandfather), of a piece of Portuguese calico. This was wound around the loins, and secured in its place—this is hypothesis only—by the adhesiveness of generations of filth which completely enveloped the original fabric. The hair of the Quissamas was done into innumerable little braids, terminating at the same level, the end of each braid ornamented with a scarlet bead. Altogether the effect was that of a string of beads tied around the head. Their teeth, solid and white as ivory, were filed or chipped to a point, which in barbaric heraldry shows their pure descent from, and their present good standing in, the noble tribe of cannibals. I saw them, indeed, examining our party of astronomers with furtive glances, as if selecting that one among us best fitted by his rounded outlines for their friendly purpose; and their expression of disappointment at the astronomic leanness of the expedition did not change until their eyes rested on one of the naval officers, whose bones were so hidden in juicy flesh that his form showed no angles or abrupt points, but only sweeping curves of well-nourished muscle. Unfortunately for their design, this officer was armed with a repeating rifle. It is not always entirely disadvantageous that astronomy and adipose are incompatible.

While putting up the transit house, one of our odorous visitors, urged by curiosity, approached the spot and hindered the workmen. With a majestic motion I waved him away, but, as he only laughed, I saw at once that a crisis had arrived, that stronger measures than majestic wavings must be taken immediately, or the country would be ruined—the work would be delayed. Stepping to a tripod on which happened to stand a ship's portable compass, I lifted the handle by which it is carried and gazed sternly through the harmless wire at the offending savage. With an agility which would not have discredited an antelope of his native hills, the gentle cannibal bounded away and hid himself behind his fellows; he could not "stand such an eye as that."

There is always more or less surf running on the beach near the Cape Ledo roadstead where the *Pensacola* anchored, but while we remained this was never heavy enough to entirely prevent landing, although at times it was sufficiently rough to make a sudden and quite thorough admixture of sea water and astronomers. However, a proper segregation of the two was always effected, although it sometimes required several hours of hot sunshine to complete the process.

Our stay at Cape Ledo extended through eighteen days, and so delighted was I with the place that, had I a yacht and leisure, I would spend December of every year there, until I had thoroughly acquainted myself with that lonely coast; eating under the shade of a gigantic baobab my Christmas dinner of oysters, green turtle, fish, lobster, antelope steak, and venison, all taken within the radius of a mile; bathing in the delicious surf which breaks into feathery foam on that perfect beach; listening to the strange songs of the strange, bright birds, until, perchance, a thought of my far northern home would impel me to weigh anchor. And, as sunny beach and rocky headland grew dim in the increasing distance, it would be parting with a friend when I should wave farewell to beautiful Cape Ledo.

EBEN J. LOOMIS.

ST. PAUL DE LOANDA, January 5, 1890.

At length I have really seen Africa. The other towns on the coast where the *Pensacola* has called have a large admixture of Occidental civilization, which mars the completeness of the picture, from the African standpoint. Elmina, however, is pure "Dark Continent."

Elmina, a little town originally settled by the Dutch, and afterwards purchased by the English, is about eight miles from Cape Coast Castle, which is the capital of the British settlement in the gold-coast colony. There is very little in the town to remind one of the original European settlers. Occasionally a Dutch or a Scotch name, with "licensed to sell spirits" subscribed, will be seen over a door or window, and a few houses are still left which show in shape and material a European hand. These remains of Western occupation are, however, too few to make any impression. The native house of Elmina is exceedingly well adapted to a climate where only heat and rain have to be guarded against. The walls are made of clay shaped by the hands into an irregular mass somewhat larger than a brick. Such blocks are placed in succession on the walls, patted down, and then smoothed on the outside by passing the hand over, until enough regularity of surface is developed to satisfy the æsthetic longings of the Elminote builder. After a few courses are laid, it is necessary to wait several days for them to dry before adding more clay, as, while wet, the walls will not bear much weight. I cannot think that this necessity for waiting is regarded as an unmixed misfortune by the workmen, for the male population of Elmina has immense capacity for rest—so great that, except in one or two occupations, the women are permitted, and indeed encouraged, if not required, to do all of the work. In coaling the *Pensacola* at this place, the fuel was brought down from the store-house to the lighter on the heads of women. Rowing the lighter to the steamer was done by men.

Considerable pottery is made in Elmina, but only in one shape—a broad flat dish, ornamented with scallops on the edge. This work is done by women with absolutely no instruments or conveniences. A lump of clay is placed directly on the ground, and the potter (potteress) stoops down and with her hand, the thumb principally, gradually shapes the clay into the required form. It is wonderful how rapidly and accurately the rough material is shaped and moulded. After sun-drying, the bowls are rubbed over with some substance which produces a kind of steatite lustre. They are then put in little clay furnaces and burned a few hours, coming out a shining black.

Quite handsome jewelry is made in this place, of gold, silver, and copper; the baser metal being used principally for bangles. Beautiful rings, bracelets, pins, and earrings were offered me for sale by the manufacturess herself, for work of this kind is done by women, as well as nearly all other except the managing of boats. The first price asked was exorbitant: for a very small but pretty silver pin six English shillings was demanded. As I refused to purchase, the price gradually lowered, and I finally bought it for one shilling. This is a fair, typical case, showing the relative proportion between asking and selling price at Elmina.

There is no "one-price store" in this African town. Most of the streets in Elmina have cocoanut palms on either side, which gives the final touch to its tropical and unfamiliar appearance.

The American Consul took us to see King Andoh of the Ashanti tribe. He is a noble-looking man, about six feet two inches in height, and of fine proportions. The Consul acted as interpreter, and our call was interesting and unique. We were ushered into a bare, dirty room, with a long table in the centre which took up a great part of the space. At one end, under a lithograph portrait of Washington, was a large stuffed arm-chair, standing on a slightly raised dais. This was the King's seat, or throne, and he insisted that Capt. Yates of the *Pensacola* should occupy it, while he himself took a chair at the opposite end of the table. On the table was a long staff with a gold head, on which was an inscription setting forth that it had been presented to the chief for his distinguished services to the English. Beside this staff lay two scimitar-like swords with gold handles of native manufacture. The blades were evidently iron, not steel.

The King, "on hospitable thoughts intent," wished us to taste the native corn beer, his favorite beverage. It had a pleasant, slightly acid taste, with a sub-flavor of grape sugar. Afterwards, by the King's order, a pasteboard box was brought in and placed on the floor beside him. On opening this, there appeared another box of the same material and considerably smaller. Within the latter, wrapped in tissue paper, was the crown of King Andoh —a cap of skin without lining, but covered on the inside with characters in ink or black paint. These bore as much resemblance to the Assyrian alphabet as to anything that I feel well acquainted with. On the outside were eight narrow strips of dark leather, radiating from the top of the crown to the rim. Upon these strips again were fastened gems set in gold. The strip which extended from the top of the cap to the back was prolonged beyond the rim into a sort of tail, three or four inches long, projecting over the wearer's neck. With a kindly smile, as if recognizing in our expression a natural desire to see him wear this emblem of authority, the chief placed it on his head. I doubt whether any European potentate would present a more kingly appearance under any circumstances than did this noble-looking man in his barbaric-looking cap.

With a good taste for which I was hardly prepared, he allowed it to remain on his head but a moment, when he removed and handed it to his attendant, taking away by the promptness of this action any appearance of vanity, and ascribing the exhibition, where I think it truly belonged, to the kindness of a host entertaining his friends. King Andoh wore upon his hands magnificent finger and thumb-rings of native gold and manufacture. The designs of these rings were exceedingly elaborate and very original, and the surface of all was covered with the richest chasing. Although of pure negro blood, the King is not black, but a rich, dark chocolate brown. The facial angle was nearly if not quite as large as that of Europeans, and his countenance showed high intelligence and energy.

The beach at Elmina is a very fine one, with generally a high surf rolling in. Men, boys, and little children are bathing all day. They are as expert swimmers as any Sandwich Islander, and children of not more than six or seven years swim out and dive under the great, green breakers, reappearing on the seaward side of the "roaring cataract," then, waiting until another swell begins to gather its water into a ridge of foam, they keep directly on its crest and are swept in and landed far up on the beach.

The country back of Elmina is very fertile and easy of cultivation. Fruits of nearly all kinds could be readily raised in unlimited quantities, but a sufficient market for the produce is too distant to permit fruit-raising to become profitable. Two staples, cotton and coffee, might possibly be made to pay; but as long as the wants of the natives are confined to food, which is amply supplied by yams, bananas, and plantains growing almost spontaneously, and to clothing, for which two yards of calico make a sufficient suit for a year, there remains no cogent reason to convince the native mind that to labor for more is either desirable or necessary. I cannot think that any large agricultural enterprise in the neighborhood of Elmina will have a chance of success.

I believe that the mission of the Dark Continent among sister lands is to furnish a haven of rest for the weary. In the parts of Africa which I have seen, if one is wise enough to do nothing, the temperature is exactly right for perfect enjoyment. The warm, fragrant air blows softly and caressingly over the reposing philosopher, inducing quiet of body and "thoughts too deep for utterance." As he slowly swings in his hammock and looks out upon the beautiful sunlit hills from the cool shade of his tent, he cannot but believe with me, not that equatorial Africa has an agricultural future before it, but that its true purpose is to afford a place where the natural, restless energy of more rugged climates evaporates, leaving only a desire for rest. It is the lotus continent, where "there is no joy but calm."

DAVID P. TODD.

Correspondence.

THE ENGLISH PHILOLOGICAL SOCIETY'S DICTIONARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Given a literary undertaking which should be welcomed by every one whose mother tongue is English; an undertaking, moreover, towards which hundreds of Englishmen and Americans have, in friendly emulation, clubbed their aid, and the engineering of which rests mainly with a scholar all but unique in combining manifold and appropriate ability, untiring industry, and scrupulous conscientiousness—how are we to rate a critic who, deeming it, without personal examination, a thing deserving of at most mere cursory mention, implicitly accepts a palpably disingenuous and sinister description of it, which he aggravates by gratuitous invention, and dismisses it with what amounts to contemptuous wholesale condemnation?

This, in strict literality, is the treatment which Dr. Murray's noble Dictionary has received at the hands of Mr. E. J. Phelps, who, as a man of law, if he did not aspire to be judicial, ought at least, if only for the honor of his craft, to have shown himself respectably causidic. Since he was pleased to take a brief against Dr. Murray, it was, unquestionably, his duty to supply himself with relevant facts at first hand; and that he has done this no evidence is perceptible.

Discoursing in *Scribner's Magazine* for last December, he delivers himself as follows:

"In the compilation of the Oxford Dictionary, which undertakes to give an account of every word in the language, it is stated, in the *Edinburgh Review*, that thirty years' labor has produced one volume of 1,240 closely printed quarto pages in triple columns, only containing [*read* containing only] words beginning with the letters A and B, and that these number 31,254, including those of doubtful meaning *and of no meaning at all*. At what remote period is it reasonable to expect that this work will be completed? And, when finished, what, at the same rate of increase, will be the supplement, to be added, of new words coined in the meantime?"

Now, who would not suppose, from this, that the labor of thirty years had been confined to collecting, digesting, and printing words in A and B alone? The questions with which the quotation concludes apparently point to the entertainment, by their writer, of some such supposition, or to the aim that it should be entertained by his readers. Noticeable, too, is the libel that Dr. Murray has registered "words of no meaning at all." Would Mr. Phelps have it believed that the English Philological Society selected their editor from the wards of Bedlam? As to the space of time within which we may look to see the Dictionary finished, grounds for forecasting it with some certainty were already before the American public when Mr. Phelps went to press with his flippant flouts. The truth of the matter, perfectly accessible, it was his business, in all probity, to inform himself of; and it fares all the worse for him if, having done so, he preferred its suppression. More than this, neither in commendation, nor by way of encouragement, does he deign to bestow a single syllable on the new Dictionary, though one of the marvels of modern literature, and secure of being a lasting honor to our age. Pretty evidently content with knowing next to nothing in its favour, he would fain have it regarded as a project of the half-crazy, Quixotic order, and destined to no serviceable finality, the appreciation of which is adequately summed up in sneers qualified with fiction. Of Dr. Murray, matchless as an etymologist, and otherwise eminently competent for his most arduous task, he ignores even the existence. This is significant; and so it is that he should be silent as to the circumstance that hundreds of Englishmen, each of them distinguished in some department of science, art, or letters, should have coöperated with the editor towards rendering the outcome of his labors exact and exhaustive. In short, so far as one can judge from his account of the Dictionary, whose very title he misrepresents, it might be simply a swindling speculation of some anonymous sciolist, at best semi-lunatic, who had merely huddled together, somehow or other, an unwieldy mass of indigested letter-press.

In justice to an enterprise the progress and success of which are matters of widespread interest, a succinct statement is now offered. Shortly after 1857, a group of persons, which eventually increased to a formidable host, some thirteen hundred practical workers, ransacking upwards of five thousand authors, engaged in collecting materials for the new Dictionary. No promise was ventured as to when these materials were to be utilized. In 1884 the first Part of the Dictionary was published, and the whole of the first Volume, containing three Parts and a half, was before the world early in 1888. The Edinburgh Reviewer, whose diatribe is dated in April, 1889, seemingly desired to have it credited that, A and B having been despatched, the work was hanging fire, although half a Part, introducing C, was distributed with the end of Vol. I. Besides this, as Mr. Phelps should have acquainted himself, Part V., running to p. 508 of Vol. II., was on the counters of the booksellers in October of last year. Furthermore, in February, 1888, notice was industriously circulated that Mr. Henry Bradley, a phi-

lologist of approved ability, had been entrusted with the preparation of an independent portion of the Dictionary. This portion is, for the present, Vol. III., leading off with E, the opening Part of which, to make about 350 pages, I know to be well advanced, since I have read all its proof-sheets.

That the conclusion of the Dictionary will be reached within a few years, say by 1900, is highly likely. And, considering the professed character of the work, could any one, except at random, expect it to be out, in its entirety, sooner? What person whose opinion is worth having can, after examination, help being satisfied with the manner in which it has hitherto been executed, or can wish, just to see it speedily finished, that its remainder should be hurried over and, of necessity, scamped? Unless thoroughgoing in one particular feature, to name no other, it would reflect nothing but disrepute on the learned society by which it was projected. Etymology is here referred to; and one need but consult the Dictionary almost at any page to be convinced of the striking superiority of Dr. Murray, in dealing with this subject, as compared with that of any previous investigator. This superiority could never have been achieved without immense toil; such toil implies time for research, and for deliberation on its fruits; and there an end. It seems, however, that the words in A and B present the chief etymological enigmas of our vocabulary, and that, henceforth, difficulties of this stamp will by no means operate to retard the growth of the Dictionary as they have, unavoidably, done till of late. Having said so much, I would commend to the attention of every one interested in lexicography Dr. Murray's Preface and General Explanations, the issue of which, in the form of a pamphlet, I cannot but think would be found advantageous to sellers and buyers alike.

And now I would be allowed to return, for a moment, to the essay, entitled "The Age of Words," quoted near the beginning of this letter. As its writer, rolling together St. James and Spenser, warmly champions "pure English undefiled," his use of our vernacular is hardly what was to be counted on, especially considering his antecedents. An unsparing critic might dwell at length on his slipshod grammar, his solecisms, his vulgarisms, and his indefensible Americanisms, such as "*aside* from" for "*apart* from," "at that" for "too" or "withal," and the slangy "oversloughed" (*sic*). A counterpoise to the demerit attaching to these blemishes may, however, be found, by the naturalist, in the credit due to him for having brought to light a novel species of rodent, to be described, scientifically, as mythotocous. The existence of this remarkable creature he thus divulges, in passing: "Popular literature, now-a-days, consists, in large part, of *fiction, of which the authors are more prolific than the Australian rabbit.*"—Your obedient servant,

FITZEDWARD HALL.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, February 15, 1890.

MORE ABOUT THE "RACE PROBLEM."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It will be admitted on all sides, I think, that the solution of the "race problem" offered by "L. N. D." in No. 1287 of the *Nation* would be very desirable, and it seems to me far more practical than that offered by either Senators Butler and Morgan or the Mississippi legislators. That the negroes in some States are beginning to divide their votes at all is a very hopeful sign, and time and work on the part of the Democrats can, and doubtless will, do much. But there is one influence which, more than all others, tends to keep the negro vote solid, and that is the "social influence." All over the South the negroes persistently ostracize, and oftentimes maltreat, any of their race who dare vote the Democratic ticket. Of course, there are limitations to this, and I believe the exceptional cases are becoming more and more numerous. But still it is the rule. Many of them will admit that they have never realized any of the specious promises made them by the Republican leaders, that they have been coddled and deceived for twenty-five years, and it is actually beginning to enter their heads that Democratic control of affairs does not mean that they will be returned to slavery; but their prejudices are so strong that, as a race, they are still blind in their allegiance to their party bosses, and those who would break off from this allegiance do not do so, for the reasons mentioned. In North Carolina this is frequently seen.

Now, as your correspondent intimates, here is an argument for the Australian ballot. It has been charged that in some parts of North Carolina the negroes are defrauded of their right to the elective franchise. I do not think this can be substantiated, but we certainly need ballot reform to protect negro voters from one another. To be sure, this would not entirely eradicate the evil, but it would do much towards it. The rest must be done by instruction, political and otherwise. And they are not entirely unimpressionable on this subject. But when any of them do realize that they have been deceived and are following hard taskmasters, they show their resentment oftener by refraining from voting altogether than by changing votes. It is quite common to hear them say that they reap no benefit from either party's success, so they stay away from the polls. Strange to say, it seems never to occur to our Northern brethren that it is possible for the negroes to voluntarily refrain from voting on this ground; and whenever they fail to poll their full party strength in a Southern State, the cry of fraud is raised. It goes without saying that such devices as the "eight-box" law deprive some of them of their votes, but it should be remembered that they are beginning to see into the deception that has been so long practised on them, and consequently lose all interest in the elections.

Here is an opportunity for good and profitable work on the part of the Democrats. Pass ballot-reform laws to protect those who would change if they could, and persuade those who have become indifferent on account of the broken pledges of their Republican friends that they can benefit themselves by voting with the Democrats. It may be a difficult task, but it is not an impossible one, nor one which would require a very great length of time to accomplish. W.

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA, March 1, 1890.

ENGLISH PROSPERITY UNDER PROTECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the last chapter of Ricardo's 'Political Economy' he quotes from Malthus a paragraph showing that wheat varied in price per bushel during the prevalence of the protective ("mercantile") system in England as $2.15, $2.22, and $3.00. "During the twenty years beginning with 1794 and ending with 1813 the average price of British corn per quarter was about 83 shillings; during the ten years ending with 1813, 92 shillings; and during the last five years of the twenty, 108 shillings. In the course of these twenty years the Government borrowed near five hundred millions of real capital" ($2,500,000,000), which, says Mr. Blaine, it was enabled to do by this protective system and the prosperity necessarily consequent thereon.

The *Nation* has lately given two pictures of England under protection, one by Carlyle and one by Bagehot, who, according to your correspondent Mr. Cozens of Amsterdam, N. Y., accounts by the condition of England then for the great interest taken in political economy. The same causes are producing the same effects here. I know many intelligent farmers, Republican voters hitherto, who are studying "maxims and markets," and have come to the same conclusion with Mr. Powderly as to the tariff's protecting the poor. N. NILES.

BELLEVILLE, ILL., February 28, 1890.

THE PHOTOGRAPH NUISANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As the mattter complained of by "M. G.," in the *Nation* of February 20, is, unfortunately, of practical interest, I venture to call attention to a recent case of Pollard vs. The Photographic Co., 5 Times Law Rep., 157, where Mr. Justice North held that where a person is photographed in the ordinary way, the photographer has no right to dispose of or exhibit copies of the photograph, and if he does so, an injunction will lie at common law for breach of contract. In this case the photograph was offered for sale as a Christmas card, no change being made except to add some scroll work, and the words "A Merry Xmas." The law is fully discussed and the case worth reading. FRANCIS MCLENNAN.

MONTREAL, February 25, 1890.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just read "M. G.'s" article on the "Photograph Nuisance," published in your last number.

You will be glad to hear that there is at least one city in the country where photographs cannot be sold without the consent of the sitter. A prominent photographer of this city was recently arrested and heavily fined for selling a dozen photographs in his possession to a saloon-keeper who used them to decorate the walls of his saloon. The Judge decided that such proceeding was a gross breach of contract on the part of the photographer.

It is to be hoped that this decision will serve as a precedent. X. Y. Z.

MINNEAPOLIS, MINN., February 24, 1890.

TWO USES OF "KEEN."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Dion Boucicault's article entitled "Spots on the Sun," in the January *Arena*, page 138, occurs the following use of *keen*: "the 'keen' of *Constance* over her lost son *Arthur* (I must use the Irish expression 'keen,' which means the cry of the heart over the dead)." And then "King John," iii., 4, l. 76-105, is cited.

The use of adjectives as nouns is by no means uncommon, even, as here, in a secondary sense; but I wish to call attention to the use of this same word as a noun in a very different signification, namely, in the sense of a 'witticism,' more especially a 'pun,' as I have heard it frequently used by students at the University of Virginia and at Hampden-Sidney College. No doubt its use is even more widespread, but I do not remember ever to have met with it elsewhere. Are the two almost converse significations of this word (though, of course, they are both derived from

the sense of sharpness, whether of grief or of wit) anywhere in use side by side?

J. B. HENNEMAN.

HAMPDEN-SIDNEY COLLEGE, VIRGINIA.

Notes.

SCRIBNER & WELFORD'S spring announcements include 'The Uncollected Writings of Thomas De Quincey,' with preface and annotations by James Hogg; the 'Select Essays, Narrative, and Imaginative,' of the same writer, edited by Prof. Masson; 'Italian Characters in the Epoch of Unification,' by the Countess Evelyn Martinengo Cesaresco; 'The Marriages of the Bourbons,' by Capt. D. Bingham; 'The Early Diary of Frances Burney, 1768–1778,' edited by Annie Raine Ellis; and 'In Tennyson Land,' by J. Cuming Walters, with illustrations.

Ginn & Co. will publish in a month or two a 'Directional Calculus,' by E. W. Hyde, Professor of Mathematics in the University of Cincinnati.

S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, will shortly issue 'Semitic Philosophy,' by Philip C. Friese; 'The World Energy and its Self Conservation,' by W. M. Bryant; and a 'Digest of English and American Literature,' by the late Prof. A. H. Welsh.

The 'Library Reference Atlas of the World,' compiled by John Bartholomew, F.R.G.S., and published in a handsome quarto volume by Macmillan & Co., makes but modest pretensions. It is not for the scholar in the strict sense of that term, yet it is, as its title purports, for the library; it is also especially adapted for the man of business in his counting-room. In technical execution it falls below the best German cartography, and for the most part it eschews the physical delineation for the sake of greater clearness in the lettering. This is true even of Switzerland, whose surface is very conventionally suggested. Palestine and India, on the other hand, are colored hypsometrically. Naturally, the British Empire is best looked after, and the maps of England and Wales, in six sections, of Scotland and Ireland, in four each, will be appreciated because of the minute indications of places. Three sections are likewise employed for India, four for Australia, etc. The United States is treated in detail on about the scale common to our grammar-school atlases. In the selection of related areas there is no originality except in the useful double-plate map No. 10, showing the British Isles and the adjacent parts of the Continent—something of Norway and Sweden, all of Denmark, Holland, and Belgium, and so much of France and Germany as is bounded by Stettin, Dresden, Strassburg, Paris, and Cherbourg, with their railroad connections. The map of central Africa shows Stanley's recent route; that of Greenland, Nansen's. The maps are named and numbered on the back, and there is a very full general index of names.

The 'Atlas of the World' published by Adam & Charles Black, Edinburgh (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons), contains 27 pages of descriptive text and 55 maps, to which is added a copious index of 105 pages. Of the maps, 5 plates present the physical features of the globe, 15 relate to Europe, 10 to Asia, 4 to Africa, and 37 to North America. Of these last, 28 are devoted to the United States, each State being represented separately. To South America are allotted 4, and to Australia 3 maps. With slight exception, all the maps are brought closely up to the date of issue, in respect both of geographical discovery and survey, and of cultural development. Here, too, on the map of Africa, Stanley's recent discoveries are represented. The execution, mostly from copper plates, is beautiful. The maps are clear, easily read, and not overloaded with matter.

The second volume of the 'Century Dictionary' comes bound to our table. It ends with the letter F, but the parts already distributed have passed this point by three letters. We need make no further remark on ground already covered by our review of this notable undertaking. The beauty of the typography, press-work, illustrations, and binding must impress any one who examines the two volumes now completed. The pains taken to verify the quotations are beyond the reach of observation, but they form one of the chief recommendations to confidence of the 'Century Dictionary.'

The two noble volumes of *Garden and Forest* (1888–'89), edited by Prof. Charles S. Sargent, and published in this city, are strongly and simply bound in dark cloth, and make an elegant appearance on the shelves. This weekly journal is one of the few American original ventures, and one of the very best and most creditable. Its literary style, tone, learning, variety, and high grade of illustrations make it a welcome visitor to the most fastidious home, where its influence will be felt to be refining and liberalizing. It deserves the heartiest support.

Macmillan & Co.'s inexpensive reprint of Charles Kingsley's novels now embraces 'Westward Ho!' 'Hypatia,' 'Yeast,' and 'Alton Locke.' It is a pity that the print adopted for these classics had to be so small, for only the eye and the happy recklessness of youth can brave it.

Prof. Masson's definitive edition of 'The Collected writings of Thomas De Quincey' (Macmillan) fills its fourth volume with biographies and biographic sketches, in which Shakspere, Milton, Bentley, Pope, Goldsmith, Kant, Herder, Goethe, and Schiller make an extraordinary galaxy. The frontispiece is a very attractive portrait of Florence De Quincey (Mrs. Baird Smith), whose likeness to her father is unmistakable.

The latest addition to the "Knickerbocker Nuggets" series is John Oxenford's translation of Books I.–XI. of Goethe's 'Dichtung und Wahrheit' ('The Boyhood and Youth of Goethe': G. P. Putnam's Sons). It makes two of the pretty volumes of this ever-lengthening series.

Mr. Walter J. Clutterbuck, in the preface to his 'The Skipper in Arctic Seas' (Longmans), states that it is "impossible in this universe to find any name which would apply to such a conglomeration of foolishness as is enrolled in these pages." On the whole, we think his modesty is not excessive. So dreary and flat an attempt at fun we have never seen in print. It is possible that the British mind is so constituted that it enjoys this sort of thing. The book is ostensibly the record of a sealing voyage to the seas between Spitzbergen and Greenland. The illustrations are of unusual merit, the paper and printing are excellent, but the text adds a new terror to the Arctic regions.

Prof. E. N. Horsford persists in his identification of the "lost city and country" of Norumbega, and has published, with his customary nice taste and lavish outlay in matters typographical, 'The Discovery of the Ancient City of Norumbega' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), being his communication to a special session of the President and Council of the American Geographical Society at Watertown, Mass., on November 21, 1889. Nature-pictures show us the site in question, and a map of the vicinity of Boston leads us straight to it. No close student of the sagas can doubt that the Northmen made various trips to the mainland opposite Greenland, and went along the coast southward; but that they got further than the waters close to Newfoundland is, in our present state of knowledge, not to be credited.

K. J. Trübner of Strassburg publishes a General Index (*Gesamtindex*), by V. F. Janssen, of Kluge's 'Etymological Dictionary of the German Language,' the first and last issues of which we have noticed at some length. Kluge's Dictionary is really a remarkable work, not only for its learning and thoroughness, but also for its conciseness and handiness. Both those to whom it is a vademecum and those who have not yet fully appreciated it, will be surprised by its wealth and comprehensiveness as shown by this General Index, which is more than half as large as the Dictionary itself. Janssen's compilation consists of a word-index, subject-index, list of Indo-European roots, list of Germanic roots. The general reader and the historian will find interesting reading under such heads as *Amerikanisch*, *Christentum*, *Kultur*, *Lehnwörter*. An appendix gives a list of words with additional references and cross-references, which point to unlooked-for or overlooked words. The word indexes of the Germanic and Romance languages are so full that they can indeed, as the compiler hopes, be used as German, English, and French dictionaries. The New High German index includes the proper names.

Two dog pictures are among the most satisfactory in *Sun and Shade* for January (New York: Photogravure Company). The Venetian Palazzo Reale, Miss Ada Rehan as *Rosalind*, copies of original designs, a landscape, and some grill-work form the subjects of the other plates.

To the December number of the *Revue de Famille*, edited by M. Jules Simon, M. Simon himself furnishes the leading article, on "The Church Marriage" (*mariage religieux*). M. F. Sarcey has a paper on "Le Timide au Théâtre," which affords a curious (English) commentary on the title of the magazine—"de famille." It is enough to say that he just stops short of relating the whole of the affair of J.-J. Rousseau with Zulietta in Venice. M. Auguste Moireau discusses the Pan-American Congress in an article which our readers will not find wholly unfamiliar. The *Revue* is generously printed (Paris; New York: F. W. Christern).

"The Great Central Asian Trade Route from Peking to Kashgaria" is the subject of a paper by Col. Mark S. Bell in the February Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society. He formed a more favorable opinion of this province than some other travellers have done, regarding it as "a territory fairly rich in the precious metals, producing cereals in abundance, besides cotton and silk, of a healthy and enjoyable climate, rich in all fruits—grapes, figs, apricots, melons, etc., and vegetables—well watered by cool streams, and supporting over two millions of a hardy race, of excellent physique." The Russian merchants are very active, their cottons, chintzes, candles, sugar, cutlery, etc., being found everywhere, while there is a corresponding lack of British commercial enterprise in the interior of China. The people, though not disaffected towards their Chinese rulers, who tax them lightly, would not resist the advance of Russia, "whom they are gradually being taught to regard as their future mistress," and which can at any time absorb the province, as it is practically defenceless. The remainder of the number is taken up with obituary notices of Mr. John

Ball, the author of the 'Alpine Guide,' and Col. Sir Henry Yule, the editor of Marco Polo.

Dr. Hans Meyer gives an interesting account of his finally successful ascent of Mt. Kilimanjaró in October last in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*. The highest peak he estimated to be 19,680 feet. The great Kibo crater is more than a mile in diameter and 650 feet deep. Near the centre rises a cone of brown ashes to a height of 500 feet from the floor. A glacier flows out through a gap in the western wall and descends the mountain for nearly 2,000 feet. A supplementary number is devoted to a description of the explorations of Max Beschoren, between the years 1871 and 1887, in the Brazilian Province of São Pedro do Rio Grande do Sul.

Among the last official documents signed by the ex-Emperor of Brazil were diplomas sent to Admiral Mouchez and MM. Janssen and Perrotin, which conferred upon them the grade of Officer of the Order of the Rose of Brazil; and on M. Frassenet and the brothers Henry knighthood of the same order.

The special feature of Mr. Arthur Cottam's recently published charts of the constellations consists in their unusually large scale of 3° to an inch, which renders them suitable for working on small portions of the sky. They extend from the pole to between 35° and 40° south declination, and seem to be accurate and excellent in every way. Stars which can be seen by the naked eye are all shown, doubles are marked, and variables indicated by a ring (maximum) surrounding a disc (minimum).

In memory of Harriet Louisa Dudley Field, and of the fiftieth anniversary of the dedication of the first American college observatory, was printed the Williams College 'Catalogue of North Polar Stars,' by Dr. Truman Henry Safford. It is the first fruits of the fine Repsold meridian circle presented to the College by Mr. David Dudley Field, and is but the beginning of a more extended catalogue of polars whose observation is in progress. Prof. Safford's well-recognized ability as a practical astronomer shows to great advantage in a work of this sort, where precision of a high order is sought, and Williams is fortunate in having an astronomer who is both disposed and competent to make the best use of an admirable instrument. Among other things Prof. Safford's researches will promote the study of the relation between apparent proper motions and stellar distances, in order to extend our positive knowledge, instead of hypotheses, to the distances which cannot be measured directly. It will be remembered that Williams is indebted to Mr. Field not only for the Repsold circle, but for the observatory which contains it and for the foundation of the chair which Prof. Safford fills.

We have received the twentieth annual report of the Lenox Library for the past year. This library is now open to free inspection daily, and to the free use of readers. The Board of Trustees intimate, as the ground of their action in refusing to part with adjacent real estate, an ultimate expansion of the institution to the great advantage of the public.

The second annual Munich Art Exhibition takes place during the coming summer, beginning July 1, and closing October 1. All works of art intended for the exhibition must reach Munich on or before May 1, and be sent to the Artists' Association, 1 Königsplatz, where forms of application may also be obtained. Such works as are accepted by the Committee and not sold will be returned to the artist free of charge. Last year, notwithstanding the competition of the Paris Exposition, the Munich Art Exhibition was financially a decided success, and the thousands of persons who will visit Oberammergau to see the Passion Play will tend to render it even more successful during the present year. Of the 1,683 works exhibited, nearly one-third were sold. Twenty-six medals were awarded: of the five first-class medals, one was awarded to an American, Carl Marr of Milwaukee, for his colossal picture "The Flagellants." In view of the fact that America was represented by only twelve artists and twenty-one pictures, this is doing very well. Henceforth a medal of honor will also be given as the highest prize. Last year America paid a larger sum (143,810 marks) for pictures than any other country. She purchased fewer paintings (fifty-six) than Germany (seventy-six) or Munich (seventy-eight), but she purchased better or at least more expensive ones. American artists who wish to sell their pictures, and American collectors who wish to buy works of art, should not overlook the Munich Exhibition.

Mr. F. M. Bird writes to us: "Your reviewer of 'Death No Bane' (No. 1287, p. 186), in enumerating previous translations of Cicero's 'Tusculan Disputations,' overlooks that by Thomas Chase, Cambridge, 1858; one anonymous, 8vo, Oxford, 1840 (possibly a reprint); one by 'A Gentleman,' 8vo, London, 1758; and one by Christopher Wase, 'The Five Days' Debate at Cicero's House at Tusculum,' London, 1683."

—The *Atlantic* for March opens with a detailed account of the trial and opinions of Giordano Bruno, by Mr. W. R. Thayer, the most interesting part of which is a translation of the confession made by the martyr before the Inquisition at Venice, taken direct from the records. Through Bruno's own words one gets a clear and instructive impression of his personality and of the conditions under which he carried on his thinking. Mr. Charles W. Clark contributes a paper, in a conservative spirit, upon woman suffrage. He sums up for both sides. Other noticeable articles are upon the "Paris Exposition" and the "Dangers from Electricity," both of which are treated in a fresh and practical way, and make the best sort of popular papers. Dr. Holmes devotes himself to a Dunciad, without names, of modern current poetry, in which he discourages the producers of volumes of verse with all the severity of which his genial tolerance is capable. Some new lines of his own will be found in the text. An unsigned tribute to Tennyson, in a higher and more artistic strain than belongs to ordinary verse-writers, betrays some long-practised hand; and in the Contributers' Club are reminiscences of Boker, happily written.

—The Army series in *Harper's* takes up our own organization and illustrates it, less strikingly than was the case with Lord Wolseley's paper last month, but the text, from Gen. Merritt's pen, is excellent. An article upon "Venetian Boats" affords some picturesque cuts; and Sculpture, which is represented by two papers upon the Winged Victory of Samothrace and the head of Iris in the Parthenon Frieze, gives some very beautiful figures well engraved. An unusual contribution is made by Mrs. Ritchie upon Ruskin, in which several private letters of his to Burne-Jones, Watts, and others exhibit the character of his personal friendships after a fashion which generally does not obtain until a man is dead, and these are supplemented by sketches of Ruskin's hospitality at Brantwood. A curiosity of scientific interest is treated of in the account of the cobra-stone, which is a piece of chlorophane, luminous in the dark, which the cobra carries about with it and uses as a decoy for fire-flies, which mistake it for the glow-worm and gather about it. Mr. Curtis, in the Easy Chair, tells of his early acquaintance with Browning in Florence.

—The *Century's* leading illustrated papers exhibit the rôles of Joseph Jefferson and views of Gloucester Cathedral. The most valuable article, perhaps, is the exhaustive account of the municipal government of Glasgow, from which a great deal is to be learned in respect to matters and methods of administration which are a common subject of agitation in this country. La Farge's paper upon Japan is characterized by the same unusual artistic sensibility and felicity in word-rendering which we have already remarked. The two American papers are upon the mound-builders of the river valleys and the irrigable lands of the West, and are both from high authority. Prof. Fisher deals with the general subject of Faith as contradistinguished from Reason, with his usual clearness of thought and liberality of tone. Fiction and poetry occupy the large space which always belongs to them in this magazine, and are of the average quality.

—*Scribner's* is distinguished by two excellent leading articles, one upon Charles Lamb, in which the charm of his personality is thoroughly felt and well rendered by the writer, and the second upon Ericsson, in which the long and fruitful career of this great inventor is set forth with such force that he seems to be identified with the mechanical progress of the world since the present age of engineering began. A third remarkable paper is Prof. William James's account of the hypnotic experiments made in France, with the intention of bringing out the existence of several conscious selves in the individual whose activity is incompletely integrated. The observations which he reports are of great interest, and the comments made upon them, though not to be described as conservative, are temperate. The statement that he knows a "non-hysterical woman who, in her trances, knows facts which altogether transcend her *possible* normal consciousness—facts about the lives of persons whom she never saw or heard of before"—is the most startling; but he makes it "deliberately," upon full conviction of its truth. The Seminoles and the Boomerang are the only other papers of consequence.

— The death of the Empress Augusta of Germany has at last lifted the veil from an episode of her late husband's life which will undoubtedly rank henceforth among the noblest testimonies to his unflinching devotion to what he conceived to be his duty, while it throws at the same time a romantic charm around his personality which one would hardly have expected in this man of prompt action and of stern resolves. Emperor William's youthful love for the Princess Elise Radziwill, and his subsequent submission to the will of his father, who protested against the alliance of his son with a family outside of the reigning dynasties of Europe, has always been known. But only now, when, by permission of the present Emperor, the *Deutsche Rundschau* has published the unfortunate lover's correspondence about this matter, are we able to divine through what terrible conflicts he must have passed before he found at last the strength and courage to drink the bitter cup of resignation. The father of Princess Elise was one of the most notable figures of Berlin society, chivalrous, poetic, and high-minded. Goethe called him the only genuine troubadour he had ever seen, and his "Faust" composition is perhaps the finest interpretation of Goethe's masterpiece that we possess. Elise

herself was a beautiful and lovely character, and seems to have possessed to an unusual degree that combination of womanly modesty and delicacy with broad culture and serious purpose which gave the German women of the beginning of this century such a marked influence upon the shaping of their country's destiny. It seems that the King himself tried every means of removing the obstacles that stood in the way of his son's marriage with this noble girl. He had the crown lawyers investigate the pedigree of the Radziwill family in the hope of detecting some drop of royal blood in their veins; he thought of an adoption of the Princess into his own dynasty: he shifted from one proposition to another without coming to a final decision. And so Prince William was for fully five years, from 1821 to 1826, kept in constant suspense between hope and despair. It is remarkable to see how, with all his passionate devotion to the woman of his heart, he preserves throughout this trial the poise of an evenly balanced mind and the most scrupulous adherence to his duties as a Prince. Only once when, asking his father's permission to join the then threatening Russo-Turkish war, he receives the curt answer, "Es giebt keinen Krieg," he loses his temper and complains that "these beautiful war prospects, too, have now disappeared." But he soon recovers himself, and declares that he is prepared for anything which the welfare of his house and country may exact of him.

— When, at last, the King makes his final decision, the Prince lives fully up to his principles. To a friend he writes:

"It requires a great deal of strength to sacrifice one's dearest, highest wishes. But what a degree of strength did I need to abandon an alliance which was hoped for by all those interested in me, in which I have dreamed for many, many years that I should find my happiness, and which is now dissolved only by external circumstances! I may truly say that I have been badly played with all this time through the intrigues of men; and yet no grudge against them enters my heart. God uses men on this earth as his instruments through which he directs our destinies according to his will. And he who sends such heavy trials, shows us also the ways of comfort and of strength. To this I shall firmly hold, but my heart is torn, and human sympathy can soothe it, but not heal."

And this is his last answer to his father:

"You have, dearest father, given the decision of my fate which I had to anticipate, and yet shrunk from anticipating as long as a ray of hope was left to me. Read my heart to find there inexpressible gratitude for the countless tokens of your kindness, love, and mercy which you have given me in the last five troubled years, but, above all, for your letter of yesterday, which has moved me indescribably. Your fatherly love and goodness, your deep sympathy with my hard fate, the recalling of my royal duties, the acknowledgment of the worthiness of her whom I love, the allusion to all those attempts which your love for your children bade you make in order to fulfil the wishes of my heart—to find all this in those lines which decided my fate, sheds comfort and inexpressible gratitude on my broken heart. I shall justify your trust, and by trampling down my deep grief and steadfastly bearing the inevitable I shall overcome. So I close these important lines, with a broken heart, but with a heart that clings to you, dearest father, more lovingly than ever. For your fatherly love was never greater than in this hard decision."

Three years after this letter, Prince William led the Princess Augusta of Saxe-Weimar to the altar. Elise remained unmarried, living in the retirement of her family estate, a guardian angel to all who came near her. She died of consumption in 1833. Very properly does the editor of Prince William's letters apply to this romance of princely life in the nineteenth century the old German ballad—

"Es waren zwei Königskinder,
Die hatten einander so lieb;
Sie konnten zusammen nicht kommen,
Das Wasser war viel zu tief."

— President Eliot's Harvard University report for the past year is on the whole buoyant in tone. The stream of beneficence has not failed, salutary reforms in guidance and in discipline have been instituted, living has been made cheaper. "The cost of living in Cambridge is lower now than at any time since 1861." A problem to be attacked is the shortening of the college course. "Wherever the fault, and whatever the remedy, it is clear that the degree of Bachelor of Arts is taken in the United States later than in any other country in which the degree is used, and too late for the best interests of the individuals who aspire to it, and of the institutions which confer it." The problem of college athletics has hardly begun to be solved, but President Eliot's position is further advanced than ever. "What is desirable for the right conduct of college sports is, that all practice should be at home and only with other organizations within the same college." So far so good. But President Eliot would still retain inter-collegiate contests, confining them to "two fairly-matched colleges"—in other words, to Harvard and Yale. The foot-ball and base-ball leagues have miserably failed, he says, to effect reform or to prevent incessant misunderstandings. He rests his hopes of a dual arrangement, without league or association, on the relatively good conduct of the inter-collegiate boat-races. To our minds, the premises are faulty. These boat-races from the beginning, when they were the sole form of college contests, fostered a deplorable special antagonism between Harvard and Yale, kept alive the false muscular standard of college superiority, and were attended with all the evils inseparable from transporting large masses of excited youth to a distance from surveillance and restraint, together with betting. President Eliot records as "an agreeable incident of the year" a report on the "moral tone, intellectual earnestness, and general advantages" of the University by a committee of students drawn to it from other colleges. Passing by the disagreeable defensive appearance of such a document, we think it may be affirmed that nothing has done so much to stimulate rumors injurious to Harvard as the jealousies engendered by inter-collegiate contests, and that nothing will do so much to suppress the manufacture of such rumors as the total abolition of such contests and the sticking closely to business —*i. e.*, to the task of turning out the best equipped minds which the science and resources of the College can produce.

— The official relation of the public to the Yosemite is not popularly understood. In 1864 Congress gave the Yosemite Valley to the State of California, upon the condition that it should be inalienably held for public use, resort, and recreation, that it should be managed by an unpaid commission, and that the income derived from certain authorized limited leases should be devoted to its maintenance and improvement. The public spirited citizens who are or who have been the Board of Commissioners (for, in common with much of the public service in that troubled State, under the new Constitution, it has undergone changes which, in this case, the courts have yet to settle), although the recipients of local censure, appear to have discharged their duties with zeal and intelligence under very adverse conditions. For the State does not seem to realize the character of this treasure, and has treated it with the narrow-mindedness that the average legislator so often shows towards similar objects. For years not even the meagre salary due the local guardian was voted, preposterous claims for squatters' damages were seriously entertained, and the reservation seemed to be regarded as an endowment, not a trust. Two bridges across the Merced are the sole indications that the commonwealth has any interest in this domain. Indeed, excellent legal authority is of opinion that California has forfeited its title, and that the control might equitably and in law revert to the general Government. The Interior Department might administer it through an appropriate organization, to the benefit of the place and the advantage of its visitors. As it stands, the Commissioners are helpless to do more than to protect the valley from direct violence, and, by a maximum tariff, to avert such overcharges as disgrace many other public resorts. In the absence of positive means to render its beauties more accessible, they have authorized private parties to build toll trails to some of the more attractive points. The trails, made at considerable expense and kept in repair with great labor, lapse at the end of ten years to the Commission, but, meanwhile, the tolls, ranging from 50 cents to $1 and paid but once in a season, give a revenue to the builders. These moderate charges have been represented as extortions, and to those who are ignorant of the niggardliness of the State they seem inexplicable. But, really, that men could be found to construct these roads under the circumstances is a matter of public gratulation. When California discharges her duty towards the trust, and with broader policy brings its beauties fairly within reach, the swelling tide of visitors and their increased expenditure will repay the State, even in a material sense, a hundred fold.

BANCROFT'S UTAH.—II.

History of Utah. By Hubert Howe Bancroft. 1540–1887. San Francisco: The History Company. 8vo, pp. xlvii., 808.

THE outcome of Mormonism is still a problem of grave interest for the people of the United States. Its domination in Utah has, for a quarter of a century, kept that Territory from admission as a State into the Union. Although the "Gentile" population has of late years so largely increased that the Mormon rule in the municipality of Salt Lake City is seemingly about to end, the sect is no doubt largely in the ascendant in the Territory as a whole. The opening of the Union Pacific Railway and the death of Brigham Young were, respectively, events on which many persons confidently predicted the abandonment of polygamy or the dissolution of the church organization. More than twenty years have elapsed since the first, and more than twelve since the other, but Mormonism is still vigorous. Its leading men have learned some prudence from closer contact with the new elements which have invaded the Territory: but they have made no material change in their polity. It is probably true that the number of new polygamous marriages has diminished under the stringency of the acts of Congress, and some of the schisms in the body give hope that forces are at work to weaken the despotic control of the "apostles" and the "first presidency" over the masses of ignorant people who make up the great body of the Church. Yet if Utah were a State in the Union to-day, there is too much ground to expect that the whole power of the State organization would be used to drive away "Gentile" residents and restore a homogeneous Mormon community under a system in which Church and State would not be sim-

ply harmonious, but identical. They would not intentionally make war upon the national Government—the hopelessness of that is too apparent; but their past history shows their cunning skill in using the forms of popular government under the autocratic direction of the heads of the Church, so that the absolute decrees of a hierarchy shall be executed before the world in the guise of democracy and universal suffrage. It is beyond doubt the conviction of this, impressed upon the minds of public men who have attacked the problem, that has kept Utah for a whole generation within the grasp of national law. This is why reiterated denials have been returned by Congress to oft-repeated requests of the Territory for admission to the Union.

Although polygamy is now the odious feature first thought of when Mormonism is mentioned, it has not been the cause of the collisions between the Mormons and their neighbors. Missouri made war upon them and expelled them from her territory before polygamy was openly practised among them. They were driven from Illinois, and their famous temple at Nauvoo became a ruin, before the disgusting doctrine had been avowed; and one of the last acts of the Church on the east bank of the Mississippi was the excommunication of a preacher who had prematurely advocated it in public. We must look elsewhere for the cause of their collision with the people who lived near them, and for the constant tendency to make crusades against them. Ignorant impostors had been followed by deluded dupes before Joe Smith pretended to find the golden plates of a new revelation in Ontario County. Shakers and Dunkers had established religious communities, excluding the world, before the Mormons began to "gather unto Zion." Why, then, did these last so soon find every man's hand against them?

The word "crusade" itself suggests the answer. Like the Mohammedans, the Mormons distinctly avowed the intended triumph of their faith, and the establishment of the reign of the Latter-Day Saints upon the earth, by the physical conquest of the nations. The slaughter of the Amalekites was not to them a figure of speech representing a spiritual triumph of their faith by the submission of consciences: they meant it literally. Their publications and their harangues are full of the proof of it. Hardly had the "prophet" made the first organization of his Church at Kirtland, Ohio, when he formed a military company with a view to their march to Missouri. Later, the company expanded into the Nauvoo Legion with a lieutenant-general, nine major-generals and brigadiers, and a full complement of subordinates; the rank and file enrolling all the able-bodied men in the Church. This organization was never disbanded, and only ceased its public parades and drills when forbidden by Gov. Shaffer in Utah in 1870, after an unbroken existence of more than thirty years.

In 1831, Smith, by one of his formal "revelations," announced Independence, Mo. (in Jackson County), as the divinely appointed centre of Zion, and a location for the temple was fixed near the court-house. From this centre the kingdom of the Saints was to expand, first over the United States and then over the world. As a revelation by their "prophet" this has never been abrogated, and it is a curious fact that Brigham Young, in making his will in the last years of his life, provided for his burial in Utah, though he added, "but if I should live to go back with the Church to Jackson County, I wish to be buried there." No better proof could be given of tenacious adherence to the original purpose and faith in this respect, which was adopted in the earliest days of the Church.

The most striking feature in Mormon propagandism was its early success among the uneducated classes in England and Wales. The bands of recruits coming to them across the ocean made Smith and his counsellors overconfident and incautious. They were not the first to appeal to force: common prudence dictated that they should wait. Their visions of empire were preached abroad, however, as a means of attracting converts, and the rough neighborhoods of the frontier became excited. A backwoodsman is as capable as a king of understanding the practical maxim that if a collision is sure to come, the advantage is with the initiative. The real secret of the gathering of mobs lay there.

Smith's plan was to concentrate his followers, first obtaining control of a township and its legal organization, then of a county, then of a State. His people acting as a unit would elect magistrates, sheriffs, judges, and his "legion" would be the ever-ready *posse comitatus*. He himself, as the divinely inspired prophet and leader, would mould the will of his people like wax, and be the real power behind the simulacrum of popular sovereignty. The outbreak in Missouri came before his forces were all organized, and, after a bitter struggle, in which the Missourians were the aggressors and the Mormons the greater sufferers, the exodus was accomplished, and a new settlement was made at Nauvoo.

The Mormons were at first welcomed into Illinois, and a too liberal charter for their city was granted by the Legislature. The swelling tide of immigration turned the heads of the leaders, for Nauvoo became the largest city of the State, and the Mormon vote, cast as a unit, controlled the Congressional district by holding the balance of power between Whigs and Democrats. In the same way their power in the Legislature was such that Stephen A. Douglas, when first elected to the Senate of the United States, was called by his opponents "the Mormon Senator." Intoxicated by the tide of power which seemed to rush in his favor, Smith, in 1844, first interrogated the candidates for the Presidency with a view to the casting of the vote of his followers, and soon announced himself as a candidate. The Nauvoo municipality placed their ordinances above State laws. They enacted (as is declared by Gov. Ford, with whom they had affiliated politically),

> "that no writ issued from any other place than Nauvoo, for the arrest of any person in it, should be executed in this city, without an approval endorsed thereon by the Mayor; that if any public officer, by virtue of any foreign writ, should attempt to make an arrest in the city without such approval of his process, he should be imprisoned for life, and that the Governor of the State should not have the power of pardoning the offender without the consent of the Mayor."

A very small modicum of the spirit of prophesy should have taught Smith that a new collision was not far off. The occasion was the issue of the first number of an opposition paper in Nauvoo, charging the "prophet" with immoralities which have since become notorious. A second never was issued. The city council summarily declared the paper a nuisance, and the marshal, with a detachment of the "legion," destroyed the establishment with its press, type, etc. The local courts refused redress. The proprietors sought it in courts outside the Mormon settlement, while in Nauvoo the whole "legion" was put under arms and a defiant attitude taken. As had happened before in Missouri, however, and as happened later in Utah, the Church leaders gave way when brought face to face with actual war; and Smith, with his chief counsellors, submitted to arrest, treason being now added to the charges. The murder of Smith and his brother at the Carthage jail was by a disguised mob, with the usual pretext of mobs, that they feared the chicane and delay of the law. The militia of the State reassembled, but it was now to drive the Mormons from Illinois.

A second and more wonderful exodus took place. Brigham Young assumed the leadership by a sort of *coup d'état*, excommunicating Sidney Rigdon, his chief rival. It is not strange that, to a fanatical multitude saturated with the phraseology of the Jewish story, and with its idea of intense unity under a militant theocracy, the march across the plains seemed a miraculous exhibition of divine leadership. In the basin of the Great Salt Lake they seemed to be out of the reach of the world, and it was not altogether irrational for Brigham Young to think and to declare that in ten years he would build a community that could defy the United States. There was no change in general purpose or aim. Polygamy was openly proclaimed, but Smith's "revelation" concerning it dated back to 1843, nine years before its avowal. Its publication checked the spread of Mormonism in Europe as at home, and the culmination of the growth of the sect dates from that time.

In Utah the same causes which had operated in Missouri and Illinois produced the same results, modified by the new situation. The hierarchy was all in all. The forms of civil government were only to carry out the will of the Church, and this soon came to mean the will of Brigham Young, who from year to year was reëlected and installed "prophet, seer, and revelator." The attempt to set up a Territorial organization with "Gentile" judges and other officers proved a farce. It was tolerated so long as it did nothing. Probate courts were established by the Mormon Legislature in the several counties and given general jurisdiction, civil and criminal, with such obstacles in the way of appeal as to make this of no value. Juries in the United States courts, whether grand or petit, would enforce no law against the Mormon polity, or in any controversy between individuals at all involving questions of land tenure or personal tests. We may pass by the debatable ground concerning secret executions by the "Danites" at the command of the Church, or the "blood atonement" which terrorized any who leaned towards apostasy, and there is still plenty of material to show that the true seat of the disease in Utah, as in Nauvoo, is the close organization of a Church which declares its right to dominate the State, and to do it by force whenever the hierarchy shall regard it prudent, or shall think the time ripe for it. The repressive legislation of the United States cannot be understood except this be kept in mind. Polygamy is an incident which has simplified the problem by the disgust and hatred with which all civilized people view such an institution. To make a religious duty of the committal of a common-law crime, arouses universal antagonism, and gives a plain and simple point of attack. But, as has been shown, the cause of collision lies back of polygamy. It will not die when polygamy is suppressed, except as a general decay in the vitality of the sect shall accompany the suppression.

The problem before American statesmen, then, has been and still is, how to deal, under the forms of our democratic institutions, with an organized community which does not share

the spirit of those institutions, and does not assimilate with the rest of the people, but uses the powers and the privileges of citizenship with a real aim at destroying the State? The practical answer has not been illogical in substance, however inconsistent it may have been in form. It has been to ignore it when its strength is contemptible, to repress its criminal development and trust to time so long as desperate collision can be avoided, and to crush it ruthlessly when that limit is passed.

The necessity of general homogeneity in a State is a thing which Americans instinctively assume without arguing much about it. It is among the fundamentals of the unwritten law, lying beneath our formal constitutions themselves. By virtue of it we have shouldered off Indian tribes beyond our ever-advancing frontier, till we have planted the remnants upon reservations to dwindle away in the midst of a civilization few of them can comprehend or accept. The clashing between the practical unwritten law and over-elaborated theories of democracy has made us seem vacillating, unjust, cruel; but the tide of civilization has rolled on. The logic of events has been stronger than the logic of theorists.

The Mormon question is of the same sort. We have been charged with violating the sacred rights of majorities by refusing to let Utah govern itself like its much smaller neighbor, Nevada. We have been charged with imposing distasteful rulers upon a nominally free people. We have been charged with disfranchising citizens because of their religion, with setting up a minority rule, with packing juries, and with holding a community down by a standing army. It is all true in form, and if the answer that Mormonism is essentially unrepublican and un-American is not a sufficient answer, there is none. If the law of real political homogeneity as a necessary condition of a great State is in fact the most fundamental thing in political science, the answer is conclusive. The result will be that the pressure of the national hand will be felt till Mormonism dwindles into insignificance again and loses all importance as a political element in Utah. If it goes further, it will fare worse. He must be a very shallow reader of American history who does not see that the people will never long allow the forms of democracy to be used to destroy its substance, much less to set up an autocratic despotism.

FATHERS AND SONS.

James G. Birney and His Times. By William Birney. D. Appleton & Co. 1890.

On the 17th of September, 1830, Boston celebrated the 200th anniversary of its foundation. Among the lookers-on at the festival was a native Kentuckian of good family, who, a graduate of Princeton College, an eminent lawyer living at Huntsville, Ala., had come North on a mission from the University of Alabama to procure for that institution a president and several professors. Such a mission would of itself have insured him a cordial reception in the Athens of America. But Mr. Birney was a man of elegant appearance and manners, and possessed ample means; he was not only a gentleman, but a Southern gentleman, in the best sense of the term; withal he was a slaveholder, and in the eyes of Boston respectability this circumstance capped his social credentials. All doors were open to him. He met Webster and Ticknor, he called on President Everett at Harvard.

Amid the city's throng on the same occasion there was, in all probability, a youth younger by fourteen years than the Southern visitor, a native of Essex County, Mass., of obscure and very humble parentage and no family connections, uneducated beyond the grammar school, a printer by trade, an editor unsuccessful in three or four enterprises, poor as a church mouse, and a recent inmate of the Baltimore jail. He had just returned to Boston by way of Philadelphia, New York, and Hartford; and if he had counted upon any welcome to the city which was to be his future home, he had utterly forfeited it by publicly addressing en route sundry gatherings of "free niggers." Moreover, he carried in his pocket the draft of "Proposals for publishing a weekly periodical in Washington City, to be entitled the *Public Liberator, and Journal of the Times*," whose primary object was to be "the abolition of slavery, and the moral and intellectual elevation of our colored population."

Of these two men, however, Garrison was already the more widely known, since his trial for libel and imprisonment on account of his denunciation of the domestic slave trade had drawn the attention of the press and excited general comment. The movement which, a month later, he inaugurated in Boston, with an abolition lecture in the only hall procurable—that of "infidels"—was destined to shape the career, and consequently to determine the biography, of the high-bred Kentuckian. It was natural, therefore, to expect in any adequate Life of Birney some mention of the editor of the *Liberator*. The work before us does not err on this side. Its poverty-stricken index is rarely analytical, but to Birney are assigned three itemized columns, and to Garrison, ostentatiously, one, which is, besides, far from complete in its references. There are, indeed, very few pages on which one cannot read Garrison between the lines, and the fact is scarcely concealed that Garrison and not Birney is the main subject of what purports to be biography and history, and is really one long defamation of a person whose name does not appear in the title.

The author's story of the genesis of this production is curious. He relates in his preface that his father had always met, on the part of anti-slavery historians, with "such a consensus of favorable appreciation" that "there seemed to be no need of a [second] biography of James G. Birney. It transpired, however," he continues, "about 1883, that the sons of Mr. Garrison were preparing an ample memoir of their father—a work which, from a filial standpoint, involved the reproduction and expression of Mr. Garrison's theories and prejudices. The first two volumes of the memoir appeared in [October] 1885." We pause to remark that the undertaking of a family biography was announced, within three weeks of Mr. Garrison's death, in the *Nation* of June 12, 1879 (p. 405). That it would be "ample" was unknown to any one at that time or in 1883. That it would "involve the reproduction and expression of Mr. Garrison's theories and prejudices" was equally unknown till 1885; but as this meant simply painting Mr. Garrison as he was, it ought really to have caused alarm to nobody, but rather to have inspired confidence in his biographers. Gen. Birney's phraseology, however, is intended to convey the idea of misrepresentation and distortion, as he shows by citing an *obiter dictum* of Mr. A. G. Riddle's, in 1886, that the "way of writing history lately attempted" in the 'Life of Garrison' should not be "accepted without protest," and that the work was a "challenge" to "the sons of the late J. G. Birney."

By this subtle but incoherent tissue, Gen. Birney insinuates that his rest was undisturbed till 1883, and not completely broken till 1885, and perhaps that he even needed the incentive of his neighbor Riddle to undertake the filial duty of showing how history should be written. He next records the completion of the 'Life of Garrison' in October, 1889, and only then says that he (as a "surviving political abolitionist") cannot afford to let it go without protest—as if he had accomplished his task between that date and January 10, 1890. Now the truth is, that as far back as 1881 he gave publicity to his intention to write a 'Life and Times' of his father, showing the "rise, growth, and success of the anti-slavery movement in the United States." This notice was copied into the *Nation* of September 29, 1881 (p. 254); and a passage on p. 105 of the present work shows that in 1882 he was in correspondence on the subject. In short, neither the contents nor the method of the 'Life of Garrison,' nor any rumor about them, had anything to do with Gen. Birney's motive in writing the Life of his father.

This *suppressio veri* and *suggestio falsi* is characteristic of every part of the volume before us, and it is bewildering to choose examples from such a mass. The orderliness of the narrative (and its completeness) is entirely sacrificed to the necessity of belittling, discrediting, and reviling Mr. Garrison from beginning to end. This is obvious to the most casual reader, and is the sole explanation of the author's meddling with the "Times," instead of confining himself to a straightforward "Life." His epigraph reads: "The abolition of slavery in the United States was neither an accident nor a miracle; it was a result of evolution." We do not know any one who disputes this truism, except Mr. Eli Thayer of Massachusetts. What Gen. Birney intimates by it is, not that Garrison had predecessors, but that his accession to the cause was unimportant, save in impeding and retarding it. To this end, he applies indiscriminately, as suits his fancy, the terms "abolitionist" and "immediate abolitionist" to any one who detested slavery before 1830, thus picturing a state of things satirized by Mr. Garrison in 1831 in these words: "Everybody is opposed to slavery. . . . O yes! there is an abundance of philanthropy among us: the difficulty is, we have *too much*, instead of *too little* of it. . . . *There is nobody to reform* (except the reformers)—here lies the difficulty."

James G. Birney, to his everlasting credit, worked himself, in a truly religious spirit, out of the slaveholding relation, emancipating the few domestic servants retained when he gave up plantation life, and later those bequeathed (by agreement) by his father as his portion of the latter's estate. As in the case of many others, his first stopping-place in his abolition pilgrimage was the American Colonization Society, of which he became an earnest agent till convinced of its essential folly and wickedness. What was this Society? Gen. Birney does not think it incumbent on him to give any direct account of it; and though he honors his father for abandoning it in 1834, he quotes with relish J. G. Birney's reference, in 1832-'33, to the "rhapsodies" of Mr. Garrison's destructive pamphlet, 'Thoughts on Colonization' (published in 1832), together with the official Colonization abuse of Mr. Garrison for it. Birney by and by removes to Kentucky, and founds, in March, 1835, a State anti-slavery society at Danville, auxiliary to the American Anti-Slavery Society. What was this parent Society? Who was at the bottom of it? Why were all the anti-slavery societies formed later in affiliation with it? Gen. Birney does not immediately enlighten his readers: the "evolution" is at work, and they should be

satisfied. In Appendix C they will learn, if they are tolerant of falsification in fine print as well as in large, that the Philadelphia Convention which founded the American Anti-Slavery Society in 1833 was but one in a long series of "associations of a national character to promote the abolition of slavery"—only this and nothing more; that Garrison had no hand in calling it, and, though he drew up the Declaration of Sentiments (including a rough draft invented by Gen. Birney in order to get it rejected by Mr. Garrison's fellow-committeemen), he played a very subordinate part throughout.

Forcibly prevented from publishing an anti-slavery paper in Kentucky, Mr. Birney crossed the Ohio, and in January, 1836, started the *Philanthropist* at New Richmond, with a speedy transfer to Cincinnati. Simultaneously he was made a member of the Executive Committee of the State (Garrisonian) Anti-Slavery Society, which he had helped to found the previous year, and he rendered efficient aid in multiplying affiliated societies, every one of which, on any rational principle of "evolution," was derived from the organization unquestionably founded by Garrison in Boston on January 1, 1832. Mr. Birney had no illusions on this subject, but his son industriously conceals the relationship, nor does he dwell on the parallel between the mob which, on July 30, 1836, destroyed the press of the *Philanthropist*, and that more famous one in which Mr. Garrison was involved on October 21, 1835, both having the approbation and participation of the most respectable citizens, and having been preceded by public meetings instigating to mob violence. At the Cincinnati meeting J. G. Birney's conduct was intrepid and admirable (he was absent during the sacking of his office), but the son would fain magnify it by making light of the Garrison mob, which he characteristically dismisses without even naming the chief victim of it. The father, on the other hand, in his letter of December 9, 1835, to the Alabamians, in defence of the Garrisonian abolitionists, wrote of the same event:

"You have excited your instruments to war against associations of unoffending and respectable females [the Boston Female Anti-Slavery Society]; to trample under their unhallowed feet, in the person of an American citizen [Garrison], the most sacred immunities of law, and to shout their fierce triumphs over Constitutional rights, and to celebrate their foul orgies in the face of day, and almost in the vestibule of the venerated 'cradle of liberty' [Faneuil Hall]."

In 1837 the magnet of the American Anti-Slavery Society drew Birney out of journalism into official connection with this body, and led to his removal to New York to become Corresponding Secretary. At this point his son's reticence or lack of original material is most felt, for there was opportunity to make an interesting contribution to the history of the anti-slavery cause. Before leaving Cincinnati and the *Philanthropist*, Mr. Birney had taken sides with the New York Executive Committee and the Massachusetts orthodox clerical abolitionists in the matter of the censorship sought to be enforced upon Mr. Garrison's theological opinions. We are told that the impending schism was the main inducement for Birney to come to New York and take the post occupied by Judge Jay. But no proof is furnished unless it be the fact that he never proffered hospitality to the editor of the *Liberator*.

Thoroughly disingenuous is the whole treatment of Birney's views as to political action. His son pretends that he was the first who "called abolitionists away from obsolete issues to true ones," but he does not name these issues, neither does he point, nor can he point, to any article in Garrison's Declaration of Sentiments—the abolition creed—which it was proposed to drop when the moral organization should be converted into a political machine, as Birney and his friends came to desire. Gen. Birney, on the other hand, studiously conceals the fact that, down to 1839, there was no opposition between his father and Mr. Garrison as to the catechising of candidates for office, or as to voting (if one chose to vote) for anti-slavery men. He is silent about a circular signed by his father in July, 1838, preferring independent catechism to separate party nominations—the ground consistently maintained by Garrison.

The change and the division came when the agitation for a third party began to make head in central New York, and when Mr. Birney made his amusing attempt to read the founder of the American Anti-Slavery Society out of it because of some Quakerish scruples about his own voting. Gen. Birney's account of this collision is neither full nor fair. It ended, in 1840, in the secession of Mr. Birney and his friends from the Garrisonian organization, in Birney's virtual withdrawal from the anti-slavery propaganda, and relegation to the function of a standing Presidential candidate—by fitness, not by self-seeking—until he was physically disabled in 1845, when the story of his life ceases. Meanwhile, he had been sent abroad to the World's Anti-Slavery Convention of 1840 as a delegate nominally of the American Anti-Slavery Society, but really of the Executive Committee hostile to Garrison, and foreseeing its overthrow at the annual meeting. The funds voted him by the Committee for his travelling expenses were taken from the Society's treasury on the same day when it was voted, for the want of a smaller sum, to transfer the Society's organ, the *Emancipator*, to another ownership—an act which Birney's kinsman, Gerrit Smith, declared indefensible, and concerning which it would be desirable to learn Birney's opinion, seeing that he was a member of the Committee. But his son is dumb on this delicate subject, and inexcusably puts in the background, with slight apologetic mention, his father's greatest literary monument—the historic pamphlet composed during his English tour, called 'The American Churches the Bulwarks of Slavery.' The Rev. Beriah Green, in his 'Campaign Life of Birney' (1844, p. 91), on the other hand, declared "it must not be disposed of with a passing notice merely," and gave five pages to it. His son's moderation is accounted for by his policy of emphasizing Mr. Garrison's "infidelity" in season and out of season.

We have left ourselves no space to comment on Gen. Birney's failure to give a true or compact and consecutive narrative of the rise, course, and fall of the Liberty party and its successors. Nor, which we much regret, can we dwell upon his father's merits as an abolitionist, or on that private life which Gen. Birney relates (when he has an eye single to it) with candor and charm. Our author is confident that Garrison bore towards his parent "a deadly hatred which grew stronger with years, and which he appears to have transmitted in all its venom to his descendants [*i. e.*, his biographers]." This is purely mythical. At the height of their opposition on grounds of anti-slavery policy, viz., in 1840, Garrison expressed satisfaction that Birney had been so well received in England as an American abolitionist (Life, vol. ii, p. 431). In the *Liberator* of December 4, 1857, he devoted an article to Birney, by way of obituary, full of generous praise of his character and services to the cause from 1834 to 1840—

"when he joined the malcontents, and committed an error which proved fatal to his usefulness, and which, we doubt not, he deeply regretted toward the close of his life; for it is only a short time since he made a donation to the treasury of that [American Anti-Slavery] Society, and in other ways he has indicated a friendly interest in its welfare. He was highly courteous and dignified in his manners, less able as a speaker than as a writer, true to his convictions, and devoid of sectarian malevolence."

Such was Garrison's legacy of "deadly hatred." That the elder Birney became reconciled to a Society presided over not only by a non-resistant and an "infidel," but (in 1857) by a disunionist (for freedom's sake), and gave money towards its support, is a fact assuredly not to be looked for in Gen. Birney's diatribe, which it makes ridiculous. Half-a-dozen chapters at most would have sufficed to contain all the novel information concerning his father which he has chosen to give. A truer impression of J. G. Birney can still be got from Green's Life, which abounds in quotations from his writings. All of Gen. Birney's history of the "Times" is tainted by his leading motive to malign Garrison, in which he has been greatly assisted by the Life of the latter, with its convenient store of censure and opprobrium set forth without garbling or dislocation in time, place, or circumstance.

RECENT WORKS ON GEOLOGY.

Metamorphism of Rocks. By Dr. A. Irving, D.S.C., B.A., F.G.S. Longmans, Green & Co. 1889.

Creation and Physical Structure of the Earth. By John Thornhill Harrison, F.G.S., M.Inst. C.E. Longmans, Green & Co. 1889.

Handbook of Geology, for the Use of Canadian Students. By Sir J. William Dawson, Principal of McGill University. Montreal: Dawson Bros. 1889.

THE three works above referred to represent fairly well three different types of geological publications of the present day. The first is an essay, from the point of view of the chemist and physicist, on one of the most abstruse and subtle problems that the geologist has to deal with—namely, the character and cause of the various changes that rock masses have undergone since their original formation, which in earlier times were comprehensively designated metamorphism, with little or no attempt on the part of those using it to discriminate between the different kinds of changes produced, or the necessary differences in the causes which could be assigned to them. The opposite tendency, and the danger to which it leads some too ambitious geologists of the present day, is well characterized by the author in the following words:

"In the conflict of opinions and views which has been waged for years over those phenomena connected with rock structure, which are generally understood to be included under the term 'metamorphism' in its more restricted sense, it is to be feared that many 'theories' which have been put forward from time to time are simply suspended in the air; instead of hanging on to a series of rigid *inductions from facts*, they have often little more than the imagination of their authors to rest upon."

Dr. Irving's work gives internal evidence of extensive personal research and investigation in the laboratory and library. His language is as involved, as full of parenthetical clauses, and consequently as difficult of comprehension, as that of the typical German investigator. While his reading of Continental and American works is unusual for an Englishman, it was apparently taken up somewhat as an afterthought, and the naïve surprise he frequently expresses that, in the conclusions he had laboriously reached, he had already been forestalled

by foreign authors, is thoroughly British. The rather strong and often contemptuous language in which he characterizes what he considers the errors of other geologists, is apt to lead the reader to suspect him of that rashness of statement which is a characteristic of immaturity. Still, his work, though containing no striking novelties, is of undoubted value to special students as a summary of the present state of knowledge of the chemical and physical side of this complicated problem, whose ultimate solution tends to a knowledge of the character and manner of formation of the primeval crust of the earth.

To most geologists who might be attracted by the title of Mr. Harrison's book, the sight of verses from Genesis i. at the head of each chapter would sufficiently typify the probable character of the book, as one of those many emanations from the minds of well-meaning men in whom a little knowledge has indeed proved a dangerous thing, and who think that the inspiration of a truly religious spirit will enable them to reach the final truths of geology, which the actual workers therein have missed through the want of this spirit. Perusal will show, however, that Mr. Harrison's work is superior to most of its class in that it is the result of a great deal of reading by one who must have had some grounding in geology, since he was a pupil of the late Prof. J. D. Forbes. He modestly disclaims the pretension that he shall be able to establish in this work a perfect "theory of the whole earth," but hopes to afford a basis for it, considering that the problem to be solved very much resembles a Chinese puzzle, the pieces of which are all given, the difficulty being to put them together. It is on this notion that his book is constructed, the pieces of his Chinese puzzle consisting of short quotations from a few excellent geological authors, such as Buckland, Lyell, Prestwich, Geikie, Bonney, and others, arranged in his own peculiar way, so as to support his conclusions, which, when differing from those of the authors quoted, are, as might be expected, of no scientific value whatever. Such books, however, like the more ingenious and imaginative speculations of Donnelly, will always find readers among people of that class who have more faith in quacks than in regularly educated physicians.

More modest in form, but of greater intrinsic value than either of the above, is the work of the veteran geologist, Principal (now Sir William) Dawson. Although described as a handbook for the use of teachers, and for scientific travellers in the Dominion, it is in reality an epitome of the geology of that immense and (until within a few years) comparatively unexplored region stretching from our northern boundary towards the Arctic Circle. The Geological Survey of Canada, though much less richly endowed than that of the United States, and having a more inaccessible region to examine, has yet accomplished very valuable results, especially in late years, which are summarized in this volume. In general, these correspond with those of their brother geologists in the United States, but on some points they still differ.

With regard to glacial movements in the extreme north, Dawson says:

> "The facts so far developed in this northern part of the continent, and in the Arctic islands, thus point to a movement of ice outward in all directions from the great Laurentian axis, or plateau, which extends from Labrador round the southern extremity of Hudson's Bay to the Arctic Sea, rather than to any general flow of ice from the vicinity of the geographical pole southward."

He still clings, however, to the old method of accounting for many glacial phenomena as the result of floating ice, thus necessitating the supposition of very great subsidences of present land areas during the glacial period. British conservatism is also shown in the unwillingness of Canadian geologists to accept the natural classification of the so-called Huronian rocks, proposed by the late R. D. Irving, as opposed to the extremely artificial and unnatural ones originally established by Logan and Hunt.

Arne, and the Fisher Lassie. By Björnstjerne Björnson. Translated from the Norse by Walter Low. [Bohn's Novelists' Library.] London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Scribner & Welford.

If the number of translations is the criterion of popularity of a foreign book, then both stories contained in the present volume have enjoyed an amount far beyond the ordinary allotment, for the present is the third English version of 'Arne' and the fourth of the 'Fisher Lassie.' There is here, however, in each case a proper justification for a new translation. Mr. Low has improved upon all of his predecessors, immeasurably upon some of them, and gives us, at last, an English rendition that retains in an admirable degree both the characteristic spirit of the original and that apparently artless simplicity which is itself the perfection of art, easy, perhaps, to appreciate, but difficult to catch and to hold through the medium of another language.

The two stories, although alike generically "village novels," are widely different in character, but it is a happy thought to bring them together in one volume. 'Arne' belongs to the early period of Björnson's literary life (it was written in 1858), and shows its youth in a freedom and freshness of manner which in an older writer is either apt to be repressed as immature, or, more frequently, is soon utterly lost is spite of all effort to retain it. The story tells how the peasant boy, Arne, whose talents his drunken fiddler father abuses in encouraging him to make ribald verses, comes through the fire unscathed, and, at last, like the lad in the fairy tale who gets the princess, carries off as his wife the fairest girl in the whole countryside. It is a pure idyll, in which the landscape is supplied by the mountains of Norway, with their pine-covered sides and sloping fields and wide views across the lake to the isolated farmsteads on its shores. The materials of the story are often sordid enough, and not over-poetic, but the author has given it all a spirit that invariably lifts it above its environment and turns towards us its brighter side. The prose is interspersed with Arne's songs.

The 'Fisher Lassie' is a novel of stronger purpose, and shows in every way a firmer and maturer literary power. It appeared originally in 1868, ten years after 'Arne' was written. The intervening period was for Björnson one of constant literary activity, and some of his best dramatic work lies within it. From 1865 to 1867, he was director of the theatre at Christiania, and to this fact is clearly due the motive of this story, which is a strong and manly plea for the profession of the actor. Petra, the "Fisher Lassie," who has succeeded to her title from her mother, leads, as a child, her hordes of street urchins in all their mad pranks, but is taken in hand by the son of the village pastor, and given an education much above her rank in life. Afterwards, driven away an outcast by her own unthinking folly, but guiltless of any deeper fault, she comes to Bergen and for the first time sees a play at the theatre. When she is made to understand that it is acting, and not reality, that she has seen, she determines then and there that she will follow what she says to herself surely is "the greatest calling on earth." The director, to whom she presents herself, finds that she has not the slightest conception of what being an actor implies, and none of its requirements, and, chagrined beyond measure, she again flees anywhere to be away from it all, but this time falls into the good hands of a clergyman far up among the mountains. It is her career here, and the struggle of the old clergyman with his preconceived opinions about the stage and their final overthrow, that form the main argument of the story; and the book ends when the curtain rises at the first appearance of the young actress, before whom in the audience sit the clergyman, her mother, who had cast her adrift, and her benefactor and whilom lover, the pastor's son, whom she had renounced for her art's sake. It is a story admirable in purpose and admirably told. Its situations are distinctively dramatic, and the principal characters have to a rare degree the quality of personality that leaves them behind in the memory as unmistakably real.

In grouping 'Arne' and the 'Fisher Lassie' together, the translator has not only associated two stories that show different phases of Björnson's literary work, but he has thus incidentally instituted a comparison of some interest between an earlier and a later point in a career that belongs not only to Norway, but to the world.

A Study of Ben Jonson. By Algernon Charles Swinburne. Worthington Co. 1889.

The general character of Swinburne's criticism has been so amply illustrated in his previous volumes upon the dramatists and others that one knows beforehand the sort of laudation which he will bestow upon Jonson, and anticipates the pæan of appreciation, relieved by damnatory clauses visited upon some convenient blockhead, which he will raise in the "Laureate's" praise. He surveys the entire work of Jonson, plays, masques, lyrics, and the 'Discoveries,' in much detail. The method he employs has the disadvantage of rendering his criticism almost wholly useless to those who are not intimately acquainted with the special work at the moment considered; but as the stress of the author's eloquence necessarily bears upon the four or five principal dramas, the reader who may never have devoured the whole of the poet's work gets a sufficient idea of the amount, or perhaps one may better say of the temperature, of Swinburne's approval of the first of "the giants." Reasons are always few in this critic's pages; but vehemence of panegyric shows the extent to which in each particular case he has been excited by the poet's power.

He does not praise Jonson, however, without reservation. His old distinction between the "giants" (Dryden, Byron, and Jonson) and the "gods" (Shakspere and Shelley) stands him in good stead and marks out a convenient limit to his eulogy. He denies to Jonson the divine inspiration, the free song, the charm of the born poet. Lyrical power, he declares, this dramatist did not really possess, and though he wrote, by happy accident, a few excellent stanzas occasionally, yet he never really sang, like Barnwell, for example. This limitation of the praise accorded to Jonson seems to us in the right line, since he has been overvalued as a lyrical writer in this century. Otherwise, Swinburne does not add to our knowledge of Jonson's art or genius. He seems to think that the poet's 'Discoveries' have never been heard of before,

and brings them forward as a treasure-trove; but they are well worth the emphasis and relief which they thus gain. Finally, the object of Swinburne's objurgation in this instance is the editors of the text upon which he ventures a few emendations, several of which are excellent, but all do not seem to us improvements.

A Race with the Sun. By Carter H. Harrison. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THE letters which Mr. Harrison sent home to the newspapers in Chicago, of which city he was formerly Mayor, have been collected by him, and in condensed form printed in a handsome octavo volume. The book weighs more than four pounds, contains 569 pages, and 32 full-page illustrations. The fair white paper, wide margins, handsome binding, and clear pictures make this one of the most attractive works of travel issued during the past year; but in the main it cannot be said that the text is vastly above the average of people who travel round the world and then make books. More than fifteen years of official life and wide observation of men and things in our own country certainly prepared Mr. Harrison to see the seven great wonders of the world, and thousands of minor matters into which the average tourist does not inquire and for which he does not look. The generous interlarding of his pages with American slang, however, and his manifest receptivity for the local misinformation so plentiful at the Hong, tea-table, and club-house of the commercial ports of the East, mar his text, and show that better editing of his material would have improved it as a book. The use of the English language is not that of the purist or the pedant, and the liberties taken with it are noticeable. Some words are used in a sense not known to the standard dictionaries, though probably understood in Chicago.

Mr. Harrison has named his lively book 'A Race with the Sun,' because he took his course round the world westward. He occupied more than five hundred days, making a sixteen-months' tour of Manitoba, Oregon, Washington, Japan, China, Siam, Burmah, India, Ceylon, Egypt, Greece, Turkey, and the countries of northern Europe. Being in company with two lads, he took pains to see what would interest young eyes, as well as his own. He met a great many eminent people, and was well received in many places. Probably in no other volume printed in the year of grace 1889 shall we find so full and clear a picture of that part of the world which lies in the beaten track of the world-compassing tourist.

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Bartholomew, J. Library Reference Atlas of the World. With general index. Macmillan & Co. $18.
Bingham, Capt. D. The Marriages of the Bourbons. 2 vols. Scribner & Welford. $7.50.
Catalogue of the Books in the Legislative Library of Nova Scotia. Halifax, N. S.
Cesaresco, Countess E. M. Italian Characters in the Epoch of Unification. Scribner & Welford. $3.75.
Collier, T. S. Song Spray. New London, Conn.: Carl J. Viets.
Cremona, L. Graphical Statics. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. $2.25.
Crookshank, Prof. E. M. History and Pathology of Vaccination. 2 vols. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co.
De Leon, T. C. Juny; or, Only One Girl's Story. Mobile: Gossip Printing Co. 50 cents.
Dobson, A. Selected Poems of Matthew Prior. Scribner & Welford. $2.
Dodge, Col T. A. Great Captains: Alexander. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Dilke, C. W. Problems of Greater Britain. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Haeckel, Prof. E. Natürliche Schöpfungs-Geschichte. 8th ed. 2 vols. Berlin: Georg Reimer.
Hall, A. D., and Heckel, G. B. Journal of Marie Bashkirtseff. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Hartmann, Dr. F. Magic, White and Black. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Hudson, W. C. Jack Gordon, Knight Errant. Gotham, 1883. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Kingsley, C. Alton Locke. Macmillan & Co. 25 cents.
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		$16,860,367 12
DISBURSEMENTS.		
Claims by death	$860,842 00	
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Payments to Annuitants	90 12	
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†Premium Abatements	532,383 54	
Total Paid Policy-holders	$1,790,047 35	
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Taxes and Legal Expenses	$105,077 70	
Salaries, Medical Fees, and Office Expenses	139,885 84	
Commissions to Agents and Rents	371,176 48	
Agency and Other Expenses	126,407 92	
Advertising, Printing, and Supplies	26,448 74	
Office Furniture	2,925 95	$2,561,969 98
Net Assets, January 1, 1890		$14,298,397 14
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ASSETS.		
City Loans, Railroad and Water Bonds, Bank and other Stocks		$6,260,161 15
Mortgages and Ground Rents (first liens)		4,499,206 24
Premium Notes secured by Policies, etc.		597,479 38
Loans on Collaterals, etc		1,974,865 75
Home Office and Real Estate bought to secure loans		813,808 88
Cash in Trust Companies and on hand		152,875 74
Net Ledger Assets, as above		$14,298,397 14
Net Deferred and Unreported Premiums		403,205 92
Interest Due and Accrued, etc		110,488 32
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Gross Assets, January 1, 1890		$15,174,078 23
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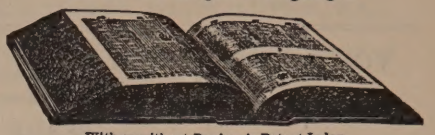

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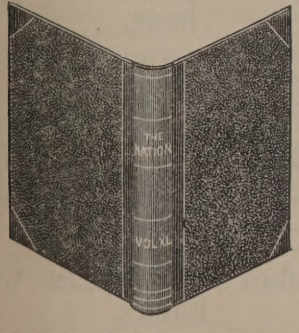

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 13, 1890.

The Week.

THERE will be little surprise in the public mind at the announcement which is made, in the *Times's* Washington despatches, that President Harrison's removals from and changes in Federal offices during the first year of his term are nearly double those during the first year of President Cleveland's term. The grand total is 35,800, against Cleveland's 20,500. Nothing is more generally accepted as a matter of course now than that the Harrison Administration is thoroughly given over to the spoils view of public office. There is no longer any pretence in the muzzled organs of the Republican party that the civil-service-reform pledges of the candidate and the party's platform are observed by the Administration. The man who wrote in his letter of acceptance, "Only the interests of the public service should suggest removals from office," is now universally regarded as the most subservient disciple of the spoils doctrine who has occupied the Presidential chair since the Civil-Service Law was enacted.

Mr. Saltonstall has declined the dinner offered to him by his friends in Massachusetts, and in doing so has taken occasion to give a statement of his views upon the value of civil-service reform. He says, among other things:

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And this is the official whom President Harrison, in defiance of his own personal pledges, removed from office before the end of his term in order to turn that office, thus organized and conducted on civil-service-reform principles, over to a Republican spoils politician.

One Republican paper has at last found the courage to mention the *Tribune's* confession that "Hill succeeded [in 1888] only because he was able to sell a Presidency for a Governorship." It is the New Haven *Palladium*, and its explanation of what it calls "the *Tribune's* chance remark" and "off-hand statement" is quite interesting. The main points of it are:

"While there was no deliberately planned exchange of Democratic Gubernatorial votes for Republican Presidential ballots, we presume during that memorable November day in 1888 the machinations of the Democrats brought about many such an exchange of votes. *The dirty work was done wholly by Democrats.* We say this, not merely claiming superior virtue for Republican workers, but because the exchanges were made on Hill territory, and by Hill men, who worked with the inspiration of despair. To elect Hill and secure immunity from attack was the care of the saloon interest. They operated on the ignorant and vicious of the voters. This disreputable Democratic trickery was practised to some extent in New York, notably in the Albany district, directly under the Hill personality. The Harrison workers there were few, while Hill's cohorts were strong and active. The Democrats engineered any exchange of votes that may have been effected, and operated among the lower class of voters. There was but little of it done, Hill's plurality being explained, as we have said, by his personal strength, and Cleveland's weakness by the distrust of farmers and the industries of the Mills bill. These are the facts, and truth fears nothing."

As nearly as we are able to comprehend this able piece of ratiocination, it amounts to a declaration that there was very little trading anyway between the Hill and Harrison forces, and what little there was was all on one side. "The dirty work," says the *Tribune's* defender, "was done wholly by Democrats." Whether that means that Hill sold and nobody bought, or Hill bought and nobody sold, we are not clear, for we are unable to comprehend trading of any kind which has only one side.

The remarkable gains made by the Democrats in the municipal elections held in Iowa and New York on Monday week are symptoms of what is in store for the Republican party in the near future. In both States the Democrats have carried cities which have been Republican strongholds for years, and in most cases the victories have been secured by majorities which indicate changes in party lines which are practically revolutionary. In another quarter, Rhode Island, the Democrats leave no opportunity for doubt as to their position on the questions of the day. In their State Convention last week, their Chairman said that though the Republicans succeeded in 1888 by means of unblushing bribery in getting their candidate into the White House—the *Tribune* says they bought the Presidency of Gov. Hill, which was certainly unblushing bribery—yet there is no man in the country to-day whose words have so large an audience and are so carefully read as those of Grover Cleveland; that the Democrats of Rhode Island were proud even in defeat to have Cleveland for a leader; and that the principles he enunciated were the principles of the Democratic party, particularly those on tariff reform and ballot reform. The Convention applauded the Chairman's views, and adopted a platform which embodied and emphasized them. Such is the attitude of the Democratic party in a State which, in proportion to its size, outranks all other States in the value of its manufacturing industries. It is the utterance of a party also which polled nearly 5,000 more votes in the last election than the Republican party did, and which would be in control in the State to-day did a plurality elect there as it does in most other States.

Congressman Cannon of Illinois is entitled to the thanks of the whole country for his resistance to the ravages of the public-building grabbers, who seem to be struggling with the pension agents to see which of the two can dispose of the surplus most rapidly. Of course any member of the House who stands in the way of grabbing must expect to be sneered at by the grabbers as a being too good for this world. So we are not surprised to hear Mr. Milliken of Maine saying: "Of course, we all understand that my friend from Illinois is posing as the Father of the House and taking care of the Treasury and all that, and we all want to help him so far as we can." Yes, Mr. Milliken is helping him to a large measure of public confidence and himself to the opposite. All these building jobs are put forward with the plea that the Government is paying large sums for rent for its post-offices, etc., and that it is better to own the buildings and stop the rent, whereas in most cases the care and repair of the new buildings, to say nothing of interest on the money expended, will exceed the total rent now paid. Such, we suspect, will prove to be the case in San José, Cal., which was voted a building the other day to cost $200,000, the lot alone costing $75,000. The town is in a Congressional district which embraces a part of the city of San Francisco, where most of the Government business of the district is done. The report for the building sets forth in a magniloquent way that the Government business of all kinds, postal and other, transacted in the district (not in San José alone) amounts to $35,000 per annum. A great many cigar-stores and liquor-saloons in California do more business than that. On account of this $35,000 worth of business, San José was voted a building to cost $200,000. Mr. Cannon was quite right when he said that the town of Danville in his own district was as well entitled to a Government building. The rent paid by the Government for its accommodations in Danville, he added, was only $700 per year. The cost of care and repairs on a $200,000 building will be three times that sum, at the lowest calculation.

Senator Stanford's resolution in favor of lending the money of the Government to farmers on mortgage at 2 per cent. interest is apparently put forward seriously. There are so many new schemes of finance simmering in the heads of our public men, all

tending to upset the laws of trade and the relations of *meum* and *tuum*, that we think they ought to be consolidated in one comprehensive measure making every man's check legal tender up to a certain fair amount, to be determined by a committee in each Congressional district. The basis for apportioning the right of legal tender might be fixed according to the amount of a man's property. This would accord best with the Stanford idea. But a more equitable arrangement would be to make a man's debts the basis of his exercise of this right, since the man who has property has better opportunities to get money from banks and private lenders. He has an obvious advantage over the man who has only debts for a basis. There have always been people in the world, since banks were first invented, who wanted to issue money on the "basing" process. Give them a base, and they would furnish any amount of money required. Real estate has generally been the most attractive base, but we think that personal property ought to have an equal chance, and that something might be said for debts. We hope that Senator Stanford will not take the narrow-minded view of the subject which his resolution, at first blush, would seem to imply.

In his speech on the Blair Mendicancy Bill, Senator Spooner of Wisconsin called attention again, in his vigorous, incisive way, to the basis of distribution of the $77,000,000 to the States, as follows:

"It is not apportioned upon the basis of illiteracy among the children of school age, but it is apportioned among the States and Territories upon the basis of illiteracy as shown by the census of 1880, without any regard whatever to age, so that there enter into and become a part of that basis of apportionment about 2,900,000 people who, even in 1880, were too old ever to go to the public schools. If the object is to treat illiteracy as a common enemy, and strike at it with the Federal hand full of gold wherever it is found in the United States, then there is neither principle nor philosophy in that basis of apportionment. The apportionment should be based upon illiteracy among those of school age who can be benefited by the appropriation when it shall have been made. In other words, the plaster should be put upon the sore instead of over the entire body, that which is well together with that which is ill."

He then went on to show that, when the States get the money on that false and unphilosophical basis, the distribution in the States is to be made in the same way as their own school fund is distributed. But their own school funds are distributed to white schools and colored schools separately, and the larger part to white schools, although much the larger part of the illiteracy is among the blacks. The same rule would control the distribution of the Federal aid. So that while the illiteracy of Uncle Remus and Daddy Jake and other aged plantation hands would form the basis for parcelling out the aid *to* the States, the stream would turn a short corner *in* the States, and the larger part would go to places where it was least needed.

Here is more protection run mad. Under the title "Our Tin Costs Less Than Half," the New York *Press* prints the following paragraph:

"The announcement that a sample of American refined tin has reached the office of the American Tin-Plate Association in Pittsburgh from the mines in South Dakota warrants the hope that our tin-plate industry will soon be set in motion. This Dakota tin costs $2.15 a ton to produce, as against $4.44 per ton for producing tin of the same quality from the mines of Cornwall, England. When the higher cost of labor here is considered, these figures show a marvellous advantage on our side in the production of the raw tin, and, with tin representing less than 5 per cent. of the value of tin plate, with iron representing 95 per cent., and with a highly developed iron industry already existing here, we can see no reason in the world why the duty on tin plate should not be increased and the tin-plate industry established."

"No reason in the world why the duty on tin plate should not be increased," when the tin "costs less than half" the cost of Cornish tin, and the plates are the product of "a highly developed iron industry already existing here"! Is it for further gifts to the already "highly developed industry" that the duty must be increased, or for the benefit of the tin mines which can undersell the world? And is there any conceivable combination of circumstances in which, to a mad protectionist, there will appear "no reason in the world why the duty should not be increased"?

The *American Grocer* favors an increase of the duty on tin plates on the ground that there is too much competition in canned goods, and that a higher cost for cans would keep it within reasonable bounds. Such is the plain interpretation of an article in the latest number of that trade journal. It says, however, that the canned-goods trade is not a unit on the question, all being governed "to some extent" by selfish motives. Those who want tin plates put on the free list, or at all events not subjected to a higher duty, think that there would be an increase of the trade if the cost of cans were cheapened. Those who are on the other side "argue for a higher duty in order to check the production of cheap canned goods and to check the starting of new factories." The interests of the public are evidently with cheap canned goods and new factories. We trust that members of Congress will take note of the *American Grocer's* very candid statement of the reasons which govern the two contending parties in the canned-goods trade.

The detailed report of the foreign trade of Chili for the year 1888 has recently been issued by the Government, and reveals a very high degree of national prosperity. The imports amounted to $60,717,698, a gain of $12,068,846 over the results attained in 1887. This gain is generally distributed, too, through all the classes of imported goods included in the official enumeration. The countries whence the bulk of these imports proceeds are shown in the following table:

Great Britain	$26,351,141, a gain of 28 per cent.
Germany	14,046,577, a gain of 20 per cent.
France	6,181,513, a gain of 12 per cent.
Argentine Republic	4,345,497, a gain of 95 per cent.
United States	3,133,173, a loss of 3 per cent.
Peru	3,057,854, a gain of 14 per cent.

The great gain noted in the imports from the Argentine Republic is mostly due to the abatement of the cholera prevalent in 1887, and to the raising of the quarantine then enforced. The extension of the Argentine railroad system up to the foot of the Andes, and the easy routes opened to Argentine cattle (almost the only article of export to Chili) through the mountain passes for a good part of the year, also account for a part of the increase.

Chili's exports for the year named footed up $73,089,935, as against $50,349,985 in 1887. Of the total, Great Britain takes 80 per cent., Germany 6, and France 5. The United States took the magnificent sum of $2,070,690, being a loss of 20 per cent.—though, of course, as good protectionists, we are bound to say it was a gain instead of a loss—in comparison with 1887. We are at pains to give these detailed figures because they are more telling than columns of eloquent writing about the sisterhood of the American republics and the way the big sister is going to get the trade of all the others. How unspeakably stupid, in the light of the above exhibit (and it is only indicative of the state of the case in South America generally), appears the wild dream of an American Zollverein, and all those clippings from European newspapers complacently sent out by the Department of State, last summer, to show how it was already clear to the keen European mind that Mr. Blaine was going to divert all South American trade to this country. Why should Chili offend the customer that takes 80 per cent. of what she has to sell, for the sake of pleasing a country that grudgingly takes 2 per cent? The report of the Committee of the Pan-American Congress on a customs union shows that neither Chili nor any other of the South-American republics ever gave so much as a thought to this folly. The showing made by the United States in Chilian foreign trade will please the protectionists, for it is just what they have been striving for—buying nothing abroad. To be sure, they now display an illogical desire to sell something abroad, but, even so, what can they care if the Argentine Republic, a country without manufactures, surpasses us in exports to Chili, or that Peru is scarcely behind us? They will simply turn with fresh fury to the work of shutting out "foreign devils" and subsidizing domestic saints.

The English Liberals last week carried North St. Pancras, one of the London boroughs, by 108, in a total of 5,206. Their candidate, Mr. Bolton, contested the same division at the last election and was beaten by a majority of 261 votes in a total of 3,887. The loss of this seat by the Tories at this juncture, in a London constituency, just after the presentation of the Parnell report, and after Mr. Balfour's repeated announcements of the great success of his coercion policy in Ireland, is one of the most stunning blows they have recently received. It is all the more serious because of the marked and rapid decline in their majorities, as shown in the leading divisions in the House of Commons. In 1887 Parnell's amendment to the Address was beaten by a majority of 106; in 1888 by a majority of 88; in 1889 by a majority of 79; this year by only 67, and in

all these cases the House was very full and the Tory forces well whipped up. What effect the St. Pancras election will have remains to be seen.

Mr. Gladstone's amendment, which was defeated on Monday in the House of Commons by a vote of 339 to 268, did not wholly end the attack of the Opposition on the report of the Parnell Commission, for it was reinforced by Lord Randolph Churchill on Tuesday. The most remarkable features in the debate were the unbroken vigor of Gladstone's oratory, and the production of Mr. Chamberlain's positive declaration, when advocating the appointment of the Commission, that the only thing of consequence to be inquired into was the Parnell letters — that if these were found to be forgeries, everything else would be of small interest. The contention of the *Times* and of a good many Tories now is, however, that the letters were but a small part of the case, and that it was the boycotting and "the criminal conspiracy" to establish Irish independence which formed the gravamen of the charge; but this, of course, is somewhat ridiculous.

The Berlin correspondent of the London *Times* gives some startling figures as to the result of the recent elections in Berlin. At the last election in that city in 1887 the Socialists cast 93,000 votes out of a total of 232,000. But this year they have cast 125,000 out of a total of 230,000. In other words, the Socialists have a majority in the capital of the German Empire, where they have been for some years under the close surveillance of the police and a modified state of siege. The great commercial city of Hamburg has had a similar experience. In the last Reichstag it had two Socialist representatives and one National Liberal. All three representatives are now Socialists, and yet Hamburg has been for twelve years under the Anti-Socialist Law. In Berlin an old Polish bookbinder who only speaks broken German, has beaten Prof. Virchow, the eminent scientist, by 2,000 majority in a total of 38,000. It must be remembered, too, that all this has occurred in the immediate presence of the Emperor's and Prince Bismarck's efforts to ameliorate by legislation the lot of the workingman. Of course, various lessons may be drawn from the election. The Socialist ranks doubtless contain a great many persons who are not Socialists, and wish simply to protest in the strongest terms against militarism and heavy taxation. But there is one lesson about which there can be no mistake, and that is, that it is folly to try to govern by martial law under parliamentary institutions, and have free elections in a state of siege. This is the experiment Mr. Balfour is trying in Ireland. He is armed with tremendous powers of arbitrary repression, but in only two counties in Ireland can he carry an election. When you put men under martial law, or anything similar, you must not let them vote if you care about the result. The stronger you make the police, and the more you muzzle the discontented, the bigger the majorities they will roll up against you. The two systems are incompatible. Each may have merit, but it must have the field to itself.

The young German Emperor is evidently taking himself more and more seriously—so seriously, in fact, that some people are beginning to doubt whether he is not already showing signs of the malady which finally drove his grand-uncle from the throne. In the speech he made on Saturday last, this young soldier, wholly without civil experience, told a nation of 47,000,000 that "the people and the land were intrusted to him by God—a talent which, as the Bible said, it was his duty to increase," and that he was going to trade with it, so as to add many another thereto; that "those who helped him he would heartily welcome, but those who opposed him he would dash to pieces." These crazy utterances, too, are made just as the Reichstag containing a majority hostile to the Government is about to meet. It is not surprising that the Conservative newspapers look on them as an indication of his readinesss for a coup d'état, and some advise him to establish a dictatorship, and others to abolish universal suffrage, and suspend the Reichstag if the opposition in it becomes unpleasant. The situation is a most unpleasant one for the National Liberals, who at the last election betrayed their own cause and formed an alliance with the Conservatives to oblige Bismarck, and now find themselves not only discredited, but swept out of existence. The Centre or Catholic party holds the balance of power in the new Reichstag, and expects to extort valuable concessions for the Church in return for its help. The critical period in the history of the Empire is clearly at hand—and it is a period which was sure to come after Bismarck's disappearance, and is coming now before his disappearance, owing to the death of the Emperor Frederick.

A bill has been introduced in the French Chambers providing, as a remedy for the decline of population, for a tax on all bachelors—an old remedy—and in addition to this a tax on all married people who have no children and are unable to offer any reasonable excuse to the Collector—an entirely new remedy. The *Journal des Économistes* discusses the measure very seriously, but condemns it *in toto*, as impracticable and even ridiculous. It even suggests that the revenue officer would suffer personal violence at the hands of married couples on whom he attempted to levy fines. But the writer says there is nothing surprising in such attempts at legislation as this, considering the extent to which French people submit to government "réglementation." There is already a law on the statute book offering a premium for large families, and in truth the right to interfere with the size of people's families is an easy deduction from the right, on which the protective system is based, to interfere with the conduct of their business. This system assumes that the men who sit in the Legislature know what is good for every other man better than he knows himself, and that any one who denies it is a rascal, and is probably paid for disbelieving it. It assumes, also, as most of the French "réglementation" does, that man is made for the State and not the State for man. There is a very funny illustration of this in the denunciations one sees in our own protectionist newspapers of those New Englanders who are now clamoring for free raw materials in order to save them from ruin. They are actually scolded for their selfishness in seeking to avoid ruin by an attack on a system designed by the Congressional philosophers for the good of the whole community. It is not surprising that "Nationalism" and Cæsarism make progress under such influences as these, and that politics should in so many countries be resolving itself into a struggle to enable every man to mind his neighbor's business.

The debates in the Spanish Cortes are dragging along in a tiresome fashion. The universal-suffrage bill is suffering the steady though indirect opposition of the Conservatives, who offer various plausible amendments designed to mitigate the evils, as they say, of the dangerous measure, and go on taunting the Liberals with insincerity and with not really desiring the bill to pass. Still, it is on its way towards final enactment, and will undoubtedly be a main reliance of Sagasta in the electoral campaign which all believe to be imminent. Cánovas recently declared his position in a great speech before the Conservative Club, in which he maintained that the Conservative party was the only one able to direct the affairs of Spain successfully, by conserving the interests both of the monarchy and of popular liberty. He really opposes the suffrage measure only on the ground that it is premature. The purposes of the Republicans, about which so much has been written and surmised since the overturning in Brazil and the agitation in Portugal, remain discreetly veiled, though their support of Sagasta, on the main features of his policy, is altogether probable. The anniversary of the establishment of the republic of 1873 was observed this year, on February 11, with unusual enthusiasm at banquets and meetings of Republicans. Singularly enough, the great man of them all, Castelar, took no part in any of the celebrations. He appears to have given his word to Sagasta to allow no Republican disturbance at present, so far as he is concerned, and carefully held to his pledge, even requesting his Republican friends, so it is alleged, to let the date pass unnoticed. The political situation will become critical when once the budget is taken up for discussion. This is the nightmare of every administration. The new Secretary of the Treasury has been heralding that rare thing, a surplus, in the estimates, but the latest news indicates that this is all a mistake, and that the deficit will be even greater than usual—about $24,000,000, in fact.

NEW YORK AND THE M'KINLEY BILL.

WILL not the Senate heed what has been said of the McKinley bill by the Chamber of Commerce of the great port wherein is entered quite two-thirds in value of all the foreign merchandise brought to this country? Not all of the members of that body are persons who now make entries at the Custom-house. A great many have been importers, but have retired from active business. All are observant and prudent business men who know about the business topics of which they speak, and all condemn the McKinley bill. Every Senator will probably concede that New York is a great port, that two-thirds of the customs revenues of the nation is here paid, and that our business men are as competent and far-seeing as any. Germans have a proverb which says praising is not loving: *Loben ist nicht lieben.* New Yorkers may not ask Senators at Washington to love them, but they do ask that their well-matured opinions on affairs under their daily observation be regarded. Surely Democratic Senators will heed the comments made by the Democratic merchants of a conspicuously Democratic city. Mr. Evarts, with Mr. Hiscock, cannot but be respectful to the utterances of the New York Chamber of Commerce, and the vigorous contentions of those two ought to persuade Republican Senators enough to defeat, in coöperation with Democratic Senators, this most unwise bill, aimed chiefly at those who bring hither consigned goods.

If Senators at Washington will read carefully commercial advertisements, they will discover that the great manufacturers of textile fabrics in New England and elsewhere announce agencies in this city where and of whom their fabrics can be purchased by sample. Buyers are not required to go to Manchester, N. H., or Lowell, Mass., in order to make contracts of purchase at the lowest possible rates. And yet the McKinley bill attempts to formulate in a statute the clamor of rival cities, and of our domestic producers, because European manufacturers imitate New England manufacturers, and establish in New York the chief warehouse and agency for the sale of their goods. The Treasury Department eggs on the raid upon New York, upon American jobbers, and upon American consumers who wish to buy European articles on the best terms they can and with the least inconvenience to themselves. If European goods are purchased in New York of the partners or agents of the foreign makers, the buyer has at hand a responsible party on whom reclamations can be made if the package delivered does not respond to the sample or the contract of purchase.

The Treasury Department and the McKinley bill are endeavoring to break up these existing methods of business, upon the remarkable plea that Government appraisers cannot value correctly *consigned* merchandise, but can accurately appraise *purchased* goods of the same character and quality. Even a very little sense of the ridiculous ought, one would think, to put an end to such pleas. If custom-house examiners, assistant appraisers, and appraisers can correctly report to collectors the foreign value of a case of silk, or worsted, or linen goods *purchased* in Europe, why can they not correctly value precisely similar goods sent hither by the manufacturer? If a New York buyer goes to Zurich, or Dublin, or Manchester, or Lyons to make purchases, is he ignorant of the value in the market of the thing he buys? and if importing houses in New York can have agents familiar with such values, why cannot our Government? The large importing houses in New York must know the foreign values of the articles they buy, or they could not safely conduct their business.

What is needed is more intelligent and correct appraising by local and subordinate officers, and not savage laws treating importers as misdemeanants. If the value is accurately reported, the Treasury can, on goods subject to ad-valorem rates, get the full amount of tax required by Congress. Appraising officers as competent as are European buyers for New York importers can report correct values no matter what an invoice declares; but correct appraising is impossible by officers who have always been in New York, who have never been buyers abroad, and who have merely been promoted at the Custom-house from the commonplace work of openers and packers. In an extract which we make from the report to Congress in 1886 by Secretary Manning, he exhibited the causes of our ignorant and inadequate customs-appraising, and described the remedy, which was not fines, penalties, and imprisonments for importers. This is what he said of appraising officers at the great port of New York:

"Of the fifty, or thereabouts, who inspect and appraise merchandise, I find on inquiry that not one-half have been employed in the business of importation, or in buying and selling articles similar to those which they examine. Many of those who have been promoted, either by competitive civil-service examination or otherwise, to be examiners and assistant appraisers, entered the service as clerks, or in a subordinate capacity, and have had no experience in importing or jobbing, or even in the retail business. The few examiners who may have been, many years ago, large dealers, or small dealers, in articles like those which they now appraise, cannot, if continually engaged in the appraising office at New York, have had experience at home or abroad in buying and selling. The law of 1866 declares that the Appraiser 'shall be *practically* acquainted with the quality and value of some one or more of the chief articles of importation subject to appraisement.' The qualification of each assistant appraiser is described in the same language. The examiner must be *practically* and *thoroughly* acquainted with the character, quality, and value of the article or articles in the examination and appraisement of which he is 'to be employed' to *aid* the assistant appraiser.

"I have learned by inquiry respecting the range of salaries paid in New York by the large importing and jobbing houses in the city, that those who are deemed competent to successfully buy merchandise abroad or at home receive twice, or even three times, as much as is the range of salaries paid to examiners in the New York Custom-house who examine similar articles. In addition, a few of the large houses pay a pension to those of their faithful clerks or agents who have become old or physically incapacitated in service.

"*If the existing complicated rates of duty now levied upon imported merchandise are not to be simplified and made easier of application,* and if examiners are to be the responsible appraising officers who alone inspect the merchandise, then there needs to be, I think, an *immediate* legislative reorganization of the Appraiser's office at New York, and the infusion of larger mercantile experience and more self-confidence in determining foreign values."

The McKinley bill works on lines of reform similar to those pursued by the Tory party in dealing with the condition of Ireland. It refuses to remove the causes of dissatisfaction, resentment, and resistance, which could easily be removed and to the advantage of everybody, and advocates instead new coercive laws, which will inflame and increase present difficulties, making enemies of our customs laws the taxpayers who now are, and wish to be, friends.

THE INTERNATIONAL COPYRIGHT BILL AGAIN.

THE Chace Copyright Bill was passed by the Senate on May 9, 1888, but was defeated in the House of Representatives. It was again brought before Congress on December 5, 1889, by Senator Platt of Connecticut, and referred to the Committee on Patents, consisting of Senators Teller (chairman), Gray, Dixon, Hiscock, Kenna, Reagan, and Platt. The text of the bill, as reintroduced, was one which had been submitted, by request, to a joint committee of the Authors' and Publishers' Copyright Leagues, had been discussed, and, chiefly at the instance of the typographical unions, amended by that committee. The new text was an improvement upon the bill as it had passed the Senate, not only in phraseology, but in the amendment of certain clauses of importance to dramatic and musical authors and publishers. But other changes, for which the above-named committee is responsible—such as the erasure from the Revised Statutes of the stipulation that the copies deposited to perfect copyright should be of the "best edition"—may be questioned as inadvisable; and another, the prohibition of the importation of stereotyped plates, must be pronounced thoroughly bad. One improvement, however, is decidedly to be commended, and that is the insertion, for the first time, of the subject-matter of the bill in its title.

This bill was also promptly presented to the House, and, rather oddly, by two members at nearly the same time—Mr. Adams of Illinois, and Mr. Butterworth of Ohio—and referred, in the first case, to the Committee on the Judiciary, and in the second, to the Committee on Patents. On January 21, 1890, the Senate Committee reported favorably a substitute bill which contains two alterations of the text. The first of these is the erasure of a verbal amendment intended to give additional security to authors of operatic works. This was originally suggested by the legal counsel of the Publishers' Copyright League, and adopted by Senator Chace in the amended text of the bill reported by him to the Senate on March 19, 1888. The second alteration, which is also an erasure, can only be explained on the ground of a failure to comprehend the difference in status between the importation of an original, authorized edition and an unauthorized, fraudulent reprint. The seeming lack of knowledge so elementary in attempting to frame an inter-

national copyright law, together with the apparent hopelessness of securing immunity from the repetition of the sort of errors which will be presently referred to, strongly recommend the suggestion that Congress, instead of further tinkering the copyright statutes, should follow the example of European countries, and appoint three or four good copyright lawyers as a commission to draft a bill based upon their own knowledge of our present law and a thorough study of the advanced legislation of continental Europe.

By a no doubt preconcerted arrangement, an entirely new print of the bill was presented to Congress during February: on the 15th by Mr. Adams, in the House, from the Committee on the Judiciary; on the 18th by Mr. Simonds, from the House Committee on Patents, and, in the Senate, on the 21st, by Mr. Platt, as a proposed amendment to his former bill, more strictly as a substitute for it. The provisions of this substitute are identical with those of the former bill except in one unimportant particular, namely, the appropriation for the salary of an extra assistant to the Librarian of Congress. This appropriation was stricken out. But the form of the bill is considerably changed and improved by setting out the whole of each of the sections of the Revised Statutes, which it is intended to amend, as they would read after such amendment, instead of merely stating what words are to be erased or added, without giving any context, as has been the case in every previous print of this bill. But unfortunately the execution of this new idea has not been so happy as its conception. Another print of the bill will be necessary, in the first place, to correct the defects due to wretched proof-reading, which has left references standing without regard to the fact that the sections have been renumbered, so that the citations are incorrect, and has been neglectful of the fact that the new form of the bill would necessitate the references to be made to the *chapter* of the Revised Statutes and not to the *section* of the act. A necessary word has also been omitted in quoting the text of the Revised Statutes, and we may be allowed to point out that dramatic compositions should be included in the second line of section 4965 to agree with their previous insertion in sections 4956 and 4963; and this the more particularly because the word "book" in section 4964 was before understood to include dramatic compositions, but, under the new interpretation of the whole statute rendered necessary by the new interpolations, that word in section 4964 must be more narrowly construed. In the second place, section 4958 of the Revised Statutes is set out in the bill without regard to the fact that this section was amended by the Act of June 18, 1874. We assume that this must have resulted from clerical inadvertence; for it is hardly credible that it has been thought advisable to revert to the more bungling method of paying for the recording and copying of assignments at two different rates for every one hundred words, when for more than fifteen years the simpler method of charging a dollar fee for each service, instituted by that act, has been found entirely satisfactory. At least, we have yet to hear the first word of complaint in regard to it.

THE TREASURY HOARD.

THE *Financial Chronicle* of Saturday had an article on Treasury operations and bank reserves, in the course of which it gave a neat table showing that the Treasury had taken eleven millions out of the banks in the month of February. It is a particular instance of the chronic disease of surplus. For a long time past the receipts of the Treasury have averaged two millions a week the year round above its regular disbursements, and the accumulation is specially heavy in months when little interest is payable. At present the disbursements for pensions are beginning to find their way into circulation, and will mitigate the severity of current withdrawals, even if the purchases of bonds should fall below expectation. For some reason best known to himself, Mr. Windom ceased buying 4 per cents in February, when the purchases would have been very useful to trade; he has now resumed them, perhaps in consequence of remonstrances made to him by bankers and ex-officials of the Treasury.

It is the old story, so often explained in these columns, of the working of our sub-treasury system. Judicious purchases of bonds, in view of the continual surplus, do much to remedy the oppressive working of that system, and they need to be judicious; but a proper use of the system of deposits in national banks is also needed to prevent avoidable suffering. Unluckily for Mr. Windom, as well as for the country, he has declared as strongly as he could against such deposits, and he has a harder task in consequence to manage the finances without causing general mischief. He always had the power to require interest on his deposits, and has it yet, but this tolerably obvious method of doing justice in the premises has so far appealed to him in vain. He seems bent on the "rigor of the game," and it is a great pity that the counters are so large. The dangers of the sub-treasury system, in these days of large reserves, are well stated by the *Chronicle*, and we welcome its outspoken criticism of a superannuated method. We cannot agree, however, that there is any popular prejudice against depositing portions of the surplus in national banks. Some leading Republicans, and especially Mr. Blaine, committed themselves during the last campaign to the view that such deposits are illegal and fraudulent. President Harrison was also drawn into that view to some extent. The design was, of course, to discredit the Cleveland Administration. Now the business community must suffer in order to save their precious consistency.

There is one cause of absorption of money by the Treasury, and absorption on a very serious scale, to which we have often adverted, and of which we will now speak more particularly, hoping that at last it may secure the attention it deserves. We refer to the deposits of lawful money in the Treasury for the redemption of surrendered national-bank notes. This redemption fund amounted on the last of February to $64,182,864. Every dollar of this was locked up in the Treasury, since the cash in the Treasury equalled the cash liabilities of every kind, this redemption fund being counted as a cash liability and the surplus cash in the Treasury equalling the deposits in national banks. This vast redemption fund diminishes but slowly; it was $69,000,000 in the first week of January. Speaking financially, not a dollar of this money ought to be in the Treasury. The law, however, prescribes that a national bank, when surrendering circulation, shall deposit in the Treasury lawful money, namely, legal-tender coin or greenbacks, to the amount of bank-notes surrendered, receiving in return the bonds which were held as security for the circulation so surrendered. There was for many years no limit to the surrender of circulation permitted, but a sudden increase of the amounts surrendered induced Congress to pass an act restricting the amount to $3,000,000 per month. The Secretary of the Treasury at the time ought to have met the difficulty, real or imaginary, before Congress could act; he ought to have given notice that he would promptly deposit in other national banks all lawful money deposited for surrender of bank circulation. That opportunity, like many others at the Treasury, was lost. The fact remains that lawful money is still locked up in the Treasury to await the slow presentation of surrendered bank-notes, and that this just now amounts to nearly sixty-four millions of dollars.

Here is a plain case for amendment of the law. The proper place for the lawful money in question, if it is still to be deposited in advance of the presentation of surrendered bank-notes, is not the Treasury, but the national banks in the reserve cities, and especially in New York. The bank-notes should be intercepted in their usual movement, and the lawful money destined for their final redemption should not at any time be withdrawn from the channels of trade. It is a prodigious waste of strength to take large sums of money of full legal tender out of the reach of trade, and lock it up for months and years, awaiting the straggling return of bank-notes for redemption at the Treasury in Washington. The law should be changed, and changed with as little delay as is consistent with proper examination of the subject; and the cardinal point to keep in view is, that the redemption of bank-notes be effected without the withdrawal for a single day of money of full legal tender. Give us an amendment covering this point, and further accumulation of money in the Treasury for this purpose is at an end. With regard to the vast sum now locked up, probably all that can safely be done is to hasten as much as possible the presentation of the bank-notes wanted for redemption. It seems likely that something might be gained in this direction by furnishing the New York Clearing-house with a list of all surrendered circulation, particularly if it

can be arranged to have such bank-notes cashed at the Sub-Treasury in this city. But the other matter, the amendment to the law of redemption, should be attended to in Congress at once.

WHY THE CITY IS NOT WELL GOVERNED.

In discussing last week the subject of improvement in the government of this city, we took the ground that nothing could be gained by further charter tinkering, since we have already an excellent charter, and that we are not governed well "simply because the offices are not filled by the right men." This view of the case is sustained in the strongest manner by an article in the March *Century* on the government of the city of Glasgow, written by Mr. Albert Shaw. The picture which his plain, luminous narrative of the condition of Glasgow to-day presents, is of a city governed well because its offices are filled by the right men. It is governed by a Town Council of fifty members, who are elected for three years, who "come chiefly from the ranks of men of business, and are upright, respected, and successful citizens." The Councillors serve without salary, the office is deemed an honor, "party lines are seldom very sharply drawn in municipal elections," and "an efficient Councillor may, in general, expect reëlection for several terms if he is willing to serve," as the "seat of a satisfactory man who asks reëlection is, in a majority of cases, not contested at all."

The Town Council thus composed has absolute control of all departments of the city government—streets, police, fire department, markets, water and gas supply, municipal courts, sanitary arrangements, street railways, and construction of buildings public and private. It controls all appointments to office. "Heads of departments," says Mr. Shaw, "are selected with great care, and their places are practically permanent." The Town Clerk, who is the legal adviser of the city, corresponding to our Corporation Counsel, is expected to hold his position for life. The present incumbent, who has held the office for many years, is a high authority throughout Great Britain upon questions of municipal history and law. The City Architect and Master of Public Works, an office corresponding to our Departments of Public Works and of Street-Cleaning combined, is one of the most distinguished of British architects and engineers, and has held the office for nearly half a century. The Health Department has been in charge of an equally distinguished physician for nearly or quite as long a period. These officials are typical of the entire municipal administration. In every department there is employed the highest attainable expert ability, and the tenure of office is for life in all cases where fitness and efficiency are shown.

The results of a government by such officials are precisely what might be looked for in a private business controlled by them. The city is perfectly cared for in every respect, and the welfare and comfort of all citizens are ministered to in every way. The streets are well paved, are cleaned thoroughly every night, and the private courts in the thickly settled quarters are cleaned once and in some instances three times a day. The gas and water supply, both regulated by the municipality, are abundant and cheap. The street railways are leased on terms so favorable to the city that after 1894 they will yield the city a large income, and will not require a penny of public expenditure. Model tenements, lodging-houses, and abundant hospitals are provided, and every possible sanitary precaution is enforced to add to the comfort and health of the poorer classes. There are excellent public schools, public libraries, and picture-galleries for the education and recreation of all. The police protection by day and night is perfect. In short, Glasgow presents the pleasing spectacle of a city whose highest morality and intelligence are devoted to an earnest and honest effort to conduct its affairs for the benefit and happiness of all.

What is true of Glasgow is to be said with scarcely a modification of Berlin, of Birmingham, and of Manchester. The two latter English cities have been for years under town-council rule, and results similar to those which Mr. Shaw describes in Glasgow have been obtained there. The Berlin municipality, which we described at length in these columns a few years ago, is one of the marvels of the world, presenting, in fact, a unique example of a model city government. Its foundation is a municipal assembly of 126 members, who comprise the most eminent statesmen, scholars, and merchants to be found in the city limits. Many of them serve the city for life without pay. They call to the municipal service the highest expert ability to be found within the empire, and, when secured, every inducement is made to retain it for life. The result is that Berlin, like Glasgow, Birmingham, and Manchester, is a city in which scandal and corruption and extravagance in administration are unknown. Its citizens not only have their rights protected in every way, but their welfare and comfort advanced by the whole power of the municipality, and their rents and taxes reduced by the integrity and intelligence with which this city's affairs are conducted.

Does anybody doubt that with the same class of men in charge of our city government we could obtain similar results? What is our Council here who rule us as absolutely as the Town Council rules Glasgow? It is the Tammany Committee of Organization, whose twenty-four members are really controlled by the "Big Four," Bourke Cockran, "Dick" Croker, "Tommy" Gilroy, and Mayor Grant. Will anybody claim that this controlling power represents the intelligence and virtue of the community, and governs the city for the highest good of all its inhabitants? Would Glasgow, or Berlin, or Manchester, or Birmingham be well and wisely governed if its town or municipal council were to decide that they would vest the appointing and other most important administrative powers in the hands of an inexperienced and slightly educated young sporting man, who hung up his white coat and stepped out of a road wagon to assume the reins of government? Why are our streets wretchedly paved and cleaned and our public works generally mismanaged? Did Mr. Grant, when he became Mayor, seek, as Glasgow did, for high engineering skill to put at the head of our Public Works Department? We had in that place at the time the most eminent engineer in the land, who had spent a lifetime in his profession. The Mayor gave due notice before he was elected that he would not retain this man, though the city could have afforded to pay almost any price for his services; and when the people chose him, in spite of this notice, the Mayor conferred the office upon an ex-school-teacher who had left that respectable calling to become a politician, and who knew nothing whatever of engineering. The same Mayor removed from the Health Bureau the highest authority on sanitary matters that the city had, and put in his place an adventurer from another city who had never given a thought to sanitary science, who was a speculator of dubious reputation in Wall Street, and whose sole qualification for the place was that he was one of the Mayor's "cronies." The same Mayor replaced an able and experienced lawyer in the Corporation Counsel's office with an unknown and inexperienced lawyer, whose sole qualification was that he was the partner of one of the "Big Four." Contrast those three heads of departments in this city with the heads of the corresponding departments in Glasgow who have held their positions for nearly half-a-century! The wonder is not that New York is governed badly, but that it is governed at all.

Who is responsible? Not Mayor Grant and his cronies whom he puts into office, but the people who elected him. The intelligent and honest voters of this city are in an overwhelming majority if they would put aside party names and unite for the common good. Mr. Shaw says of Glasgow that "party lines are seldom very sharply drawn in municipal elections." If we could say that of New York, half the battle would be won. Until that can be said we can hope for little improvement. We cannot blame the unfit men whom we put into power for using that power badly, for we put them in knowing their unfitness and their inability and indisposition to use it in any other way. The adventurer Squire said, when asked why he accepted the appointment from Mayor Edson to the Commissionership of Public Works: "Why shouldn't I accept it? It's a good thing, and if the Mayor is willing to give it to me, I should be a fool to refuse it." All Mayor Grant's appointees might well make a similar answer were they to be charged with unfitness. We cannot get reform or good government from such men, simply because it is not in them. We can only secure it by making it impossible for them and their kind to get possession of the offices.

A FRANCO-GERMAN ALLIANCE.

PARIS, February 21, 1890.

COL. STOFFEL is a man of no ordinary stuff. We still remember the sensation which was produced when, during the siege of Paris, and

by order of the Provisional Government of the National Defence, the reports which he had written from Berlin as military attaché of France were published. These reports were a continual and most sagacious warning. At a time when the military strength of Prussia was despised at the Court of the Tuileries, Stoffel showed its importance, described its military institutions, showed how, since the beginning of the Second Empire, and especially since the Crimean war, Prussia had been preparing herself for great events and for great changes in Europe. As an Alsatian, Stoffel was well acquainted with the German language; he had, therefore, opportunities, as military attaché, which few had had before him; he was a true prophet, and, like so many other prophets, he could not make his voice heard.

When the war broke out, he was attached to the person of the Emperor, and intrusted with the secret service of the army; he sent and received the despatches written in cipher; he was in communication with the Empress till the capitulation of Sedan took place and the revolution of the 4th of September followed. Ever since the war, although the publication of his military reports proved the correctness of his judgment, he has remained under a sort of cloud. We saw him appear for a moment as a witness during the trial of Marshal Bazaine at Trianon; he was cross-examined about some despatches of Bazaine's which Marshal MacMahon had never received, and during his cross-examination he made a violent attack on the generals who had prepared the indictment of Bazaine. He was condemned to a month's imprisonment by the Court, and from that moment he vanished from sight. He leads now a solitary and retired life, mourning for the loss of his native province, and having no part to play in the new French Army, which others have reorganized and others are commanding. I often meet him in the streets. Thin and wiry, young-looking for his age, with a sad expression on his fine military face, he has the appearance of a man who cannot well bear his inactivity, and who is, as the French say, gnawing his own vitals.

Col. Stoffel has now come out of his retirement with a pamphlet which cannot but make a great noise in Europe. It is written in contravention of the almost universal opinion in France. Never has the attraction of France towards Russia been stronger than at the present moment. Our financiers have, by means of the so-called conversions, helped the Russian Government to reëstablish its credit. The Russian credit was once compared by a financier to a house built on piles; the piles were the various loans emitted at different times, and with different rates of interest, sinking funds, etc. All these loans have gradually been transformed into one vast loan, bearing only an interest of 4 per cent. The transformation was successfully made at gradually increasing prices of emission. The last 5 per cent. will in a few days be converted into a 4 per cent., emitted at 93. There will be a rush for this new 4 per cent., and the subscribers will receive only a ridiculously small proportion of their subscription. The bankers who are conducting this great movement would never have succeeded if they had not had the aid of the French capitalists. The small investors who have sold all their Italian funds have replaced them with Russian funds. Berlin has ceased to be the great market for Russian securities, and Russia feels that she can draw on French credit almost to any extent.

Now, it is idle to say that French capitalists have in this matter been led solely by interest, they have been led by sentiment; and if their interests have so far been well served, it is because this sentiment has produced a powerful coalition of capital favorable to Russia. I have at various times insisted in my letters on this irresistible attraction of France towards Russia, showing how it grew and was developed by all sorts of influences. There is no written alliance between Republican France and autocratic Russia, but the two nations believe that their interests are common in Europe, and that this community of interests is stronger than any written diplomatic document.

The title of Col. Stoffel's pamphlet is significant: 'On the Possibility of a Future Franco-German Alliance.' Against whom would such an alliance be directed? Against Russia. It is impossible to go more directly against the opinions and prejudices of the day. Let us see how Stoffel justifies what, at present, will be regarded as a bold paradox. He considers that the loss of Alsace-Lorraine has been to France more than a material loss: it has deprived her of her security. A battle lost on the present frontier would place Paris, in a fortnight, at the mercy of the conqueror; a battle lost by Germany on the Rhine would not endanger Berlin, which is separated by forty days' march and by the lines of the Rhine and the Elbe. The fate of our country actually depends on the issue of a single battle fought on the frontier; and this bare fact places France in a humiliating and intolerable condition (the words are Stoffel's). In taking Alsace-Lorraine after the war, Prussia made the same mistake as did Napoleon when he inflicted, after Jena, a humiliating peace on his adversary. The advisers of the Emperor of Germany were blind with regard to Russia; they were blinded by the personal friendship which existed between the sovereigns. Alexander of Russia had almost triumphed with the King of Prussia, who wrote to him: "It is first to God, then to you, that I owe my victory." This friendship was personal and did not survive Alexander.

Prince Bismarck foresaw some of the consequences of the annexation of Alsace-Lorraine, and, if we may believe a despatch of M. de Saint-Vallier, he expressed himself openly on the subject in 1879. He had shown, after Sadowa, a spirit of moderation which was truly statesmanlike. Col. Stoffel reports a conversation which he had with the German Chancellor two years after the peace with Austria had been signed. France had offered her mediation, and, in consequence of it, Prince Bismarck advised his King to make peace with Austria.

"If the King had refused the mediation of France, Napoleon III. might have been obliged to declare war on him. At the sight of the first red pantaloons on this side of the Black Forest, we should have seen the troops of Würtemberg, Bavaria, and the other German States re-form. We should have had to fight alone Austria, Germany, and France. It is true, Moltke was not alarmed at the prospect of such a disproportionate struggle; in a single night he made his plan of campaign. We had at this moment 660,000 men under arms and on the pay-rolls. Moltke sent 200,000 to the Rhine and opposed the remainder to Austria and the German States. However, my advice was to make peace. But I had everybody against me, and I passed some unpleasant days. When I went to see the King at Nikolsburg, I overheard people on the way call me a traitor. The Prince Royal was most ardent for continuing the war, and very excited against me."

The King, however, ended by adopting the opinion of Prince Bismarck, but with reluctance. He wrote a letter to the Prince, beginning with the words, "After having reflected leisurely on the reasons which you presented to me, I give my consent to this *shameful* peace."

Col. Stoffel laments the difference in Prince Bismarck's conduct after Sadowa and after Sedan. He believes that nobody, not even Prince Bismarck, foresaw the consequences of the Peace of Frankfort. Everybody in Germany thought that France would hasten to begin a war of revenge, and everybody thought it necessary to take a strong defensive position, in anticipation of this war. France, however, has remained at peace since 1870, and in this interval Germany has found a new and, in many respects, more formidable enemy. The alliance of the three Emperors of the north was a short dream, and what is the reality? It is the alliance of the two German Emperors against the Emperor of Russia. The enmity of Germany and Russia is every day more apparent, and it may at any time become a formidable difficulty for Germany. It may be said to be a permanent danger; and who can say with certainty that the Triple Alliance of Prussia, Austria, and Italy will last for ever?

The new German Empire is under the necessity of being constantly ready to oppose two formidable adversaries, one on the east, the other on the west. Where is the remedy? Col. Stoffel does not hesitate to say there is but one, the voluntary retrocession of Alsace-Lorraine. He maintains that this idea has been slowly gaining ground in Germany. On this point he seems to us to be under an illusion, for we have seen no sign of this transformation, except, perhaps, in the speeches of a few German Socialists. It is very unusual for a country to make a voluntary cession of territory, even of newly acquired territory. Austria did not abandon Lombardy or Venetia without a struggle, though the abandonment of Venetia was almost resolved on in principle. Col. Stoffel is not so romantic as to believe in an unconditional surrender of Alsace-Lorraine; he offers something for it. He intimates that Germany, if she consented to retrocede Alsace-Lorraine, would have a right to ask for an offensive and defensive alliance with France; and in his opinion this alliance would be the only sure guarantee for the peace of Europe.

It is not necessary, says Stoffel, to have meditated much on the state of Europe to perceive that the danger which threatens civilized nations is at the East, where it increases every day, slowly but surely. It can be affirmed that, thanks to the divisions which disintegrate nations, Russia will some day or other become mistress of the provinces of the Danube. When that day comes, she will encircle Europe from the Baltic to the Archipelago, protected on her two flanks by those two seas, in a position which nobody will be able to turn or attack from behind. Having then at her service the numerous sailors of the islands of the Archipelago, she will spread gradually, like a grease-spot, and will soon obtain the coasts of the Adriatic and Trieste. When she has at her head a conquering Czar, how will the Occidental peoples, if they are still disunited, resist the formidable pressure of the Slavic race? It will be the war of civilization against barbarism, and the moment may then come when will be accomplished for Europe the prophecy of Napoleon at St. Helena, "Republican or Cossack."

A little map accompanies the pamphlet, and shows to the eye this Russia of the future—having absorbed Turkey, the principalities of the Danube, and all the Balkan provinces—as large as the other states of Europe put together.

THE TWO SALONS.

PARIS, February 13, 1890.

THAT the vote in the Society of French Artists not to include in future Salon catalogues

the awards of the special jury of fine arts at the Universal Exposition, should have been disapproved by as many as passed it, is not surprising. Viewed in the light of patriotism and of international courtesy, this measure was a maladroit breach of propriety. It was a slight to the jury instituted by the State at the Universal Exposition and an offence to the artistic world at large—that is to say, to the artists of every nationality rewarded in Paris in 1889. If this had been the only side to the question, there is little doubt that it could have been discussed amicably; the protest of the opposition would have been understood at once, and there the matter would have ended. But in the fever of the ballot, personal grievances were directed against M. Meissonier, President of the Exposition jury, and the altercation took the character of a feud. Numerous resignations were tendered. Upon reflection the Society of French Artists, loath to lose so many of its brilliant members gathering round M. Meissonier, proffered olive branches. "Too late," answered M. Meissonier. And indeed it was too late; the dissenters had already set to casting the mould of a new artistic fraternity, so different in its forms from the one they abandoned that the episode appears like the devised excuse for a revolution long felt to be imperative.

The name of the new group is somewhat ambiguous. It terms itself "National Society of Art." The appellative "national" belongs as well to the group of the Champs Élysées. National art is but the ensemble of varied talents, and M. Meissonier and his new associates do not exemplify with their varied individual talents an art more national than when they exhibited at the Palais de l'Industrie. So, in spite of its loss, the old Salon may continue to be as national as its rival can expect to show itself. The designation has no reference to the assertion of any art principle, but is meant to convey the idea that art in the new society will be held superior to party and personal considerations. No medals there, since they give rise to intrigues; the quality of *sociétaire* must be sufficient in itself to take their place. No jury of admission either; instead, a letter of invitation to inform the would-be member that the walls of the Palais des Beaux-Arts in the Champ de Mars are at his disposal. Once open, the doors are never closed upon him. The invitation holds good for all time, and for as many pictures as he chooses to exhibit; indeed, his admission may be likened to a reception at the Académie Française, minus the speech. If more exclusive and apparently restricted, these proceedings are liberal, and, above all, they react against the administrative spirit that was creeping so fast into the Society of the Champs Élysées.

It is undeniable that the artistic spirit of the modern artist is not what that of his predecessors was. Cabanel, saying to his pupils that art is a career and a bread-winner, uttered a sentiment that would have horrified his confrères of thirty years age. Not that they disdained, more than those of to-day, to sell their work, but because they entertained a more exalted idea of their calling. For all that, Cabanel's words were a very sincere echo of the *état d'esprit* of the moderns. As to the administrative spirit prevailing in the world of art, it is not wholly due to the rules governing the association of artists, but is a direct result of the encouragement lavished upon art for the last thirty years. It is that endless series of competitions, premiums, medals, diplomas, and decorations, which have created a hierarchy comparable only to that existing in bureaucracy and the army. At first the public entered into the spirit of that hierarchy: medals had an influence on the prices art brought. But a day came when artists discovered that the coveted distinctions no longer secured the wonted valuation among dealers and amateurs, and that the little palazzi of the Avenue de Villiers were not to be furnished even with a first-class medal. The great public itself was approached without recommendation and admired according to its taste. When M. Bouguereau's spokesman (some say scapegoat) in the late affair of medals remarked that, without them, the public would be in a maze, he forgot, no doubt, that there are artists, as much *hors concours* as medals can well make them, glad to obtain the humble position of drawing-master in city schools. The last to grow sceptical as to these honors are some Americans who still regard them as transatlantic passports. Yet, vain as they may be admitted to be, every one contended for a place among the *haut-gradés*. The mere suggestion of doing away with such distinctions met with discontent from men who either had not their fill of honors, or else, crowded with them, did not care to enter on a footing of equality with those less distinguished. For if no more rewards were to be given, it would be but fair to omit any mention of past ones.

With its success, the Society of French Artists had remained stationary and neglectful of details, though the necessity of reform was suspected. The Committee knew that the system of medals was a cause of yearly altercations. Art critics repeated that the jury was too numerous; that it should not remain the same every year; that the aspirants to medals weighed too much on its conscience; that it ought to be sheltered from the unintelligent despotism of the *mandat impératif*. But the best intentioned in the Society were too closely watched by the great number to dare any reform. The authority of talent, which it seems should be the first in an artistic association, was cancelled by an undercurrent of cliques and coalitions. What better illustration of this state of things than the absence from the Salon jury of M. Meissonier, whom the inferior element, knowing what a hindrance he would be to partisan arrangements, refused to vote for?

However, it must not be supposed that the more influential members of the Society seconded the motion to refuse the immunity of exemption to artists rewarded at the Exposition solely in order to reserve to themselves a monopoly of official rewards. The Committee objected to the awards obtained at the Exposition, not because it wished to contest them, but because each of these awards insured to its holder free admission to the Salon; and, considering the number, it was apprehended that the space reserved to unrewarded artists would be insufficient. So it was officially explained. To confirm it (there were still hopes at that time that the schism could be patched up) it was resolved that all exemptions should be suppressed: great and small should have no prerogatives before the jury—their talent would have to be rejudged before every Salon. Once in the way of reforms, the Society set about improving the mechanism of its jury. First, the number of jurors will be diminished from forty to twenty, with five supplementary jurors in the section of painting. The names of fifty artists *hors concours* will be selected by universal suffrage. These will be divided into five series, comprising ten names each; and four names will be drawn by lot out of each series. The five supplementary jurors will be drawn in like manner, one from each series. Then, after the close of the Salon, lots will be drawn to decide which ten members out of the twenty shall be ineligible for the next year, since the same jurors are not to appear annually. The same plan of organization will be observed in the section of sculpture.

This is already good, but not good enough. The protection granted by the State to artists has no excuse for being, since no official art flourishes. Its aid, instead of fostering the development of modern art, proves in many ways a hindrance. The help it proffers is too much at the expense of independence; talents are too apt to curb their personal impulses in order to be on the side of those remnants of tradition which continue to gauge their worth. The evil begins with the artist's education. Take, for instance, a pupil sent by his native town to the school of the Beaux-Arts: to prove himself worthy of the free education offered him, he must show himself a worker. He must show that he can hold his own with the other young official workers of the same academy. Success in competitions will gratify his friends of the provincial town, so he inscribes himself in every one. If gifted, medals are showered upon him: medals for study of expression, for anatomy, perspective, etc. The result is printed in the papers, and proudly reiterated by the townsmen of the young laureate. Henceforth he is in the toils of a premature glory, and will be incapable of returning to studies more fitted to his temperament. Furthermore, his record, graded by the number of medals obtained, entitles him to pecuniary help if he is in need of it. During the Empire, assistance to needy Beaux-Arts students was disguised under an artistic form; they were given two or three copies of the Emperor's portrait to make. Now the subsidy is reduced to a hundred francs, voted from time to time. When this student competes for the *prix de Rome*, he knows exactly what advantages are at stake: four years at the Villa Médicis and the income of 4,000 francs a year for the three years that follow his return from Rome. He knows to a nicety the sum of concessions and abdications needed to win it. His education has taught him through what channels rewards are obtained, and disposed him to abdicate personality for official protection.

Between the decisions of the two societies, a step has been made towards liberty in art. Both will vie with each other in giving an example of liberality. The new Salon will be certainly the most select, for it will have the preference of the best artists, tired at heart of the crowd of the Champs Élysées. The old will continue what it has been, a field devoted to novelty and surprises. If new altercations arise—as they are bound to do—it is not in the societies of art that the next modifications will have to be wrought, but in the system of education itself, beginning at the foundation with the Beaux-Arts. When of this institution, which has rendered great services, nothing shall remain but the palace, artists will view themselves in a different light.

LE COCQ DE LAUTREPPE.

Correspondence.

WANAMAKER'S CAMPAIGN CONTRIBUTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In No. 1222, the *Nation* said that Wanamaker's rise was due "to the fact that he has made an enormous contribution in money to Quay's campaign fund, and to a successful attempt to extort $400,000 for it in the last week of the canvass, the full nature of which we trust to see revealed when Congress meets."

Please inform your readers if Congress has

taken any steps to discover the nature of this contribution, or if any attempt was made by the minority to do so, and defeated by the majority. The little episode in the Senate anent Dudley's "blocks of five" is known.

SUBSCRIBER.

CHARLOTTE, N. C., March 3, 1890.

[We regret to say that neither the majority nor the minority in Congress has as yet taken any steps in the matter.—ED. NATION.]

BLACK AND WHITE ON SOUTHERN RAILROADS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: C. F. Adams writes you: "In the South the negro must ride in a separate and filthy railroad-car or in the smoking-car."

Six months ago I should have believed that Mr. Adams knew what he was talking about, had I then read his letter in the *Nation*. For the last half year I, a Northern man, have travelled in the States of North and South Carolina, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Georgia. What the laws of these States are with relation to negroes riding in first-class cars I do not know; I do know, however, that in this State negroes ride in first-class cars if they buy first-class tickets, and I have seen them in such cars in South Carolina, Tennessee, and Georgia.

My impression is that South Carolina forbids any but whites to ride in first-class cars. Anyway, let me relate an incident I personally witnessed a few weeks ago in South Carolina: A negro woman with two children, all well dressed, entered a first-class car on its way to North Carolina. The conductor ordered her into the second-class car. She refused to go, saying it was only a few hours' ride into North Carolina, where the conductor acknowledged he could not discriminate. Now Mr. Adams doubtless expects to hear that the woman was thrown off the car, burned at the stake, and the brains of her children dashed out against the nearest telegraph-pole. His idea doubtless is—I once had that idea—that in the South there is always at hand a band of men (ex-rebels, of course, and more or less Kukluxy in dress) whose business it is to kill negroes, or at best insult them, on the slightest provocation. As a matter of fact, this negro woman kept her seat; not only that, she kept her tongue going, and she routed the conductor all along the line, to the great amusement—not indignation, Mr. Adams—of everybody in the car. He retired in as good order as could be expected, and the negro woman, her head well up, rolled into North Carolina in a state bordering on the triumphal entry of a victorious general.

Now let me add—it is so characteristic—that though this negress routed the conductor, she was totally unable to resist the blandishments of the train-boy, who sold to her several dollars' worth of stuff she could have no possible use for.

R.

NORTH CAROLINA, March 3, 1890.

THE RELIEF OF THE SUPREME COURT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your notice of my paper intimates that I should have suggested a scheme. I do not propose to do anything so presumptuous. This measure should be intrusted to a commission of five lawyers appointed by the President at the request of Congress. It is evident, judging from the specimens we have had, that neither the importance nor the difficulty of the subject is appreciated. The existing statutes, I have endeavored to show, prove that Congress overlooked entirely the chief object of having a Supreme Court, for general jurisprudence, while they carefully preserve its functions for constitutional and statutory law and the rights of the Government.

It is unreasonable to expect that any one should volunteer the adequate labor and time for drafting a proper statute without some prospect of its being read, and it is quite improbable that Congress will accept unasked-for advice of a mere private person. When England began its law reform fifty years ago, it did it by commissions, and by them inquiry was made of every State of the Union as to their experience in the matters proposed to be dealt with. It is supposed some of our plans were imitated. Would it not be well to follow this example, and ascertain how it is that they have solved the very difficulty we are laboring under?

Solved it they have. It may be that the litigation in the British Empire is smaller than that of the very limited jurisdiction of the Federal courts. If so, why it is so is a most pertinent question for the Commission. Is it brought about by artificial means or natural? It will be remarkable if this is the fact, when we consider that the appellate jurisdiction includes the three kingdoms and all the colonies, whatever be the cause. They have no constitutional questions, but we have no divorce suits or ecclesiastical causes. They even consider the propriety of granting a new trial in a colonial court. They weigh the evidence in admiralty; we prohibit any inquiry into the conclusions of a single judge, however unfounded. They evidently know no limit of amounts in controversy; we hold that if the plaintiff, though entitled to nothing, is content to accept so small a sum as $5,000 and costs, the constitutional guarantee of an appeal is lost.

I do not propose to suggest the remedy. I think any one can see the difference between the presumption of framing a statute for Congress, and pointing out the mode of obtaining the proper kind of ability and information for the task. No one but a practising lawyer can fully comprehend the evil as it now exists, and the impossibility of curing it, except by some system that we know nothing about. The result of the experiment we did make is quite sufficient, I should think, to prevent one whose self-conceit has any limit, from venturing on untried plans, spun out of the cobwebs of his own brain; and the Pennsylvania practice of pretending to hear counsel, provided they will not speak long enough to enable any one to ascertain what they are after, has not proved entirely satisfactory.

It is only in the hope that somebody will be induced by the recommendation of your paper to get the attention of Congress or the Government called to the subject, that I have ventured to make these suggestions.

R. C. MCMURTRIE.

THE TYRANNY OF THE STONECUTTERS' UNION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I enclose a cutting from yesterday's Boston *Daily Globe*, which doubtless you may have seen, with regard to the lockout in the stonecutters' trade due to the first combined action of the Freestone Contractors' Association of New England, an association of recent organization. The outrages from which the employers of stonecutters have suffered seem to me among the most heinous and unjust ever suffered by employers at the hands of unions. That the abuses should have been tolerated so long, and been allowed to grow to their present enormity, is matter for the greatest surprise; and that the employers, now that they have been forced at last to combined action, should publish a manifesto so wise, so just, and so moderate as the one I enclose, speaks most strongly in their favor. It is to be hoped they will not give in until they have forced the Union to the adoption of every one of their most temperate proposals.

But it is not to enlarge upon the statement of the employers' grievances that I write to you, though I might mention individual cases that have come to my knowledge of employers paying such fines as $100 to the Union because they did not get their men all paid off by exactly twelve o'clock. I wish to call attention to one phase of the trouble which affects all those interested in the advancement of art in this country. By the brute power of the Stonecutters' Union, the carvers of all stone and marble used in any way in buildings—men who are some of them thorough artists—are forced to belong to the Stonecutters' Union, to class themselves with mere artisans, and help them fight their battles, however unjust. Hitherto the majority of them have tamely submitted to this slavery under the mistaken notion that it was to their advantage. There are not enough carvers of real ability in the country to do all the work for which there is demand, yet the New England Stonecutters' Union has refused to allow any more men to join the unions or to work in the yards, and it includes the carvers in this refusal, for it makes no distinctions. Its aim is rather to reduce all to the level of the lowest. Previous to this it charged every man the outrageous admission fee of $100 to the Union, or would not let him work.

These carvers were ordered to strike without any reasons given. Telegrams were sent to different cities in the United States where they were at work, and they meekly dropped their tools and came back to Boston. The carvers all admit the entire justice of their employers' position, they regret having to give up profitable work for reasons they know to be utterly unjust; but they dare not disobey the tyrant's commands. The cause of the enforced strike was the employment of carvers belonging to the Marblecutters' Union to carve certain marble for the Boston Public Library, enough carvers belonging to the Stonecutters' Union not being obtainable. The animus of the Union is shown by its president remarking, "He was not there to discuss the justice of the matter: that was not his affair; the Union had the power and meant to use it." It is, in short, a mere exhibition of brute power for the mere sake of using it and glorying in it.

Of late years some of our architects have been making strenuous efforts to improve the quality of the carving on our buildings—to make the carving, as it should be, real work of art. The great improvements that have been made in the last ten years testify to the partial success of these efforts and to the admirable way in which they have frequently been seconded by the master carvers and their men. More, much more, remains to be desired. But how, under the present conditions, is any advance possible? Truly, Pegasus is yoked with an ass.

ARCHITECT.

BOSTON, March 5, 1890.

FAS EST ET AB "HOSTE" DOCERI.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: At the meeting of the Typothetæ at St. Louis, in the autumn of 1889, the Chace Copyright Bill was discussed, and a leading printer

of St. Louis opposed it in a long speech, during which he did me the honor to make extensive quotations from a published lecture of mine, for which he gave me due credit; but I was grieved to find that, while using my arguments against the excessive claims of the extreme school of authors'-rights advocates, he did not state that the whole drift of my lecture (delivered in 1882) was in favor of granting copyright to all authors who, by publishing their books in any country, acquired thereby a moral right to the protection of the municipal law of that country. To have stated this would have traversed the line of his speech, and neutralized any force which his quotations may have had. I was, however, glad to find that the vote went in favor of the bill; and, St. Louis being a long way off, I did not trouble myself about the matter until last week, when I found, in the St. Louis *Stationer and Paper and Printing Trades' Journal*, some of these same quotations doing duty again in opposition to the principle of international copyright.

Before the meeting, during the summer of 1889, the gentleman referred to called on me at Montreal, and we had a long conversation upon this question. Our views were divergent, but I hoped to have impressed him in favor of international copyright. I saw by the printed report, in October last, that I was mistaken. To quote, however, from my lecture in the way reported was like seething a kid in its mother's milk. Possibly he made some qualification which does not appear in print.

It always seemed to me that the chief cause of refusal of international copyright has, for very many years, been the extreme ground taken by the advocates of absolute authors' rights who persisted in ignoring certain economic principles which the United States (rightly or wrongly) had adopted. My theme was, that an author who manufactured his book in England acquired no rights in foreign countries by any absolute law; but that a book upon being manufactured in the United States should be protected as any other property, without inquiry as to where the writer was born. In patent law the principle is familiar.

My argument in the conversation also referred to at the meeting in St. Louis was purely from a United States standpoint (a position which Canadians, from their constant intercourse with the United States, are capable of taking), and it ran in this line:

The people of the United States have adopted the policy of protection to home industry. Therefore the proposed Copyright Bill demands that all books to be protected shall be manufactured in the United States. You are careful of the printers, the engravers, the binders, the paper-makers; but you, who oppose this bill, are forgetting the authors. I mean your own authors—bone of your bone and flesh of your flesh—born and brought up under your own institutions. What have they done that the works of foreigners should be brought into untaxed competition with their works? The American author has to live, and sometimes, when he is very imprudent, he has a wife and children; for that reason his books are charged with copyright. In short, he gets paid for his work just like the printer and binder, and the babes of the printer and paper-maker and author are thereby nourished into active adult citizens of your great republic. But, as your law stands now, you are bringing in the work of foreign authors to the detriment of your home authors; you are selling their books less the cost of authorship; and you are taking the bread out of the mouths of your own literary producers, because you are underselling their productions with free foreign literary labor. You would not do that with the paper-makers. You say books must be cheap—the people of the United States demand cheap books. If so, be consistent and take the duty off paper and printing materials and give the people cheaper books; but you protect every kind of labor in a book except intellectual labor. In books alone free foreign labor is encouraged to supplant American labor.

And it does supplant it to an amazing degree. The American mind is not nourished upon American literature, but upon British literature. Look through the immense lists of books in the cheap libraries: you will find no American names. It is nothing to the point to say that British authors receive nothing out of that enormous mass of literature; neither do American authors, for it takes the place of American literature and displaces just so much of native work. Your wives and daughters read of deans and canons, and dukes and lords, of kings and queens and courts, and their ideas are formed, in spite of their surroundings, upon a state of society eminently un-American. The British author is teaching them gratis. The men are saved by the daily newspapers—for the Sunday newspapers are now largely occupied with foreign-syndicate matter also.

It seems to me that, in this respect, the United States people are yet in the Middle Ages. In old times the foreigner was always an enemy, and the same word was used for both. The last people in the other hemisphere who nourished such ideas were the Barbary States. Commodore Decatur explained matters to them in 1815, and ever since that time the property of the foreigner has been everywhere respected—provided it were not literary property; but in literature the stranger is still the enemy in the United States.

But this objectionable foreign author is by the Chace bill to be domiciled among you. He brings the produce of his brains and prints it on American paper with American type and ink. He will submit to all your laws and regulations, if you will allow him, so far as to make his book entirely in your country; but even then you must ask where he is residing and where he was born. In literature the foreigner must still be the enemy, and, on the high sea of the intellect, his property is the common property of the "faithful." But the British author is of your own race and speech and religion; and Algiers never preyed upon Tunis or Tripoli.

All this does not concern me. If my unfortunate lecture had not been quoted to contradict its main object, I should not have said a word. In spite of everything, American literature is advancing—not as the literature of a nation of fifty millions ought to advance, for its discouragements are many, but yet it is advancing, and Canadian printers will every year have more and more of a selection to reprint from. The population of Canada is about four millions, while your population is over fifty millions. We have more of a literature than you suppose; but much of it is French, and the same causes which have retarded your literary growth so long are acting with redoubled force upon ours, so that we shall have nothing to lose in comparison to you. We shall be able to give the people of the United States cheap editions of their own authors upon Canadian paper, as Belgium did for a long time to France, and all your custom-houses cannot keep them out, for the intercourse between Canada and the United States is incessant, and you say the people must and will have cheap books. We shall become public benefactors to that needy nation, and enable the poorest American citizen to nourish his intellect with pure American thought uncontaminated with the monarchism of Europe—free from the influence of deans and canons and dukes and peers and such like people—disturbing to American ideas. What a career you are preparing for the Canadian printers when you oppose the Chace bill.

These and similar considerations formed the staple of my argument in the very pleasant chat I had the honor of having with my St. Louis friend. My poor lecture looked at the question almost solely from a legal aspect, having been prepared eight years ago for a course in a law school; but my argument, even there, was in favor of the present Canadian principle, which exacts only that the book should be printed here, and leaves the tariff to settle the matter of paper and type. The Chace bill goes much further, and, in the interest of the United States people, material as well as intellectual, should become law. I think that in the long run it is expedient to do right, even for a great nation, and that if the United States people continue to inquire into the nationality of the author of a book printed in their own country before granting it the protection of their laws, they will not be, in matters of the intellect, much in advance of the Roman people long before the Christian era, who used the same word, *hostis*, for both enemy and foreigner.

S. E. Dawson.

Montreal, March 3, 1890.

ANTI-AMERICAN BRITISHISM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Though some time has elapsed since, in your issue No. 1255, you published a letter on "The Reputed Ignorance and Ambition of Americans," I hope you will allow me to return to the subject of it, the story related in that letter having a highly instructive sequel.

According to Sir William Fraser, Gen. Grant, when dining with the late Duke of Wellington, addressed his host in these words: "My Lord, I have heard that your father was a military man. Was that the case?" But, nearly a hundred pages further on, in the book from which this is taken, we read:

"In an earlier part of this work I told the story of President Grant dining at Apsley House. I regret I asked the second duke what really took place. However, as the reader has had the full enjoyment of the story, I must now, in the interests of truth, state what the Duke told me happened. He said that, during dinner, Gen. Grant kept trying to get him to say what was the greatest number of men that his father had commanded in the field. The Duke added: 'I saw what he was at: if I had said forty or fifty thousand men, he would have replied, Well, I have commanded a hundred thousand. So I was determined not to answer his questions as to this; and I succeeded.'"

Now, if one of our countrymen were to express regret at having taken measures resulting in the discovery that a defamatory anecdote vented by him was baseless, an Englishman would, almost certainly, exclaim: "How very American!" But circumstances are often, with him, all in all. Significant, too, is Sir William Fraser's assumption that a tale injurious to the character of an eminent American is sure to contribute to his British readers' "enjoyment." In his eyes, this kind of "enjoyment" must be, as one sees, a thing which it is patriotically meritorious to pander to, while the choice of instrumentality securing it does not in the least matter, the end justifying the means. Let us look a little closely at what the titled gentleman does. First, by way of ministering to national animosity, a feeling conducive, in his estimation, to "enjoyment," he prints what he apparently knows to be a malicious invention,

or, bluntly, a lie. Secondly, by and by, when the lie has had time to root itself firmly in the memory of the reader, he talks, just as an honest man would do, about "the interests of truth"; takes back, as being avowedly false, his calumnious story, which he permits us to suspect that he may himself have devised; and substitutes for it something entirely different, its disparagement apart.

As to the late Duke of Wellington, unless he has been misrepresented by his professed colloquist, there must have been a peculiarity about him not much more respectable than Sir William Fraser's sense of historical veracity; but this I am loth to believe; and the succedaneous anecdote quoted above, seeing that the person on whose sole authority it rests has shown his hand, seems to call for no farther comment.

That Gen. Grant was only a vulgar and illiterate soldier I have heard contended by many Englishmen. And no wonder, since, the minutest minority excepted, none of us are here credited with having yet advanced beyond the mere rudiments of education. Not long ago, in my own study, a learned clergyman, on my saying that I was a graduate of Harvard College, remarked: "But, in America, small things are called by large names. Your colleges, no doubt, would rank with our Board Schools. The elements of Latin are taught in them, I suppose, provided you can get over instructors from England?" Nor did this surprise me, considering that I have, more than once, been asked, by those who knew nothing more of me than my nationality, whether I could read and write.

Your obedient servant, F. Hall.

Marlesford, England, February 20, 1890.

THE NEW ENGLAND FARM-VILLA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have just been reading the article on pp. 195-6, entitled "A Suggestion for Summer." I have read it with interest, as I have an earlier one, because it strikes in me a sympathetic chord, and because I know something practically about "living in such conditions as are there outlined." Let me, then, venture to suggest two practical questions, which must be answered satisfactorily in every family which attempts so to live.

(1.) How will you induce one hired girl—not to say "two or three house servants"—to stay in the place described during the three months of each year in question?

(2.) How will you induce a gentleman—and especially his wife—of means sufficient to keep up an establishment on the scale described, to spend more than one night in that "house of seven rooms" on an abandoned farm in New Hampshire or Vermont?

The travel and observation of the writer of the article must suggest the thought that one of the first things the new owner will be sure to do, will be to pull down that farm-house and erect something more tolerable in the eyes of ladies city bred, at a probable cost at least three times the selling value of the whole farm, including the new improvements.

Very truly yours, H. A. Harman.

Rutland, Vt., March 7, 1890.

THE WASHINGTON PEDIGREE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue for January 23 you printed a letter signed "C.," quoting Mrs. Cotton's tract, wherein she tells Mr. C. H. of Yardley, Northamptonshire, about Col. [John] Washington, "him whom you have sometimes seen at your house." It was inferred that this house was in England, and that this letter connected Col. Washington with Northamptonshire.

I have just done what I should have done before, viz, read Mrs. Cotton's letter throughout. I find she also says to Mr. C. H., on p. 10, that among the rebels killed were "James Wilson, once your servant," Lieut.-Col. Page, "one that my husband bought of Mr. Lee, when he kept store at your house," and Anthony Arnell, "the same that did live at your house." Also, p. 7, she mentions four members of the Council and six other leaders, "all persons with whom you have been formerly acquainted." On p. 4 she says that Nathaniel Bacon was "nearly related to your late wife's father-in-law."

These citations seem to show very strongly that Mr. C. H. had lived in Virginia, and therefore it is probable that it was in this country he met Col. Washington.

As to Mr. C. H. of Yardley—could he be a Harrison? Some coincidences point that way. At all events, the Bacon pedigree ought to be searched. W. H. Whitmore.

Boston, March 7, 1890.

Notes.

Language fails us when it comes to characterizing our abominable tariff on knowledge. Here is the third volume of Mr. B. F. Stevens's splendid series of 'Facsimiles of MSS. in European Archives relating to America,' just arrived. The undertaking is one proper for the Government of the United States, and would be an honor to it. In default of its initiative or patronage, how ought the Government—*i. e.*, the people—of this country to regard the patriotic American who takes the risk of the enterprise commercially? Might it not fitly send a national ship for the volumes, if that were needed as a token of its appreciation? On the contrary, it does what it can to exclude them, and to insure Mr. Stevens's failure to recover his outlay. It imposes (except in the case of public libraries) a duty on each portion of the work, and increases for any collector or student the subscription price by one-quarter. There was question whether the 'Facsimiles' might not come in as periodical issues: at home we allow the Pirates' Own libraries to circulate through the mails at periodical rates of postage. But mark the determining consideration: these precious 'Facsimiles' must be somehow enveloped in order to avoid destruction in transit, and they are actually placed in "substantial boxes made of cloth and leather," thus, though they are unstitched, being assimilated to books. Hence the Treasury finds that the true (and we may as well relieve ourselves by saying the infernal) intent of the law is, that a tax should be clapt upon American—not foreign—disinterestedness, devotion, arduous application, skill, scholarly research, and popular knowledge of the history of these United States.

At the same time we receive from a London firm an inquiry how to send to this journal the catalogue of an important English library without making us chargeable with the duty. We are obliged to reply, with shame, that we know of no way, though the work has of course no commercial value, is beyond the dreams of American pirates or the jealousy of American paper-makers, type-founders, printers, and publishers. We could add that, as a critical journal, we are constantly in receipt of foreign works for review, on which we regularly pay a tax according to the caprice of the postal customs; yet it is only by our examining and reporting upon such works that our public can (for the most part) learn of their existence and value. We can give still another instance, of a different class, within our cognizance, where the son of an eminent American was obliged to pay a paltry tax on a volume bestowed by a foreign author by way of homage to his ancestor.

The sixth publication of the Filson Club, whose publishers are John P. Morton & Co., Louisville, Ky., is announced to be 'The Political Beginnings of Kentucky,' by the late John Mason Brown.

The Dunlap Society, now four years old, announces that it proposes to issue this season the third part of Mr. William Winter's 'Brief Chronicles'; a brief biography of the late John Gilbert, with extracts from his autobiography and letters, to be prepared also by Mr. Winter; and the 'Occasional Addresses of the American Stage,' to be edited by Mr. Laurence Hutton and Mr. William Carey, and to be supplementary to Mr. Hutton's former collection of 'Opening Addresses.' These books are to be printed by De Vinne in limited editions of less than two hundred, and are not for sale. They will be forwarded, when ready, to any one who pays the annual subscription of five dollars. The Secretary of the Dunlap Society is Mr. Brander Matthews, No. 121 East Eighteenth Street, New York, to whom subscriptions should be forwarded.

Those interested in the French stage will be glad to hear that a new and complete edition is in preparation of the works of the late Émile Augier, and also that M. Alexandre Dumas, *fils*, is collecting his scattered writings of recent date to form a fourth volume of 'Entr'actes' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern). M. Dumas once threatened to publish the plays of others which he had revised and made profitable—"Le Supplice d'une Femme," "Les Danicheff," etc.—under the title of "Le Théâtre des Autres"; but of this there is as yet no announcement.

Prof. Perrin, formerly of Göttingen and now of Boston University, is engaged upon an English translation of Heinrich von Sybel's 'History of the Founding of the German Empire by Wilhelm I.' It will be published by Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York.

'Jefferson Davis, ex-President of the Confederate States,' a memoir by his wife, is to be published, by subscription, by Belford Co., New York.

Harper & Brothers will shortly issue 'Maria: A South American Romance,' by Jorge Isaacs, translated by Rollo Ogden; 'What I Remember,' a second volume by T. Adolphus Trollope, covering the period 1865–1889; and 'Two Years in the French West Indies,' by Lafcadio Hearn.

'Easter Gleams,' hymns and poems, by Lucy Larcom; 'In a Club Corner,' by A. P. Russell; and 'Indigenous Flowers of the Hawaiian Islands,' by Mrs. F. Sinclair, with forty-four water-color plates, are in the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

John Wiley & Sons announce as in preparation a translation, by Prof. R. H. Thurston, of Sadi-Carnot's 'Reflections on the Motive Power of Heat'; 'Sugar Analysis,' by F. G. Weichmann; and 'The Logic of Algebra,' by Ellery W. Davis.

A handy 'Medical Dictionary,' by George M. Gould, M.D., will be published directly by P. Blakiston, Son & Co., Philadelphia, a small octavo of 520 pages.

The February number of the *Library Journal* enumerates a long list of bibliographies on the way to completion before the new century —like Sabin's 'Dictionary of Books Relating to America,' with its promised index volume— and the following much nearer to getting into print: a list of bibliographies on all subjects, by J. L. Whitney of the Boston Public Library; a list and index to the printed volumes of our historical societies, by A. P. C. Griffin of the same library; a list of New York imprints before 1784, by C. R. Hildeburn; another of North Carolina imprints before 1800, by Dr. S. B. Weeks; a bibliography of New Jersey by W. R. Weeks; a list of books relating to State constitutions and conventions, by J. R. Hickox; a bibliography of the United States Constitution, by Prof. A. B. Hart and Paul Leicester Ford; a list, by the American Historical Association, of the historical writings of its members, etc., etc.

Miss Coe, the librarian of the New York Free Circulating Library, contributes to the tenth annual report some very interesting lists of favorite reading, as, for example, that of fiction, where 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' leads all competitors in the main library as well as in the three branches. Miss Coe says: "It will be noticed that in most cases the favorite book of a class or of an author is a representative one. Specially is that noticeable in the list of the Ottendorfer Library, where it is evident that Americans of foreign birth or parentage are reading the best, or, at least, best known books in American literature, and that American history, biography, and miscellany are taking the lead. It is certain that Germans read better books than Americans, and boys than girls."

Mr. J. R. Hickox, in his Monthly Catalogue of United States Government Publications, criticises bills introduced by Senators Wilson and Hoar for the distribution of the United States Statutes, the *Congressional Record*, and other public documents. He thinks the designation of libraries should not be confided to Congress, but to the Department of the Interior.

At its meeting in St. Louis last May, the new Association of State Librarians passed a series of resolutions for the improvement, right conduct, and ample support of State libraries, the regulated distribution of public documents, the exchange of duplicates, etc., as well as for assistance from Congress in the direction of free exchange through the mails, lower postage on books, and exemption for State libraries from duties on books imported. These resolutions commend themselves to every intelligent person.

Ten years ago the libraries of the Legislature and the Historical Society of Nova Scotia were amalgamated, and a hurried catalogue of the joint collection has just been published, with omission of the pamphlets. It affords a somewhat curious study of what we may call drift in this continental "pocket." Among the newspaper files, but two are from "the States," viz., one year of the *New England Weekly Journal*, published in Boston (1727–1728), and one of the New York *Spirit of the Age* (1859). Among the individual biographies only fifteen are of natives of the United States, counting Lord Lyndhurst and the Loyalist Curwen. The rest are Channing, Choate, Franklin, Abbott and Amos Lawrence, R. E. Lee, Longfellow, W. H. Prescott, Bishop Seabury, Ticknor, Washington, and a missionary family. The fortuitous group of our histories is equally curious and antiquated.

The latest edition of Gay's Fables is published in connection with the "Chandos Series" (Frederick Warne & Co.). An ardent Devonshire collector, Mr. W. H. Kearley Wright, borough librarian, Plymouth, produces a new biographical sketch of Gay which for the first time gives the true date of Gay's birth, viz., 1685, and likewise takes advantage of the bicentenary celebration at Barnstaple in 1885, two years after Mr. Austin Dobson had edited the Fables for the "Parchment Library." Mr. Wright also adds a completer bibliography of the oft-reprinted work than has ever been attempted—considerably fuller than the editions named in the British Museum Catalogue. Numerous illustrations, reëngraved from William Harvey's drawings of two or three generations back, embellish the present edition, which is clearly printed in large type and is altogether presentable. Mr. Wright's literary execution falls short of Mr. Dobson's, but he seems to be reserving himself for a longer biography of Gay.

A timely little book on 'Eggs: Facts and Fancies about Them,' by Anna Barrows (Boston: D. Lothrop Co.), leads the reader insensibly through egg-lore and commercial statistics to consideration of eggs as medicine and as food, with recipes for preserving and for cooking in a great many forms; the author's aim being to promote the consumption of this article of diet, and even the raising of eggs for market by women.

The first volume of the Messrs. Longman's *New Review* is very handsome, its single-column page masking the magazine. The list of contributors is not lacking in stars, from Gladstone to Bret Harte, from Cardinal Manning to George Jacob Holyoake, from Max Müller to Vámbéry, from Henry James to Lord Randolph Churchill, from Pasteur to Tennyson. The symposium has been employed for such debatable topics as the character of the German Emperor, the great London strike, the new Radicalism, the South African problem, the progress of coöperation, anonymity, etc., etc. Tennyson's "Throstle" is, we believe, the only verse of the volume.

The Syracuse *Academy* for February is wholly occupied with the official report of the fifth holiday conference of the Associated Academic Principals of the State of New York on December 26 and 27, 1889.

Meteorology is a favorite subject for loose theorizing. *Science* is very liberal in giving five and a half pages to an unconsciously humorous effort by Frank A. Velschow to explain the "Cause of Rain." The *American Meteorological Journal* has, with equal liberality, devoted parts of several recent issues to a series of articles on cyclones by Faye, "Membre de l'Institut, etc.," with more yet to follow on tornadoes. They serve as illustrations of the ancient school of meteorology, but they have small bearing on the modern status of the science.

A copy of the better of two etchings of George Eliot made by Rajon is given in the *Studio* for March 1, in which we remark also Mr. Edward Robinson's comments on a bust of Tiberius in the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, likewise pictured here.

"The Ethnography of the Peloponnesus," by Dr. A. Philippson, is the principal paper in the last *Petermann's Mitteilungen*. In the accompanying map, so colored as to show the different nationalities and the language of the inhabitants, it is surprising to note how very considerable a part of the peninsula is inhabited by Albanians, or those who speak the Albanian tongue. Prof. G. Schweinfurth contributes a review of Mr. Flinders Petrie's work in the Fayum, Egypt. He criticises with some severity his lack of proper preparation and the careless manner in which the various excavations were conducted, in consequence of which great quantities of valuable material were lost or destroyed. In this number is the first part of a bibliography with notices of the most recent works and articles in the leading periodicals upon Africa. An idea may be obtained of the amount of literature on this subject from the fact that, though only the general works and those relating to the continent north of the Equator are given, 292 different titles are recorded. Some of the most important of these are the first volume of Dr. Junker's account of his travels between the years 1875 and 1886, Capt. Wissmann's journeys in the Congo Basin and across the continent, Gen. Faidherbe's 'Senegal,' and the third and concluding volume of the late Gustav Nachtigal's great work on the Sahara and the Sudan.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for February contains papers by Prof. James Geikie on the "Evolution of Climate," accompanied by several geological maps, and by Mr. H. J. Mackinder on the "Physical Basis of Political Geography." There is also an interesting account of a recent journey in northwestern Persia by Mr. J. Theodore Bent. Many of the nomad tribes of this region live with their flocks in underground houses during the winter months, just as their ancestors did in the days of Xenophon. "They are detected only by mud domes with holes at the top, over which the road passes, and at the top of which the village life is carried on. Not unfrequently accidents happen, and a donkey or horse descends through the ceiling on to the family below." In other places these subterranean habitations have slanting roofs, appearing above ground, made of thatch. At Baba Nazeyr Mr. Bent found a religious sect having rites which "contain many elements of Christianity." He suggests that they are "one of the decayed Christian sects of this region, who, to avoid persecution, have substituted the name of Ali for that of Christ." Mr. Delmar Morgan contributes a biographical notice of Sir Henry Yule, with a list of his writings, and a portrait.

The Hon. Geo. Curzon, M.P., has written to the London *Times* an account of the Karun River, which was opened to commerce in October, 1888, through the instrumentality of the British Minister at Teheran. This stream, the only navigable river in Persia, can be ascended by vessels of light draught from the Persian Gulf a distance of 177 miles to Ahwaz, where there are rapids which can only be passed at certain stages of the water. From this point the river is navigable for 100 miles to Shuster, an important town whence caravan routes go to different parts of the kingdom. Great expectations were aroused at this concession of the Shah, both because the river flows through a country which, though now almost without inhabitants and destitute of vegetation, is of extraordinary fertility, and because the land journey to Ispahan and Teheran may be shortened nearly three hundred miles. Mr. Curzon, however, found that the local authorities had hitherto prevented the commercial development of the privilege. An English company had put a boat upon the river which makes fortnightly trips to Ahwaz, though at a steady loss. It has not been permitted to construct either wharves, warehouses, or sheds, nor is the steamer allowed to take in or discharge either cargo or passengers at any intermediate point between the mouth of the river and Ahwaz. The opposition comes from all classes. Still, the Government has built a large custom-house at Mohammerah, at the junction of the Karun with the estuary of the Tigris-Eu-

phrates, and is running a telegraph line between this place and Shuster.

A long extract from Col. Stoffel's pamphlet, 'The Possibility of a Franco-German Alliance,' of which our Paris correspondent speaks on another page, is given in the enterprising Boston *Transatlantic* for March 1. Robert Browning's is the portrait of the number.

—We lately noticed a remark attributed to Mr. Spofford, librarian of the National Library at Washington, to the effect that his colored readers (a superior class) eschewed fiction for works of a serious and improving character. A correspondent writes to us from North Carolina that this is not at all remarkable, but a wise and beautiful dispensation of Providence, seeing that the available fiction "excludes their own race type." She adds that "a chaste and fitting fiction for the African must grow out of his own civilization and social progress." In view of the prevailing taste among white Americans for French and Russian novels and Danish plays, and of the continued wide circulation of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' together with fresh productions involving the colored American's "race type" by Mr. Harris, Mr. Page, Miss Murfree, and other Southern writers, we do not profess to be able to follow our correspondent's argument. She may, however, be interested in proof that the colored people formerly indulged in fiction regardless of race types. In the perhaps sole contribution of John Brown to periodical literature, "Sambo's Mistakes," published about 1848 in the (colored) *Ram's Horn*, we find the following passage. Sambo *loquitur:*

"For instance, when I was a boy I learned to read; but instead of giving my attention to sacred and profane history, by which I might have become acquainted with the true character of God and of man; learned the true course for individuals, societies, and nations to pursue; stored my mind with an endless variety of rational and practical ideas; profited by the experience of millions of others of all ages; fitted myself for the most important stations in life, and fortified my mind with the best and wisest resolutions, and noblest sentiments and motives, I have spent my whole life devouring silly novels and other miserable trash, such as most newspapers of the day and other popular writings are filled with; thereby unfitting myself for the realities of life, and acquiring a taste for nonsense and low wit, so that I have no relish for sober truth, useful knowledge, or practical wisdom. By this means I have passed through life without profit to myself or others, a mere blank on which nothing worth perusing is written."

—We gave, last year, at the time of the setting up of the tablets in memory of the slain of Bunker Hill, some account of this undertaking on the part of the city of Boston. Out of it has grown a bulky 'Memorial of the American Patriots who fell at the Battle of Bunker Hill,' issued as a city document in elegant form, with admirable illustrations from nature, old prints, and old maps. It first records the official acts and proceedings relating to the preparation and dedication of the tablets, following these with an anniversary sermon, and then coming to the real historic kernel of the book in a series of appendices which we owe to the zeal and antiquarian learning of Mr. William H. Whitmore. Here the order is an abbreviated sketch of the battle, a list of the Americans killed, English opinion of the Colonial troops (particularly Burgoyne's opinion), and a history of the erection of the monument, with Webster's two orations (1825, 1843). A curious completeness is given to all this by reproducing the Revolutionary army regulations, with contemporary illustrations of the manual exercise. Mr. Whitmore observes in passing that he is informed, by high authority, "that portions of Steuben's rules still stand unchanged in the present United States Manual." A political souvenir of no little interest is the view of the cavalcade of the Whig Convention of 1840 as it passed the half-finished monument, from an engraving preserved on a musical composition of the time. Noteworthy, too, is the panorama of Boston and its environs. Since the tablets were erected, one error in company assignment and five omissions have been discovered, as is duly set forth by Mr. Whitmore. This important work should have a wide distribution among our public libraries.

—Students of the Elizabethan drama will gladly welcome the appearance of Marlowe's "Faustus" in a worthy shape ('Doctor Faustus: Historisch-kritische Ausgabe, von Hermann Breymann.' Heilbronn: Henninger, 1889). For the first time we have verbatim reprints of the texts of 1604 and 1616, with variants from other texts. One feature of Breymann's method we cannot approve. He has altered the quarto-texts where they offer "absoluter Unsinn oder andere, offenbare Verderbniss," marking the alteration by * or [], and giving the original form in the footnote. This we deem a faulty method, and all the more faulty because purely gratuitous. Why not have given the original in every instance, blunder and all, literatim, leaving the reader to make his own emendations, or merely suggesting them in the notes? The use of * or [] in the text only puzzles the eye. It would also have been better to print the list of abbreviations on p. lv. at the beginning of the Introduction. On the page indicated, Ward's second edition of "Faustus" is correctly dated 1887. In the Table of Contents and at p. xli. it is cited as of 1881 (with a ?). The heading *Einzelausgaben* (p. xli.) is misleading; what Breymann means is not separate editions of the drama, but editions (or publications) not in Marlowe's collected works. The Introduction discusses almost exhaustively the bibliography of "Faustus," and other textual matters. Especially interesting is the discussion (pp. viii.–xv.) of the edition of 1611 and 1663, and the discovery that Collier's alleged copy of 1611 is only a copy of 1663 with the date 1611 *written* on the title - page! Those conversant with Collier's idiosyncrasies will know what that implies. In Breymann's discussion of the relations between Marlowe and the German Faust - book we miss all reference to Pantin's letter in the *Academy* of June 25, 1887. Pantin's view does not differ essentially from that of Zarncke-Breymann ; but it has the merit of citing half-a-dozen passages where Marlowe follows closely the variations of the English translation of the Faust-book. Taken all in all, Breymann's edition of "Faustus" is a great boon; we can only thank the editor for his patient zeal.

— The new Weimar edition of Goethe (New York: Westermann) has been making fair progress since our last reference to it, though there is little in the latest volumes which seems to call for extended comment. Volumes vi. and vii. of Part I. are devoted to the "West-Östlicher Divan," the former giving the text and variants, the latter the exegetical matter published by Goethe himself in 1819 under the name of 'Noten und Abhandlungen.' The large amount of manuscript material that had to be collated makes the critical apparatus of the "Divan" more bulky than that of any of the other works except "Faust." We note that seven in all of the Suleika poems of book viii. are credited by the Weimar editor, either positively or doubtfully, in whole or in part, to Marianne Willemer. Volume viii. contains "Götz von Berlichingen" and "Egmont," the former in the edition of 1773, the earlier version of 1771 and the stage version of 1804 being reserved for a subsequent volume. In volume x. we have the three iambic plays, "Iphigenie," "Torquato Tasso," and "Die Natürliche Tochter," while volumes xxvi. and xxvii. give us the first ten books of 'Dichtung und Wahrheit.' It is to be hoped that the authority of the Weimar edition will have some influence in popularizing the correct title of Goethe's memoirs as against Riemer's unlucky emendation, 'Wahrheit und Dichtung.' Riemer says ('Mittheilungen über Goethe,' i., 397) that he made this suggestion on grounds of euphony (he liked the collocation "und *D*ichtung"), and because he wanted to counteract the misconception that the work was primarily fiction, with but a sprinkling of truth. He tells us, too, that his emendation was received by Goethe "with approval." It is clear, however, that this approval cannot have been very decided, since the "Ausgabe letzter Hand" has, like all the preceding prints, "Dichtung und Wahrheit." It would seem clear, therefore, that this title is not only the one originally chosen by Goethe, but is also the one preferred by him upon reflection. That the form of the title gives us any far-reaching information as to the relative prominence of the "poetry" and the "truth" in the book, no sensible person would now contend; still, it is well to remember that Goethe did actually put the "poetry" first. One of the merits of the Weimar edition is that it will enable the reader to distinguish between Goethe on the one hand and his coadjutors—editors, printers, and proof-readers—on the other. The other volumes thus far received are volume iii. of Part III., containing Goethe's diaries from 1801 to 1808, and volumes iv. and v. of Part IV., containing letters from 1779 to 1782.

THE FUTURE OF SOCIETY IN ENGLAND.

Individualism: A System of Politics. By Wordsworth Donisthorpe. Macmillan & Co. 1889.

Free Trade in Capital. By A. Egmont Hake and O. E. Wesslau. London: Remington & Co. 1890.

Socialism in England. By Sidney Webb. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co. 1890.

Fabian Essays in Socialism. Edited by G. Bernard Shaw. London: The Fabian Society. 1889.

Humanitism. By W. A. Macdonald. London: Trübner & Co. 1890.

THERE is a good deal of vigor in Mr. Donisthorpe's book. Many of the criticisms are keen, many irrelevant, but they are all spirited. Like some of the ancient philosophers mentioned by Plato, the author goes on his way without caring very much whether his auditors follow him or not, and he is certainly no respecter of persons. He corrects Smith, McCulloch, Mill, Spencer, and many lesser writers with the same positiveness and in the same superior tone. So confident is he in his own political economy that he concedes substantially all that the Socialists complain of, although he denies them their remedy. He declares that he has "grounds for believing that the employer pockets *more than half* the workmen's just share" of the product of their joint labor. This plunder amounts in England to about £375,000,000 per annum, which is certainly a sufficient iniquity to justify the wildest of socialistic outcries. But, according to Mr. Donisthorpe, the whole trouble is with the present system of paying wages fixed in advance. It is only necessary to substitute for

wages "a certain prearranged percentage of the gross produce" in order to attain justice. Then "the receipts of the hands would vary, like the profits of other capitalists, with the success of the venture and the state of trade." It is not important to state the advantages which the author conceives will follow from this change; nor is it worth while to suggest objections to an author who meets them by saying that he does not believe them. We fear that his attempts to promote the cause of individualism will only excite the ribald mirth of its opponents.

"Non tali auxilio, nec defensoribus istis,
Tempus eget."

'Free Trade in Capital' is much more conventional in tone, and contains a number of sensible observations. The introductory chapters are especially judicious. But the reader has hardly settled himself to enjoy a really scientific discussion of money, currency, and banking, when he becomes conscious of the buzzing of a bee in the authors' bonnet. A very good case may be made against the prohibition by Government of the issuance of promissory notes payable to bearer on demand, but to attribute all the evils that afflict society in England to Peel's Act of 1844, is ridiculous. Hence, the authors say, the divorce of capital and labor; hence the destruction of profits; hence the sweating system; hence the threatening growth of Socialism and the horrors of the Irish question. The abuse of free note-issuing is, they declare, an economic impossibility. Only let it be established, and every one that needs to use capital will be able to obtain it; obscure talents will be brought forward, enterprise stimulated, and universal prosperity follow. There is no confusion, we ought to state, of money and capital. The authors are not guilty of the folly of supposing that anything is to be gained by increasing the quantity of money used in trade; but they conceive that if note-issuing were general, credit would be obtained by those who ought to have it, but who cannot now get it. Unfortunately, they derive scarcely a single argument from experience, and as they warm to their work their assertions become more and more extravagant. Without positive proof to the contrary, we shall continue to believe that even at present more people get credit than deserve it, and that if note-issuing were free, the number would be increased. The attacks upon national education, the factory acts, and Socialism in general are in the main irrelevant, and, as they are unsupported by argument, only add to the futility of the book. It is a pity that its wise suggestions should be drowned in a sea of absurdities.

To read many of the diatribes against Socialism with which the English press teems is like listening to the screams of frightened old women, and almost creates a prepossession in favor of the Socialists. But this feeling is very soon altered by the perusal of their writings. They have advanced far beyond the half-hearted measures of Henry George, and will have nothing short of a confiscation of capital as well as land. So intoxicated have they become with their theories that they imagine them already realized, and, like Alnaschar the glass-vendor, in the 'Arabian Nights,' they dream that they are spurning the great ones of the earth as they are prostrate in supplication at their feet. The red cap appears, the sansculottes gather, and "Ça ira" rings once more in the air. The era of universal fraternity has arrived, primitive virtue is restored, and the way is open to the guillotine, the Goddess of Reason, and the Carmagnole.

Even now discordant notes are heard, and there are signs that human nature is only imperfectly purified. So close at hand is the division of the spoil that the army begins to flag in its pursuit of the enemy and to quarrel over the camp equipage. Some would put the prisoners to the sword, others hold them for ransom. Some are for having Government undertake everything, some for having no Government at all. The latter—the Anarchists—are characterized in one of these essays as being too good for this world, an opinion in which Chicago juries practically concur. Harsher terms than these, however, begin to be used, and it is obvious that unless discipline can be maintained, the prey may after all escape. No pirate ship ever had a successful cruise without union among the crew, and honor is indispensable, to a certain extent, even among thieves. It is not very easy to determine what Socialists understand by justice; but they will find it impossible to accomplish anything without maintaining some inflexible rule in dividing their plunder. Their essayists might wisely inculcate among their followers the simple morality of the Cornish clergyman who, when a wreck was announced as he was preaching, and the congregation bolted for the door, entreated them to give him time to doff his surplice and get down from the pulpit, so that they might all start together.

In 'Humanitism' we have quite the most consistent, complete, and altogether satisfactory scheme for the reformation of society which we have hitherto met with. Most of these plans do not go far enough, so that the majority of mankind reject them because they are apprehensive that the thing will have to be done over again. Thus the land-reformers affirm that perfect justice was attained under the early Teutonic village system, and that all subsequent changes have been corruptions, but, as we have seen, these land-reformers are already behind the times. Mr. Macdonald has observed the cause of this weakness and avoided the danger. The ideal State is to be found, not in the Mark, nor among the cave-dwellers, but among our simian ancestors. There was the true Garden of Eden, and human ills came in, not from eating apples—which, as we understand the author's theory, is an act of meritorious character—but from eating flesh and cooked food. If we can ascertain the natural food of the ape, we determine the best food for man, for his structure is substantially identical with that of the ape, and if we cannot adopt this diet, we are doomed to extinction. This natural food is, of course, seeds and fruits.

As the author observes, it is unfortunate that there are two schools of vegetarians, the chemical school and the biological school, the former of which, in most unprincipled fashion, alleges that its disciples are "moral vegetarians," although "the products of the cow and the hen are found in their bills of fare." But if these products be rejected, as they ought to be, the difference between the schools becomes practically immaterial, as the amount of land required by each would be the same. The individual ration is scientifically determined to be two ounces of shelled nuts, thirty-two ounces of fruit, and thirty ounces of grain—all of which are of course to be consumed uncooked and unground. Dried fruit may be used in case of emergency, but "dietetic perfection cannot be attained until nothing is drunk except fruits." It is computed that three acres of land will produce sufficient food of this kind for five persons, so that the present population of the United Kingdom could probably be supported upon one-fourth of its area. If this population subsisted on meat, it would require an area twenty times as great. No one can say that over-population is not easily preventable after this showing, especially since the basis of the land system of the apes is communal ownership.

From this vantage ground the refutation of the Socialists is easy. They are endeavoring to perpetuate "economicism" and "politicism," regardless of the fact that "the people build the nation, and the State is the author of its destruction." Labor destroys values instead of creating them; economic values are created by the destruction of scientific values. As manual labor can never be performed without robbing posterity, it is plain that the Socialistic millennium is only an aggravation of the present ills. As the individualistic system has committed suicide, the way seems to be open for a return to the happy condition of uncivilized man, by which we may escape from "the immoral tendency adhering to the development of all abstract conceptions."

Some hasty objector may raise the point that there are necessities of man which are not satisfied by nuts and fruit, but the author is ready for him. Our ancestors "had no conception of clothing, and their only sources of heat were food-combustion within—and the rays of the sun without." Two other elements of warmth were subsequently discovered, fire and clothing,

"both of which are unnatural, and must be consigned to the same category as the art of cookery. Clothing tends to destroy the functions of the skin in the same way as cooked foods tend to destroy the functions of our teeth, jaws, and internal organs, and can never take the place of the natural covering of hair. . . . The bodies of many civilized people would still be densely coated with hair were it not partially worn off by the friction of their clothing. . . . The wearing of clothes has been the source of more immorality and crime than all other habits combined."

We regret extremely that the squeamishness "adhering to the development" of our civilization, does not permit us to quote more liberally from this new Teufelsdröckh in his denunciations of the "shame idea." Nor does space allow us to explain how clothing and hot food check the "vito-electric current," or to expound the fascinating theory of "chronops"—as to which word we feel sure the author is right in contending that "the accent may rest on the first or second syllable, or both." And it is certainly more reverential to the new divinity "Mellos" and the religion "Melloism" to say nothing rather than to speak inadequately of them. But for the details of the author's theory, both on these points and on many others of equal interest to which we have been unable to allude, the reader must go to the book itself. The Messrs. Trübner have certainly made a new departure in admitting this work to the list of their publications.

RECENT FICTION.

Jupiter Lights. By Constance Fenimore Woolson. Harper & Bros.

The Master of Ballantrae. By Robert Louis Stevenson. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Metzerott, Shoemaker. T. Y. Crowell & Co.

A Little Journey in the World. By Charles Dudley Warner. Harper & Bros.

Sforza. A Story of Milan. By William Waldorf Astor. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Romance of Dollard. By Mary Hartwell Catherwood. The Century Co.

Alexia. By Mary Abbott. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

The Catholic Man. By Mrs. Lawrence Turnbull. Boston: D. Lothrop Company.

Miss Woolson must have been dominated by an evil spirit when she conceived the central situation of 'Jupiter Lights.' It is more easy to believe that she was "possessed" than that she deliberately chose to write a long novel about the stupid and obstinate attachment of a silly woman for a man who, every few months, became insanely drunk, beat her, turned her out of doors, and tried to kill both her and her child. In real life we occasionally hear of such instances of infatuation, but never that the fascination which men of Mr. Morrison's unpleasant habits exercise over their wives extends to other people, particularly to the wife's relations. In real life the wife's relations are generally coarse enough to combat her clinging affections, and, when possible, to deliver the husband over to the police. Such matter-of-fact behavior would, however, never do for high-flown romance. Miss Woolson's Mr. Morrison casts his spell upon his wife's grandfather, a Southern judge, upon her maiden aunt, and all but captures his natural enemy, Miss Bruce, the sister of Mrs. Morrison's first husband. His own relations and friends have been his bond slaves from his birth.

Excepting frequent references to his physical beauty, no clue to the secret of his charm is discoverable. He appears in person very seldom, and is prominent in one scene only. In this scene, armed with a knife, he is chasing his wife, Cicely, the child, and Miss Bruce across a plantation, in the middle of the night, intent upon killing any or all of them. Here he is so far from charming that we fervently hope the shot fired by Miss Bruce may have ended him. On the contrary, it does no one less harm than Mr. Morrison. He is picked up carefully and cherished as a martyr to the gratuitous malice of unknown negroes.

Miss Bruce herself is the person who suffers for a deed which was justifiable and courageous. By her presence of mind she saves the exasperating Cicely, and effects her escape from the island in the South where the charming Morrison is temporarily practising his art of enchantment. Her behavior in this emergency is consistent with the preconceived idea of her character, but, from that moment, she goes to pieces, and rivals Cicely in excess of folly. When the reason for Cicely's flight is explained to her grandfather, in Charleston, and to Mr. Morrison's half-brother, from whom, on the distant shore of Lake Superior, she demands protection, Miss Bruce says not a word about the pistol shot. She is represented as the victim of a remorseful terror which might be felt by a sentimental or religious woman—a woman who, in any case, would not have checked so promptly the pursuing Morrison. Even when Morrison is pronounced out of danger, when his brother, his fond wife, and her grandfather, the Judge, are all foaming with wrath against wanton negro outrages, Miss Bruce conceals the truth and suffers agony in reflecting on her crime. She seems to lose every atom of her intelligence and self-control, for, in addition to scourging herself for imaginary sin, she falls violently in love with Morrison's half-brother, Mr. Tenant, who is barely civil to her, and her passion sweeps her into a declaration.

All this is sheer romantic nonsense, and in every problem of conduct the people involved are as nearly irrational as possible. Their misunderstandings and their false way of looking at facts are so exasperating that there is danger of overlooking what is worth telling and well told, of including all in a sweeping condemnation. Miss Woolson is very familiar with the country round about the Jupiter Lights of the North and of the South, and with the people who dwell there. Her description of scene and local character is the straightforward expression of close and sympathetic observation. By dwelling upon these pictures the reader may soothe his indignation against the preposterous people struggling in a sea of self-inflicted trouble.

The charm ascribed by Mr. Stevenson to the 'Master of Ballantrae' is, for the first half of the story, almost as inscrutable as that of Miss Woolson's Mr. Morrison. The power exercised by him over his family is not felt emotionally, nor understood intellectually. He is selfish, sullen, treacherous, unscrupulous, malignantly vindictive, with no appreciable virtue excepting physical courage. Not until the story is well advanced, until the Master has driven his long-suffering brother to America, and come back to Durrisdeer to torment the faithful Mackellar, do we begin to recognize qualities which might command devotion even from those who hated and feared him. Henceforth to the end, though he is none the less detestable, and gives free rein to all the evil in his nature, the frankness of his impudence, the humor of his malice, and the ingenuity of his devices to accomplish his aims, all go far to proclaim a personality bound to work its will on weaker and on better men. He is the incarnation of force that makes for evil. Wherever he goes (and after the fatal field of Culloden he roams the world over), his path is marked by the material or moral ruin of those who balk his desire.

Yet the wickedest thing he does is probably unintentional, for, though one of the chief joys of his existence is to torment his brother, Henry Duree, he could never have foreseen the destruction of Henry's moral fibre which is brought about by his incessant persecution. Nature gave Henry none of the Master's brilliancy and none of his depravity. He is slow, honest, patient—with the Master, angelically patient. He, the faithful son and devoted husband, accepts without open resentment the second place in the affections of father and wife, and tolerates without rebuke their unconcealed adoration of their vagrant and worthless idol. Yet the Master's deviltry is always slowly, steadily eating out the heart of Henry's virtue. His patience is gradually exhausted, his intense family pride is shattered, his heart and soul are convulsed with hatred of the man who has made his life a long bitterness. At last this hatred, completely possessing him, becomes insanity, and is responsible for the scheme to murder his enemy which results fatally for both. The subtlest work in the book is in this sorrowful picture of the insidious vitiation of a just and tolerably righteous man.

It is, indeed, the only work which entitles the 'Master of Ballantrae' to rank with the author's best. As a story of adventure almost any one of his well-known books is better. Mackellar, the steward of the Durees, tells his tale awkwardly. He tells what he has heard, what he has found in written record, what he has seen and experienced. His method compares unfavorably with that of swift, direct narrative to which Mr. Stevenson has accustomed us. Then the Master's career is really fatiguingly erratic, a trifle incoherent, not steadily and increasingly exciting. As for the trick by which he is removed from earth, it is the trick of a literary juggler as well as of an Indian juggler. It is a tawdry catastrophe, infecting the whole story with its artificiality.

There is an impression abroad that life for the multitude is just now a most dolorous business, that there is no joy anywhere excepting that, of fiendish quality, which abides exclusively in the breast of the great capitalist who has earned bliss by defrauding and oppressing his fellow-men. Whether the impression has any solid foundation or not, it is extremely useful to novelists who understand the commercial advantages of timely writing. Their zeal in setting forth the wrongs and woes of one class for which another class is responsible is already reaping its reward. The novel-reader feels that he is being educated to higher things, and may even flatter himself that his sympathy is equivalent to efforts to alleviate the sorrows for which his heart bleeds and his tears fall. 'Metzerott, Shoemaker,' is a strong and thoughtful specimen of the timely novel. It may have been suggested by that now famous vision of Arcadia, 'Looking Backward,' but it is in no sense an imitation or an echo. Mr. Bellamy describes a society from which injustice and poverty have long been eliminated, a state of things that leaves nothing to be desired, excepting the spice of variety, by the wicked. He even guards against the survival of that unholy yearning by showing ingeniously that the wicked must of necessity vanish from the earth with the poor. The author of 'Metzerott' is not a dreamer. She attacks existing conditions and only points the way to Arcadia. For our political and social instruction, she has modestly restricted herself to the primer, the A B C of a new idea. The one essential difference between her scheme for establishing Paradise on earth and Mr. Bellamy's is, that she makes faith in Christ and prayer equal factors with work and human intelligence. In her vision of the future, man is made perfect by practice of Christian ethics and belief in Christian dogma. Novelists have been so busy of late trimming and adjusting Christianity into conformity with the supposed demands of developed intellect, that it is refreshing to come across one who, without bitterness or bigotry, flies the flag of the ancient faith, armed to defend it, scorning surrender, and rejecting compromise.

The author separates Christianity from creed idolatry very clearly, and her own spirit is perfectly impartial, but the kingdom of Christ will surely have come in the fulness of power when one city can boast of a group of clergymen so tolerant, so charitable, so amenable to persuasion as that of Micklegard. The idealized clergymen are, however, far from objectionable—on the contrary, most attractive when most extravagantly idealized: that is, when they are talking to and at each other in a clear, crisp, direct way, avoiding phrases which suggest the cant of the cloth. One feels that the cleverness of the clergy is really the author's, while that of the other people is individualized, as indisputably personal property as is the nose on each face. The distinct characterization of a great many men and women of widely contrasted disposition and condition shows that the author is as good a novelist as if she had never given a thought to any subject half so serious as those bestowed on the art of writing a novel. The plot, too, denotes that she is first of all a story-teller. It is very firmly constructed, and implies from the beginning a tragic dénouement. The skill and power expended on the story will have reward in the appreciation of all who read it, and if by reading one sceptic should be returned to the fold of the faithful, one capitalist converted into a Socialist, let the story-teller, not the controversialist or political reformer, take to herself the credit of victory.

Mr. Warner is a bold man and brave. 'A Little Journey in the World' is, we think, his first novel, and instead of feeling his way with artists and writers and all the humble lot, he rushes right at the biggest man in the field, the railroad "wrecker," the "corner smasher," the mystical creator of unrighteous trusts. Success justifies experiment, and it may be said at once that Mr. Warner's novel is an unqualified success. The first chapters are the work of a brilliant, humorous, gently satirical essayist rather than of a practised writer of fiction, but once he has his Margaret, the flower of New England's intellectuality, married to Henderson, the forced blossom of New York's materialism, once he has launched her in the world, the story goes, and goes splendidly, to the end. There is a tolerance that condones iniquity and a tolerance that condemns it more strenuously than does scornful censure. Mr. Warner's tolerance is of the latter sort. One of the beautiful qualities of his work is kind and thoughtful charity, never verging upon sentimental or deliberate moral obliquity. No one can make a mistake about his private opinion of Henderson and his pal, Uncle Jerry, and of their methods of amassing wealth. This assurance has no direct expression of judgment for foundation, but is an inevitable inference from the history of the struggles and triumphs of that genial pair.

Mr. Warner gives himself many opportunities to be dramatic or harrowing in a commonplace way, but resolutely rejects them all. No vengeance, swift or tardy, overtakes the relentless "operators." Margaret Henderson does not discover too late that she loves the worthy though priggish English Earl and give way to introspective agonies. More remarkable still, the New England conscience does not vanquish Satan in the guise of worldly pleasure and power; and its suggestions that he should "get behind" are faint and far between. Mr. Warner does not stand in awe of the New England conscience. He treats it with no more respect than if it were the common, generally distributed conscience, just as likely to succumb as not when pressed by the lusts of the world and the pride of life. The gradual extinction of Margaret's conscience, the easy, natural falling away from joy in the simple life of her girlhood, with its high thinking and unselfish doing, are depicted with unflinching truth, yet with rare tenderness. In cold reason she is no object for pity. She was lucky enough to have a choice in life, and she chose the sensuous delight of material luxury—chose it, absorbed herself in it, and came to be a more conscienceless worldling than the frankly earthy Carmen, who had never pretended to "care for things of the mind," nor, indeed, had any opportunity to soar. But judgment of an individual formed exclusively by the light of cold reason is not infallible. "It is one thing to be tempted and another thing to fall"; yet reflect on the kind and quality of her temptations, and who can be hard on her? Who can help feeling profoundly sorry for her? Mr. Warner does not ask what it profits a woman to gain a palace and a four-in-hand and lose her own soul. The question is in the plain story of Margaret's life, and the answer to be found in the heart of the reader.

'Sforza' is Mr. Astor's second venture in Italian historical romance. The good qualities of the first, 'Valentino,' are equally evident in the second, while defects are less conspicuous. Ludovico Sforza, Duke of Milan, at the end of the fifteenth century, is as patiently studied as Cæsar Borgia, and, having several characteristics in common with other human beings, he makes a more appropriate and interesting figure for romance. The most important incident is well chosen, but not well developed. It is a pity that the author did not contrive to hinge the whole interest on the oath taken in youth by Ludovico and Barberigo, afterwards Doge of Venice, never to do mischief to each other. But his weak points are deficiency in constructive power and an almost fatal inability to narrate clearly. Valentino is utterly inconsequent, and Sforza's backbone is spongy. There is no concentrated force, and the good bits lose in effect by isolation. The particulars of the treachery of Bernardino Corti are so involved that deep meditation may hardly make them clearly understandable. As for the long episode about the Milanese and Swiss soldiers in the convent, it is impossible to make head or tail out of it.

Mr. Astor's study would probably show better results in sketches of life and manners in the Italian Republics than it does in novels. He describes external life fluently, makes excellent pictures of streets, forts, palaces, of what people did and ate. In what may be called the millinery of the period he is really great. But the spirit of the age and of the individual eludes him. There are only two scenes in which one feels that the actors are alive and accords at once the sympathy due to real distress. Narvaez, the young fencer, bears himself before the Doge in a manner that stirs admiration for his courage and pity for his threatened doom, and the denial of Duchess Isabelle that she freely promised to marry Bernardino Corti is given with genuine spirit and passion. These two scenes show sparks of creative fire, and the death of Ludovico is told with admirable effect. It would be hard to find in any novel a simpler and more pathetic description, one in which emotion is better expressed by restraint of language, than that on the last page of 'Sforza.'

A laudable desire to rescue an obscure hero from oblivion may excuse the extravagantly romantic tale woven by Mrs. Catherwood about the exploit of seventeen Frenchmen who, led by the Sieur Adam Dollard, or d'Aulac, in 1660, saved the miserable French posts on the St. Lawrence from extermination by the Iroquois. The incident illustrates signally that reckless bravery for which no men were ever more distinguished than those nobles, priests, and peasants of France who planted the fleur-de-lys and the cross side by side in the Canadian wilderness. The real story of the voluntary sacrifice of Dollard and his companions is simple, stern, heroic, in the highest degree. It is told in French, with full detail and deep tenderness, by Father Doller de Casson, writing in Montreal a few years after the event. Mr. Parkman's English version leaves nothing to be desired for life and picturesqueness. A powerful imagination and discreet literary method might surround such a story with a fictitious glory which should enhance the native splendor. Excepting, perhaps, popularization, nothing is gained by Mrs. Catherwood's rendering, and much is lost. The great, real event is hustled out of sight by an hysterical love affair and a melodramatic mystery. Dollard is a theatrical, artificial person. The things that he is represented as doing are preposterously at variance with the things that we know him to have done. An impetuous, passionate man, already sworn to almost certain death, might, under the circumstances imagined, marry the woman he loved, heedless of the great sorrow before her, but he never imperilled her life by taking her over the Lachine Rapids by night in a canoe, or committed the imprudence of permitting her to sit on his knee during the run. The safe shooting of the rapid is much more incredible than the feat of arms at the Long Saut. A romance writer is permitted much latitude in the treatment of historical characters, and not infrequently abuses the privilege, but few fare so badly as Dollard in the hands of an admirer.

After Dollard, the most sadly misrepresented or misconceived person is Father de Casson. The slight anachronism of introducing him in Canada six years before he touched her shores is pardonable. But if Mrs. Catherwood had read with any care his guarded utterances on ecclesiastical matters in his history of Montreal, she would have hesitated to place in his mouth such candid expressions of hostility to the Jesuits of Quebec. Altogether, though the author's intentions are doubtless good, she fails to make the 'Romance of Dollard' half as entertaining or inspiriting a narrative as is the achievement of Dollard in the garb of unadorned truth.

'Alexia' is a mere bit of a story, hardly too long for a magazine, but it is of a very satisfactory quality. What is it that makes one novel a painful patching together of incidents, and which transforms another, with every appearance of artlessness, into a piece of real intellectual work? The critic can never say how either result is accomplished; he must be content if he has a sure feeling for the difference when the book is not very far removed from the border line. His decision will be very likely to be right, if he has fitted himself for his task; but, like a famous English judge, if he attempts to give his reasons he will be very likely to fall into error. This book, in spite of the blasé character of the hero at the beginning—what other hall-mark of distinction can we have in a country where rank does not afford an easy criterion?—and in spite of the exaggeration of the *secunda donna* in her middle scenes, the critic pronounces to be a good book.

It is seldom that one and the same person is enabled to foster the growth of a poetic spirit in his country in two ways—by endowment and by achievement. Mrs. Lawrence Turnbull's 'The Catholic Man' is less a novel than an affectionate study of a highly poetic nature when surrounded by circumstances favorable to its free expansion. It is an open secret that the poet described in 'The Catholic Man' is the late Sidney Lanier. The real Sidney Lanier had a hard struggle with life; poverty and ill-health (induced by being taken North as a rebel prisoner in thin Southern clothing) embittered the closing years of his short life, when at last he was beginning to find recognition and friends. The poet and musician of the book, Paul, meets with no obstacle—or only a temporary one, in the reluctance of the woman he marries—to the carrying out of his ideal scheme of a poet's existence. A human character, when shorn of its actual circumstances and invested with different ones, is so much a pure work of the imagination that those who knew Mr. Lanier will find it difficult to say whether this is a faithful working out of his inner being or not. It is in any case an interesting study of a poet and a poet's life, and especially of the joyousness and high courage with which the poetic nature is capable of looking upon its surroundings, and so transforming them into a fit country for it to live and breathe in. The struggle with the father, whose one absorbing passion was that Paul should succeed him in his pastorate, and who finally became capable of taking in Paul's wider horizon, is well worked out. The closing scenes give a picture of a well-ordered life, wrought through with sacrifice to its commu-

nity. The children lend them a strong touch of reality, and they remind one not a little of an old but not wholly forgotten New England book, 'Margaret.' This novel has not the structural perfection, the fused, organic completeness which Edmund Gurney says is the one sure mark of great creation, but the object which it has in view it accomplishes in a very satisfactory manner.

Fort Ancient: the Great Prehistoric Earthwork of Warren County, Ohio, with an account of its Mounds and Graves. By Warren K. Moorehead. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1890. 8vo, pp. 129.

THERE is but little new in this book, and its merit consists in the numerous photographic views which it contains, and in the fact that it furnishes us with what purports to be an accurate survey of the great earthwork of which it treats. Upon this latter point it would seem as if there were nothing more to be said. The stations—more than four hundred in number—the bearings and distances, are all set down in an orderly fashion; and, so far as we know anything to the contrary, the calculations are correctly given. Assuming this fact, Mr. Moorehead is to be congratulated upon the fidelity with which he has performed his task, and we cheerfully accord him our meed of praise.

But while conceding this much, we must be permitted to say that, like the accounts that have come down to us of the serpent mound in Ohio and the Cahokia mound in Illinois, there is a wide difference between the measurements here given and those of other and, presumably, equally careful explorers. Thus, for instance, we are told by one writer that the walls around this fort are 5 miles in length; another puts them at 4½; while our author says they are only $3\frac{3553}{5000}$ miles long. So, too, in regard to the contents of the walls. Prof. Thomas of the Bureau of Etymology tells us that 154,000 cubic yards of material were used in their construction. Prof. Locke, who was followed by Squier, says there were 628,800, and this figure our author thinks is about right, though he admits that a few hundred yards more may have been used. In the face of such discrepancies, it is difficult for any one, who has not been "in the field," to know what to believe. Probably the safest course is to accept each new measurement conditionally, since, as a rule, they are all said to have been carefully made, and in some cases with mathematical instruments. For this reason, then, we shall stand by Mr. Moorehead's figures (except as to the cubic contents of the walls, which can, we think, be shown to be largely overestimated), until some other practical explorer comes along and upsets his calculations.

In this connection it may not be out of place to suggest that, however important "work in the field" may be, it does not necessarily include such a knowledge of the early records as will enable us to discuss the origin of these works intelligently. Take, for example, the statement on p. 34, and we are very sure that if our author had given a few hours of the time he passed "in the field" to a study of the early writers, he would not have fallen into the mistake of saying that the Shawnees "were not in Ohio previous to the year 1710," when Perrot, Charlevoix, or Colden could have told him that fifty or a hundred years—the date is uncertain—before this time the Shawnees were driven from the region south of Lake Erie by the Iroquois. Now, we do not wish to be understood as asserting that the Shawnees built this work. Unquestionably, they may have done so during the indefinite period that they lived in Ohio prior to their expulsion; but for that matter so may the Quapaws and Osages, both of whom claimed to have lived there at one time in the dim and distant past, just as did the Mandans and Cherokees. What, however, we do assert is, that if the early records are as trustworthy as they are admitted to be, and if the Iroquois have "writ their annals true," as we believe they have, then the war which they waged against the Shawnees at the close of the sixteenth or beginning of the seventeenth century, will furnish all the conditions asked for by our author when he undertakes to account for the origin of this work. We will even go further, and maintain that the stone graves which he found are of the same character as those in which the Shawnees and their congeners, the Kickapoos, buried; and that the implements and ornaments found in them and on the surface, within and about the fort, do not differ from those that these Indians made and used. Nothing that he tells us indicates a different civilization from that which these tribes are known to have attained, or throws any additional light upon the ethnology of the Ohio Valley.

In regard to the skulls of which he speaks, there is not much to be said. He does not give us any measurements, and, of course, we cannot know to which class they belong. We may, however, remark in closing that except, perhaps, in the case of an abnormally small cranium, neither shape, size, nor thickness can be taken as a basis for judging intellectual capacity. Indeed, so little do they tell us that it is impossible to say of any given specimen whether it belonged to a man or a woman; and while, as a matter of fact, skulls do differ in all conceivable ways, yet, considered as an indication of race, it is probable that there are today but few American craniologists who do not accept Prof. Flower's conclusion as to the unsatisfactory character of this kind of evidence. According to that eminent authority:

"The various groups of mankind, owing to their probable unity of origin, the great variability of individuals, and the possibility of all degrees of intermixture of races at remote or recent periods in the history of the species, have so much in common that it is extremely difficult to find distinctive characters capable of strict definition, by which they may be differentiated. . . . The best argument for the unity of the American race—using the word in a broad sense—is the great difficulty of forming any natural divisions founded upon physical characters." There are "skulls from Vancouver's Island, from Peru, and from Patagonia which are almost undistinguishable from one another."

Life and Works of Antoine Louis Barye. By Charles de Kay. Illustrated. New York: The Barye Monument Association. 1889.

THE second paragraph in the first chapter of this book reads as follows:

"Speculations on the existence of beings superior to men had been pushed to great lengths in the century that produced Swedenborg. The time came for an examination, on more solid ground, of the tangible inhabitants of earth, ranged below human beings, but placed so far beneath that few thinkers were prepared to acknowledge any connection whatever. Buffon had made a taste for natural history the fashion, without alarming the men of faith. Linnæus opened vistas into the nature of plants, and in England the elder Darwin seized on the romantic side of vegetable existence and tried to give it poetic expression. Cuvier was sufficiently practical and conservative to escape the hostility of those wedded to the narrower view that looked only toward heaven; but Lamarck first sowed the seed which Charles Darwin and Alfred Russel Wallace have fostered into the modern doctrines of evolution. And because he sowed it Lamarck was rejected by his generation and might still be unknown, had not Darwin, with a magnanimity rare among scientific men before his time, distinctly affirmed that it was his neglected work which gave the hint for the view of animal and plant nature known as Darwinism.

"Barye," continues the author, "was therefore born into an atmosphere electric with curiosity as to the mental if not the moral character of animals, and before he became of age to handle clay with mastery the path of the century as regards natural history was set."

Mr. de Kay thus starts out at the very beginning of his book with ideas about Barye and the influence of his works which show us that he is thinking of science and morals more than of pure art. To regard the life work of Barye from such a point of view is fundamentally wrong. Lamarck and Darwin have nothing to do with the art of Barye. It is not a question of Barye helping to break down "the barrier which was supposed to rear itself impassable between human beings and the lower creation," nor of Giordano Bruno and other thinkers who first dared to break down such a barrier. And if Barye's work was not popular because of his choosing animals as subjects, it was not for the reason the author affirms it was when he says, "The underlying cause which furnished steady fuel for the attacks of ill-wishers and of persons honestly ignorant of his meed, was hostility to any movement that looked towards a lessening of the gap between man and beast." As a matter of fact, what has Barye's work done to lessen it? Do the "Jaguar Devouring a Hare" and the "Lion Crushing a Serpent" suggest human passion? Do these animals appear any the less the beasts they are since Barye has made wonderful sculptures of them, or since Darwin has shown us the truth of evolution? Even if they were, would they for that reason be any the more fit for choice as subjects for works of art? And what have the facts gravely stated here, that "members of the grouse family enjoy dancing; ravens and magpies are affected by obscure gropings after the beautiful, shown by collecting brilliant objects, and the bower-bird constructs elaborate huts, connects them by arbors, decorates the huts and arbors with berries, feathers, and shining stones, and uses the building for a sporting ground"—what have such facts as these to do with art?

Mr. de Kay contends that "the men of ancient times and the middle ages failed to obtain from animal life a tithe of the material offered thereby to the fine arts," and that "it is to Barye that we owe enlightenment in this respect." Probably we do, and so we should also if Barye had been only half as good a sculptor as he was. His range is a little wider and his compositions are novel. Animals have not been neglected, however, by eminent artists of other ages. No sculptor of our time has produced such an equestrian statue as the Gattamelata by Donatello at Padua, or the Coleoni by Verrocchio in Venice. The Greek and Roman sculptors and painters represented horses and many other animals. Are there any horses finer than those on the frieze of the Parthenon? Who has not seen the horses of St Mark's? They are Greek. Who has not heard of Myron and his bronze cow? Myron was an early Greek sculptor. The Egyptians pictured animals principally as objects of worship, and the Assyrian artists were more noted for their animals, which they modelled in a naturalistic manner, than for their human figures, which they conventionalized.

Barye was remarkably gifted as an artist, and his temperament suited the branch of art he followed. His work is not intended to instruct in natural history, teaches no lesson, inculcates no moral. Barye made his lions and tigers and

jaguars simply and solely for one reason: *parceque c'est beau*, is the way the French put it. It is grand, it is fine, it is beautiful; that is sufficient reason for doing it, and that is the only reason why we have ever had, or ever shall have, any great works of art. No really great artist has ever cared a penny for anything else. Barye was not appreciated at first, just as Delacroix and Géricault and Corot and Millet were not. They tried to speak simply and naturally as the Greeks and the great artists of the Renaissance spoke, but they appeared at a time when the world was full of affectation. Their honest voices sounded harsh and their manner seemed uncouth to people who had never heard anything but bombast. We have found out that it was bombast, and that the new men spoke truth; therein lies the secret of our appreciation of Barye.

Throughout the biography, Mr. de Kay seems to be more occupied with what he thinks is the scientific side of Barye's character than with the purely artistic side, and much space is given to the discussion of questions in natural history, and to the recitation of scientific facts and inferences drawn therefrom. The comparative importance and rank of bears, foxes, dogs, and horses in mythology and history are considered at length, and a very large portion of the book is extraneous to the subject, though it is interesting enough in itself. The great figure of Barye, the artist, is too often lost sight of. In those portions of the work where the story of Barye's life is told, details are given with exactness, and the anecdotes of the sculptor and his contemporaries form very pleasant reading. In the comment that accompanies the story, however, almost everything is pushed into shape to prove that Barye's aim was something other than a purely artistic one, and we are led to infer that Mr. de Kay thinks his work is of greatest importance with respect to science and ethics.

Some such opinion leads him not unfrequently to take a distorted and unjust view, as in the case of the medal of "Milo Devoured by a Lion." Here he disagrees with such a clear-headed critic as Gustave Planche, who thinks that in this early work may be found "the germ of his after-greatness as the sculptor of beasts." Our author thinks that "the critic's imagination has carried him away," and finds that

> "on the contrary the medal has in germ what Barye's detractors denied him—the power to express the human figure. . . . The best of the medal is the Milo. Both hands caught in the tree-trunk he has undertaken to split with a vain-glorious trust in his superhuman strength, he turns his head and looks down on the lion with the air of a man accustomed to vanquish the king of beasts, and therefore unable to realize that his own death is near. He is devising means to kill the lion, instead of giving way to despair. We shall find about his human figures in later life the same invincible calm of human superiority."

As we see it, M. Planche was quite right, and there *is* in the lion a suggestion of Barye's after greatness; and as to the Milo, he is like most of the human figures Barye did afterwards—not very good and not very bad. Barye did them fairly well only, as he did his horses; and in the case of both he exaggerated and distorted, with bad results, as he did also in his cats, but with admirable results. An artist may do one thing better than another (it is a question of temperament always), and we should be content to say so and leave theories and fancied intentions aside.

The book contains eighty-six artotypes, woodcuts, and prints. Some of the artotypes are very good, as the "Bear Surprising Owl," No. 31; most of them are unsatisfactory as reproductions, because bronze is colored, and by photographic processes clearness and precision in the forms are lost to some extent. The "Tiger Walking," No. 3, is a notable instance of this; here the strong modelling of the original does not appear, and the general effect of the picture is soft and greasy. The woodcuts are better, but a mistake has been made in not printing them on more suitable paper. Fine Holland paper is used in the book, and the fibre is crushed down to receive the impression from the block. But the rib and the watermark show in the print with disturbing effect. The cut of "General Bonaparte," No. 47, may be cited as one wherein this unsuitability of the paper to the purpose is particularly apparent. Much the best illustrations, as giving the spirit of the original, are the drawings by Mr. Kenyon Cox. A far better idea of the "Jaguar Seizing Alligator," for example, is given in the drawing, No. 44, than of the "Jaguar Devouring a Hare," which it resembles in spirit and technique, reproduced by the woodcut No. 59. The four portraits of Barye are excellent.

The book is very handsomely bound and well printed, but the page would be better if the running title were in larger type. The table of "dates relating to A. L. Barye" at the end of the book will be found of value and interest to amateurs, and the pictures are well chosen and intelligently arranged to fit the text. It is surprising that a book so costly in its make-up should be sold for the low price of ten dollars, and we should think it might well have been dearer. The new work by Roger Ballu, 'L'Œuvre de Barye,' published by Quantin, has fewer illustrations, and costs $20 in Paris and $30 here. There is so much in Mr. de Kay's book that is of interest that every collector ought to have it, and it should be borne in mind, also, that it is published for the benefit of the fund for the monument to Barye that is to be erected in Paris.

The Old Hospital, and Other Papers. By D. B. St. John Roosa, M.D., LL.D. Second revised and enlarged edition of 'A Doctor's Suggestions.' Wm. Wood & Co. 1889.

THE main building of the old New York Hospital, whose ivy-grown walls were a landmark on lower Broadway, was first occupied in 1791, and the demolition of all that belonged to it was the occasion of the title-paper of this collection. Those who have only known New York in the twenty years last past have never seen the old Hospital, for it was razed in 1869, its trees destroyed, and its turf hidden and oppressed by the brick and mortar of trade. The House of Relief, in Chambers Street, is its only representative that remains in that region.

"The Society of the Hospital in the city of New York" was chartered by the King in 1770, and for years its buildings and its work were the centre from which issued, and the standard by which was measured, the advance of practical medicine, and especially of surgery in this city. Notwithstanding its younger rivals, or more properly allies, up town, and the vast wards of Bellevue on the East River, the New York Hospital, now, in modern guise, on Fifteenth Street, still justifies its name. But on the old spot generation after generation of young physicians received their most valuable education, and scores upon scores of thousands of patients found relief. The combined traditions almost sanctified the old halls to those whom good fortune and their own ability had made "house" (*i. e.*, resident) physicians, and in their eyes it was little less than sacrilege to sweep all that away. That a hospital ought to be maintained in the crowded lower town seems evident, but what is done is done.

Dr. Roosa's sympathetic sketch is partly the outcome of sentiment, and partly due to the conviction that it was a mistake in public policy to abandon the old locality, and it is made the occasion of explaining that, important as are their functions in connection with hospitals, physicians are generally excluded from their management. Most persons assume, as a matter of course, that the medical profession is well represented among the governors or trustees, while many believe that the visiting physicians, "the head doctors" of common parlance, control the policy of the institutions for whose patients they prescribe. The rule, to which there are few if any exceptions, is exactly the reverse. The author believes that this exclusion depends upon a presumed unfitness of physicians for administration; and cites, to oppose it, the experience of the war, justly insisting that "the best hospitals we have ever had in this country were those that were exclusively controlled by the medical officers of the United States Army." Probably other reasons, or presumed reasons, for this proscription also operate, but it is certainly rational to believe that if medicine had equal authority with commerce, both hospital construction and hospital management would be improved. This grievance is also presented in other of these papers, and it is one well to be considered by those self-perpetuating bodies whose ultimate object is the public benefit.

All the papers are only such as could be written by a physician, but they are addressed to the secular rather than to the medical world, and are instructive over the broader lines of medical philosophy. We particularly commend two addresses to the students of the Union Theological Seminary on the "Maintenance of Health," and one on "Human Eyes." Dr. Roosa's style is good: he says what he has to say plainly, and nearly all of it is worth saying. The volume is beautifully published.

Sylvie and Bruno. By Lewis Carroll. Macmillan & Co. 1890.

NOBODY but the author of 'Alice in Wonderland' and 'Through the Looking-Glass' could have written 'Sylvie and Bruno,' and yet the marvel is that he did write it, and allow it to go out with his name attached to it. He is, however, a clergyman, and it is quickly seen that 'Sylvie and Bruno' is a tract. In his preface he urges the need of a Child's Bible, a book of pieces selected from the Bible, a collection of passages (both prose and verse) from books other than the Bible, and a Shakspere for girls. He introduces in the same place a little sermon on theatre going, rather raising the question than settling it: "*I* also go to the play," he says, "whenever I get a chance of seeing a really good one"; and, "if Shakspere was not inspired, one may well doubt if any man ever was." In the course of the story he delivers himself forcibly on the sin of hunting, against the Puritan Sunday for children, against the preaching of religion as a commercial speculation, and the immunity of the pulpit to talk "shallow twaddle that, if it were addressed to you over a dinner-table, you would think, 'Does the man take me for a *fool*?'"

These intrusions, if we must regard them as such, may win friends for the author's personality, but they quite defeat any aim on his part to make a continuously amusing book. No human being can read 'Sylvie and Bruno' with smile or grin from beginning to end. It is in his old and proper vein of phantasmago-

ria, but his love story works in badly with his elfin children, and ends withal, like a bad dream, in the wrong match being consummated. Considered piecemeal, there are humorous conceits equal to anything Lewis Carroll has invented—such, for example, as the "outlandish watch." All the verse is capital—the stanzas, "He thought he saw" (in the metre and spirit of "The Walrus and the Carpenter"), the song of the three badgers, the legend of Peter and Paul and their loan transaction, etc. There is a clever new monster, the "changed crocodile," which could "go round and walk on the top of its tail, and along its back, all the way to its head." Another humor of the book is its seriocomic index. The great American people, hugging its protectionist delusion, is aptly figured in the mob of the opening chapter shouting, "Less bread! more taxes!"

Religion, and Other Essays. By Schopenhauer. Translated by T. B. Saunders. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co. 1889.

No doubt one of the causes of Schopenhauer's pessimism was personal. He could not forgive his contemporaries, and especially his countrymen, for practically ignoring his great work, 'Die Welt als Wille und Vorstellung,' during his lifetime, while they went into ecstasies over Fichte and Hegel, his pet enemies (next to priests), whose "charlatanry" and "effrontery" he gibbets on every possible occasion in his later writings. His principal work appeared in 1818, and has even to-day reached only five editions, although Hegel has long since been dethroned and Schopenhauer set up as the philosopher who best represents the *Zeitgeist*. The expensiveness of this diffuse work of 1,376 pages no doubt largely accounts for the fact of its small sale in these seventy years; but it must not be forgotten that its ideas have been scattered broadcast by a hundred essayists and by "Lichtstrahlen" and other selections from his six volumes—published separately. Perhaps the most convenient way of getting at the essence of Schopenhauer, in these busy days when no one has time to read a big book, is from Frauenstädt's 'Schopenhauer-Lexicon,' which contains in alphabetical arrangement Schopenhauer's utterances on every topic that engaged his attention; and there were few topics on which he did not throw new light. This Lexicon contains extracts not only from his collected writings, but also from his MS. remains, which are sometimes equal to the best things in his principal volumes.

A few years ago 'Die Welt als Wille' was translated into English, and there is also a little volume containing the essays on Genius, Love, etc., taken from the same work. But in Germany the "Parerga," which followed that work, are much more popular, because there is in them less abstruse discussion of metaphysical principles and a greater variety of everyday topics. Mr. Saunders has done a useful service in giving a few samples of these later volumes in his present booklet, which, besides a prefatory note, contains "Religion: a Dialogue"; "A Few Words on Pantheism"; "On Books and Reading"; "On Physiognomy"; "Psychological Observations"; and "The Christian System."

One half of Mr. Saunders's volume is taken up with the "Dialogue on Religion." It is held between Demopheles and Philalethes, who is told in the opening sentence that "Every one thinks his religion sacred, and therefore you ought to respect it;" whereupon Philalethes retorts: "I don't see why, because other people are simpletons, I should have any regard for a pack of lies." Philalethes, of course, represents Schopenhauer himself, yet he tries hard to be just to Demopheles, and to put into his mouth all that can be said in defence of religion. His bias, however, is with Philalethes, and is decidedly anti-Christian and especially anti clerical. "You may always observe," he says, "that faith and knowledge are related as the two scales of a balance: when the one goes up the other goes down." Again:

"It is easy to let adulation of the Deity make amends for lack of proper behavior towards man. And so we see that in all times and all countries the great majority of mankind find it much easier to beg their way to heaven by prayers than to deserve to go there by their actions. In every religion it soon comes to be the case that faith, ceremonies, rites, and the like are proclaimed to be more agreeable to the Divine will than moral actions; the former, especially if they are bound up with the emoluments of the clergy, gradually come to be looked upon as a substitute for the latter."

These sentences indicate the keynote of Schopenhauer's essay. He is especially disgusted with the hold of the clergy on the English mind:

"Here is a nation favored before all others by nature; endowed more than all others with discernment, intelligence, power of judgment, strength of character: look at them, abased and made ridiculous beyond all others by the stupid ecclesiastical superstition, which appears among their other abilities like a fixed idea. For this they have to thank the circumstance that their education is in the hands of the clergy, whose endeavor it is to impress all the articles of belief at the earliest age, in a way that amounts to a kind of paralysis of the brain," etc.

Between Schopenhauer and Christianity there is at least one bond of sympathy, namely, terrestrial pessimism. In the case of Judaism, even this bond drops, and he has little respect for that optimistic religion. "When I take up the writings even of the best intellects of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries (more especially if I have been engaged in Oriental studies), I am sometimes shocked to see how they are paralyzed and hemmed in on all sides by Jewish ideas." The Oriental studies refer, of course, to Buddhism, in praise of which he always grows eloquent. Like most men of genius, Schopenhauer was a great lover of animals, and one of the grounds of his preference for Buddhism lay in the great contrast between Buddhistic kindness and Christian cruelty to animals. "The main reason why we take so much pleasure in looking at animals is that we like to see our own nature in such a simplified form. There is only one mendacious being in the world, and that is man. Every other is true and sincere and makes no attempt to conceal what it is, expressing its feelings just as they are." Had Schopenhauer lived half-a-century later, he would no doubt have been an ardent champion of Darwin. He snorts at those who "are bigoted and stupid enough to offer a zealous opposition to their honest and rational colleagues when they class man under the proper head as an animal, or demonstrate the resemblance between him and the chimpanzee or orang-outang." He differed from Darwin in not believing in the anatomical or biogenetic relationship between man and ape, but in a sort of pantheistic identity of being.

The most valuable essay in this collection is that on Physiognomy, which contains some admirable remarks on the art of deciphering faces, and a most ingenious explanation of the fact that first impressions commonly lead to more correct estimates of character than later ones.

Life of Gotthold Ephraim Lessing. By T. W. Rolleston. London: Walter Scott; New York: W. J. Gage & Co. 1889.

Lessing is the fourth German to find a place in Mr. Robertson's series of "Great Writers"; Goethe, Schiller, and Heine having been already disposed of. We have read Mr. Rolleston's little book with pleasure, and can commend it as a good piece of work. As in the other volumes of the series, the story moves rapidly, the aim being to spend little time on matters that are not of living interest or of vital importance for the understanding of the writer under consideration. The thoroughness of the German biographies is judiciously used, though not copied; so that, in a book of two hundred pages, we find nothing to skip, and get a picture of Lessing which is vivid and truthful, and has enough of detail for all ordinary purposes.

As an illustration of Mr. Rolleston's critical manner we may take his comments upon Lessing's lyric poetry. In so small a book it would have been easy to say simply that the great critic was without the lyric gift; but Mr. Rolleston endeavors to analyze the defect. He first observes that there were three important characteristics of the new poetry that arose in the latter half of the eighteenth century—the poetry of which Lessing is usually counted a precursor.

"In the first place," says he, "we note that its ideas are often obscure, and this is the great secret of its power. Men were living in the narrow, well-explored region of logically verifiable truth. The new literature was one of experiment and adventure; it opened out vast horizons on every side; its meanings were often impalpable as perfume; it made men feel without always troubling itself to make them understand."

Here we may note in passing Mr. Rolleston's remark "that nowhere, perhaps, has this characteristic of the modern spirit been better expressed than by Walt Whitman, himself a great representative of the modern spirit, in his poem on the patient spider." Next to this "love of the indefinable" came the wonderful rhythmical beauty of the new poetry. (One queries if the English critic regards Whitman as a great representative of the modern spirit in this particular also.) Finally, the most striking of all the features of the modern renascence of literature is its passion for external nature. After this exposition, Mr. Rolleston continues:

"Now, as regards these three traits of modern poetry, Lessing's poems do not give the least hint of what time was so soon to bring forth. He is never indefinite; one never feels in reading him that he is trying to indicate, to suggest, an idea too vast, too subtle for utterance. Nor has he a note of music in him; his metre is correct and solid, but, in spite of his felicity of expression (always greater, however, in prose than in verse), it is as unlike music as walking is to flying. And as for Nature, in the sense of woods, mountains, seas, and the like, its beauty and significance simply did not exist for him."

All this is good as far as it goes, and it would be finical to find fault with it because it really does not go very far towards explaining that defect of endowment which was a subject of anxious meditation on the part of Lessing himself, and which he once gave account of in the figure of the water which must be pumped up instead of rising and overflowing naturally as in a living spring. It is really strange that, with all our science, we can do so very little towards actually telling what makes a poet. Young Goethe thought it was a heart altogether filled with one feeling, but this obviously will not do. As to Mr. Rolleston's analysis, it hardly tells us, for example, why Lessing was no lyric poet, while Schiller, to a degree, was one.

Schiller was hardly more susceptible to external nature than was Lessing. He is, indeed, sometimes vague, but this is hardly a source of power. The most ardent lovers of poetical *chiaroscuro* would probably admit that where Schiller is vague he is bad. On the other hand, we find Lessing quite capable of highly impassioned thought. He has a sense, too, as we can see from passages in his plays, for the subtle, fleeting, indeterminate movements of human feeling; and his own range of spiritual experience was probably no less wide and deep than that of Schiller. Where, then, lay the difference? What can any one do except to restate the x in terms of y? Lessing could not make the German language sing. He could make it reason, could make it analyze with wonderful subtlety, or cut like a knife; but he could not put words together into such rhythmic form that the thought expressed or the picture presented, simple enough in itself, perhaps, should, like music, set going in the soul of the reader harmonic chords that tell of things too deep for words.

Is not this the only unintelligibleness which is a real constituent of the best modern poetry, or defensible where we find it? We should say that the first of Mr. Rolleston's "three characteristics" is not so much "a love of the indefinable" as a heightened feeling for the mystery of the world, coupled with a fervid sense of the connection of all things with the inner life of men. Where to this is joined the power of so putting the isolated fact of nature or of spiritual experience that it becomes the suggestion or the symbol of depths beyond, we have the poet. This power Lessing had scarcely a trace of; Schiller possessed it in a much higher degree, Goethe preëminently. Vagueness of the kind here described undoubtedly pertains to a large part of the best modern poetry, and is, of course, obscurity to those whose inward experience does not fit them to understand what the poet means. A very different thing, it seems pertinent to say, is that kind of obscurity which has its seat in intellectual subtlety disporting in tortuous syntax.

Mr. Rolleston's exposition of and comments upon the great works of Lessing are, within the limits imposed, admirable. The book will form for collegians and others an excellent introduction to the study of a man whose life and works are one of the best tonics in the world. Apart from his acuteness as a thinker and the wide range of his intellectual interests, there is, as his biographer says, no manlier character in the whole history of literature.

A Midsummer Drive through the Pyrenees. By Edwin Asa Dix, M.A. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1890. Pp. 332. 8vo.

It is singular that, considering the many and varied attractions of the Pyrenees, so few Americans visit them. The Alps must, of course, hold the preëminence with all lovers of mountain scenery, yet we are not sure that in the somewhat indefinite quality of picturesqueness they are not excelled by the more southern chain. Certainly Switzerland cannot show finer contrasts than are to be seen in the Pyrenees between the rich, almost tropical, verdure of the foot-hills and the stern barrenness of the higher peaks; while it would be difficult to find in the Alps a spot which could equal in savage grandeur the Amphitheatre of Gavarnie. The Basques, also, are in many respects more interesting than the cosmopolitan Swiss, their individuality and independence having as yet suffered but little from contact with the foreign tourist. An even stronger individuality characterizes the principal watering-places, which barely find room for their hotels and bath-houses in the narrow mountain valleys, Eaux Bonnes, for instance (to which ten thousand visitors come in a summer), occupying an area of "a little over half an acre." The historical associations of this region, moreover, surpass in number, interest, and romance those of Switzerland.

These and other claims of the Pyrenees to the attention of intelligent travellers are very well set forth by Mr. Dix in his entertaining account of his summer's tour among them. His description of Bayonne, Biarritz, the frontier Spanish towns, and Pau, together with his rather grim tales of Count Gaston Phœbus, Henry of Navarre, and their contemporaries, serves as an excellent introduction to the actual "drive," which began at the entrance to the valley of Eaux Bonnes. From these hot springs he went, by the Route Thermale, a magnificent carriage-road a hundred miles long, built by Napoleon III., to Cauterets, Bigorre, and Luchon. Each place had its peculiar charms, either from its romantic situation, its numerous excursions, or the characteristic customs of its inhabitants. Barèges, only, a village of "merely one long, shaky street crouching in along the side of the mountain" and "lamentably near the torrent," was an exception from its persistent gloom. Very interesting also was the tiny "principality" of Goust, a collection of eight hoary, gray-stone hovels, with a population of about seventy persons, "governed by a little council of old men." Mr. Dix was invited into one of the houses, in which, above the stable, was the living room,

"long, dark and low-ceiled. The rafters are discolored with smoke, the board-floor with wear, the walls with strings and festoons of onions and native herbs. Ears of maize and great sides of beef and pork hang drying from above. In the dim rear are two pine bedframes, with spreads of sackcloth and plaid canopies; nearer are sets of shelves lined with trenchers and earthen crockery in formal array, while a wood fire smoulders on the wide hearth in front between the window openings, fortified with a primitive crane and kettle of strange designs and unrecorded antiquity, and with various pots and pans."

Mr. Dix's somewhat affected style, with his too free use of "dictionary" words, is at first a little irritating, but most readers will soon become accustomed to it, and possibly find that it gives an added charm to an attractive book. He shows considerable power in word-painting, while his evident familiarity with the history and literature of the Pyrenees makes him an admirable guide to the region. The illustrations are nearly all good, some of them being of unusual excellence, and the volume itself is a very praiseworthy specimen of an American book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bellamy, Mrs. Blanche W., and Goodwin, Mrs. Maud W. Open Sesame: Poetry and Prose for School-Days. Part I. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Burgess, N. The County Fair. Street & Smith. 25 cents.
Burrows, Anna. Eggs: Facts and Fancies about Them. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.
Carus, P. Fundamental Problems. Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Co.
Cobban, J. M. Master of His Fate. F. F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
Curtin, J. Myths and Folk-Lore of Ireland. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $2.
Davis, E. H. The Third Reading-Book. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Ely, Prof. R. T. The Labor Movement in America. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Hill, J. Thought and Thrift. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $1.25.
Machar, Agnes M., and Marquis, T. G. Stories of New France. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Macmillan, Prof. M. The Promotion of General Happiness: A Utilitarian Essay. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.
Marshall, Emma. Under Salisbury Spire in the Days of George Herbert. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Mattocks, B. Songs of Help and Inspiration. American News Co.
Montague, C. H. The Countess Muta. Belford Co. 50 cents.
Moore, C. H. Development and Character of Gothic Architecture. Macmillan & Co. $4.50.
Morton, Martha. Helene Buderoff. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Oxenford, J. Boyhood and Youth of Goethe. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.
Palfrey, J. G. History of New England, from the Revolution of the 17th Century to the Revolution of the 18th. Vol. II. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $4.00.
Philadelphia and its Environs. Ed. of 1889. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 25 cents.
Pierson, E. de L. A Vagabond's Honor. Belford Co.
Robinson, F. W. A Very Strange Family. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
Rutherford, W. G. The Fourth Book of Thucydides. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Schaff, Rev. P. Literature and Poetry. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $3.
Schenck, Rev. F. S. The Ten Commandments in the 19th Century. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.
Sharp, W. Children of To-Morrow: A Romance. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
Smith, Prof. R. M. Emigration and Immigration. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Stapleton, Patience. My Sister's Husband. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Steele, J. W. Fur, Feathers and Fuzz. Belford Co. 50 cents.
Stevens, B. F. Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America. 1773–1783. Vol. III. Nos. 235 to 343. 4 Trafalgar Square, London: B. F. Stevens. $20.
Stuart, Prof. G. H. Scott's Lay of the Last Minstrel. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
The Century Dictionary. Vol. II. Cono—Fz. The Century Co.
The New Review. Vol. 1. $2.
Tinseau, L. de. Henriette. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Torrey, B. Practical Type-writing. Fowler & Wells Co. $1.
Tunison, J. S. Master Virgil: the Author of the Æneid as He Seemed in the Middle Ages. 2d ed. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $2.
Tyler, T. Shakespeare's Sonnets. Scribner & Welford. $3.
Unitarianism: Its Origin and History. Boston: Am. Unitarian Association.
Walters, J. C. In Tennyson Land. Scribner & Welford. $1.75.
Waring, G. E., jr. Sewerage and Land-Drainage. 2d ed. D. Van Nostrand Co.
Warren, F. M. Primer of French Literature. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Watson, W. Wordsworth's Grave, and Other Poems. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Webb, S. Socialism in England. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.
Wharton, Rev. M. B. Famous Women of the New Testament. E. B. Treat. $1.50.
Whiting, C. E. The Public School Music Course. In 6 books. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
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EDITOR'S DRAWER.....CHARLES DUDLEY WARNER.

LITERARY NOTES. By LAURENCE HUTTON.

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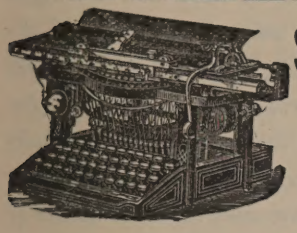

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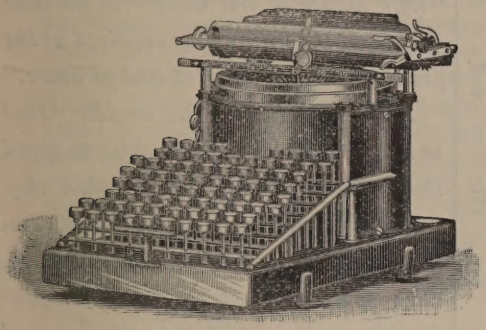

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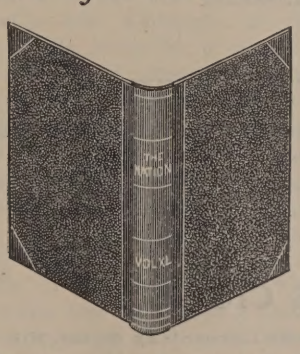

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 20, 1890.

The Week.

THE general summary of results of the local elections in New York State during the past few weeks, which is made by the Albany *Argus*, is very striking. Town officers have been elected in about two-thirds of the counties of the State, and the totals of the changes in the boards of supervisors show conclusively that the Democrats have made uniform gains. They have 424 members now against 341 last year, while the Republicans have 441 now against 522 last year. The *Argus* attributes the Democratic gains to two causes, dissatisfaction with the Administration of President Harrison, and the growth of Democratic belief in agricultural New York. The Republican press was at first inclined to regard the assertion of a spread of tariff-reform sentiment among the farmers as rather amusing, but we observe that it is not treating it in that way any longer. The news from the Northwest, harmonizing perfectly with this from rural New York, is visibly depressing.

There is a wide difference between the two ballot-reform bills whose passage is now assured by the Legislatures of New York and Maryland. The New York bill is a genuine reform measure, which has been revised and amended solely with a view to making it as effective as possible in practice. It is in every way superior to the two preceding bills which the Governor has vetoed, that is, so far as minor details are concerned. Its vital principles, which are those of the Australian system as embodied in the Massachusetts and eight other American State laws, are the same as those of the two preceding bills. That the Governor will veto this as he did the others is now generally anticipated, but he will have to do so in the face of more widespread opposition than ever, and it may be that a sufficient number of Democrats in the Legislature will bow to the popular demand to secure the passage of the bill over a veto. The Maryland bill has been amended into such shape as to destroy a great deal of its usefulness, the Gorman influence having been exerted to that end through the instinct of self-preservation. Just how good or how bad a bill it is, cannot be ascertained from the meagre reports which are published concerning it, but there is little doubt that it is a sham measure in many respects. The opponents of genuine ballot reform in Rhode Island have been hoping that the new law, which goes into effect there at the election next month, would prove unsatisfactory, but they must prepare for as bitter a disappointment as they suffered in Massachusetts, for the new law had a preliminary trial in an election on Block Island last week, and worked with complete success. Block Island has been for some years the rottenest borough of the State, and if the system will work well there, its success elsewhere is certain.

The platform which the Rhode Island Republicans adopted at their Convention on Thursday contains the following owlish deliverance on the tariff: "A reform of the tariff, based not merely upon theory, but upon the actual needs and conditions of our whole industrial community, and having in view the strengthening of the American principle of protection to home labor, has been successfully inaugurated." No key is furnished to this mysterious deliverance, but we should think that the Republican manufacturers of Rhode Island who have signed so generally the petition for free raw materials which has been sent to Congress from New England, would ask for specifications of the "reform which has been inaugurated." The Providence *Journal's* terse comment on the platform is, that it "was machine-made but hand-painted," which seems to exclude the human mind from any share in its construction. The McKinley bill is the only tariff reform which has been inaugurated thus far, and if that is "based upon the actual needs and conditions" of an industrial community which is on the verge of financial collapse only to be averted by free raw materials, nobody has been able to discover the fact.

One of the very bad effects of a protective tariff is the stimulus given to lying among the beneficiaries of it. Let it be known that there is a revision going on—and there always will be revisions as long as we have a tariff—then straightway all sorts of people, who were doing very well before, and indeed bragging of their prosperity, rush to Congress and declare under oath that unless they get an increase of duty on their products, they will be ruined and all their neighbors will be ruined too. This is the case with the fruit-growers of Florida and California at the present time. We know for a certainty that the production of oranges, prunes, raisins, olives, etc., has been steadily increasing in this country under the existing tariff. We read from time to time in the agricultural and horticultural journals glowing accounts and statistical reports showing the large profits made in the business—so much larger than any profits made in the growing of wheat, corn, or cotton that the contrast is almost painful. Yet no sooner is a new tariff bill announced than these highly favored people come to Washington swearing that they shall have to go out of the business altogether unless they get more protection. It happens in the case of these orange, prune, and raisin-growers that their products, owing to advantages of soil, climate, nearness, skill, or other reasons, are actually better than the corresponding imported articles, and command a higher price in the market. Does that fact abate their demands? Not a jot. Does it bring any redness to their cheeks when they tell about their impoverishment and impending ruin? Not a blush.

The introduction of a bill in the House proposing a duty on coffee equal to the export duty laid upon it in any foreign country, will be to the South Americans a good instance of the perfect deference with which we propose to treat their countries, in this era of pan-American good-feeling, and of our entire unwillingness to interfere in the slightest degree with their systems of taxation. Brazil's export tax on coffee, for example, is purely a matter of internal administration, with which we have nothing to do. Brazil has no land-tax: under the present conditions of land-holding it seems impossible to lay one. She has no income tax: to collect one would cost more than it would come to. She has no internal-revenue system. And so, to meet the expenses of the Government, in addition to the customs duties on imports, she lays a small, easily collected, more or less equably diffused and steadily diminishing tax on her great article of export. For us to object to that, and to propose to interfere with her manner of raising an income, is not only ungracious, but exceedingly impolitic at this time, when Brazil's relations to the United States promise to become much closer than they ever have been. What is true of her case is true, in a degree, of the other countries against which the bill is aimed.

The Pan-American Conference has at last reached the subject of its *raison d'être*, viz., steamship subsidies. The Committee having this subject in charge have agreed to report recommending to the several Governments

"that aid be given one or more lines of steam navigation between the ports of the United States and those of Brazil and Rio de la Plata, the companies receiving Government aid to establish a fast bi-monthly service between the ports of the United States, Rio Janeiro, Montevideo, and Buenos Ayres, and the vessels to have the accommodations and capacity necessary for the transportation of freight and passengers and to carry the mails. These steamships shall only touch at one port of the intermediary countries on the trips to and from Buenos Ayres. The Committee also recommends aiding an auxiliary line of freight steamships, which shall sail twice a month, making not less than twelve knots an hour, and touching at ports of the United States and Brazil. The United States of America and the republic of Brazil shall pay one-half each of the amounts paid to these vessels, taking into due consideration the contract of the existing line with the latter Government. The contracts shall last ten years. The States shall have the right to impose their flag and register upon the vessels to a number proportionate to the percentage of the aid they pay. In that case it is understood that the quota of each nation shall be paid directly to the vessel or vessels carrying its flag. The contracting States shall accept only vessels constructed in the United States in consideration of the higher aid by that Government. Bolivia and Paraguay agree to the plan on condition that the companies agree to establish subsidiary lines of river navigation."

How this plan will work in with the bill of

the American Shipping League, which proposes to pay a bounty of thirty cents per ton per thousand miles sailed to everybody in the shipping business, we do not see. We suppose, however, that South American trade is to be made a special case, and that the ships that take subsidy under the Pan-American plan are not to be allowed bounty under the thirty-cent plan. Whether either plan can pass Congress, in view of the rapid encroachments on the Treasury surplus and the still unsatisfied demands of other beggars and grabbers, is extremely doubtful. Inasmuch as two Democratic members of the Committee on Merchant Marine are said to be in favor of subsidies, the Republican side of the House are not necessarily committed to the plan as a party measure. And it seems to us that unless carried as a party measure under a vigorous use of the lash, the chances of its passage are very dubious.

In an interview with Senator Allison, recently published, the Iowa statesman, being asked whether he was in favor of "helping the shipping interest," replied:

> "In a reasonable way I am. There was a curious thing about shipping came to my knowledge a few days ago. Corn is worth from 10 to 12 cents a bushel less in Iowa than it was last year. The rates of inland freight are substantially the same now as then—they have not been increased, certainly. Yet the difference between the price of corn now and last year in Liverpool is only 4 cents. In other words, the ocean freights upon all agricultural products have immensely advanced within the last year. Our people should take hold in some way of this question of ocean freights, as it seems to me they have advanced without any just cause, especially as respects all farm products. This is illustrated, as I have already shown, by the difference in the price of corn in Iowa and in Liverpool, without any corresponding difference in the price of railroad transportation, which shows that the people of the United States are interested in improving our shipping facilities. Just how it will be done I am not prepared to say, but that it ought to be done I am sure."

This problem ought not to be a difficult one to a Senator representing a corn-growing State. The question being how to get the bounty into the pocket of the farmer, the Illinois State Board of Agriculture replied the other day by a resolution asking that it be paid to the farmer directly, and not by the roundabout process of paying it to a ship-owner, and trusting to luck that it will eventually get around to the farmer. Mr. Allison cannot ponder that resolution too seriously. What is good for the Illinois corn-grower, must be good for the Iowa corn-grower. The two States are alike in all the particulars of corn-growing, except that Iowa is a little further from market, and therefore ought, perhaps, to have one cent per bushel more in the way of bounty than Illinois. Of course, if a liberal bounty were paid for growing corn, the farmer could pay better wages to the ship-owner for carrying it.

Mr. John M. Forbes of Boston told Mr. Farquhar's Committee the other day exactly how to get American ships into business. He said that he bought steel ships on the Clyde and put them under the British flag or the Hawaiian flag (since our laws do not permit him to put them under the American flag), and hired American captains to navigate them. If he were allowed to put them under the American flag, he would buy a lot more ships. He scorned bounties in any case, but he thought that the Government owed protection to his property afloat on the high seas. The sagacious Farquhar thought that this indicated gross selfishness, "wanting to use the American flag for his own personal benefit." The public-spirited plan would be to come straight up to the Treasury and take your bounty.

The Boston *Journal* very carelessly calls attention to the large immigration which is constantly poured into New England from the British provinces to compete with the home laborers. Speaking of New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, and Cape Breton, as ranking with Ireland and the province of Quebec "among the great sources of supply from which New England recruits the foreign contingent in its vast army of workers," it shows that from points east of Vanceboro' there came over the Maine border by rail alone in 1889 38,989 passengers, the vast majority of whom, it says, were "seeking employment in Uncle Sam's domain." If all of New England's industries were booming, wages were going up, and workers scarce, the working classes in New England already would have no fault to find with this situation. But under existing circumstances it is not surprising that the "tariff scare" would not work in the New England manufacturing centres in the last Presidential campaign. Mills are closing, industries moving to new fields, manufacturers themselves declaring that the burdens of the tariff must be lightened lest they perish; and all the time there is free trade in labor, and the surplus population of the provinces is pouring in to share with the native workers what wage fund there is to be divided. Of course the laborers ask, Why should we not be allowed to work with the coal and the ores of Canada if the laborers of Canada can come in free to compete with us?

We are glad to be informed by Mr. John T. Morse, jr., that he was not in the least responsible for the views upon the teaching of political economy at Harvard which were contained in the report of the Committee of which he was Chairman. It appears that the report was not intended for publication, that it was "carefully stated not to be an expression of my [Mr. Morse's] personal views," and that Mr. Morse was not a member of that portion of the Committee to whom the inspection of the Department of Political Economy (as distinguished from history) was intrusted. None of these points could have been inferred from what was published as the report of the Committee on Political Economy in the *American Economist* of February 7, whence we derived our knowledge of the report. As our article was, of course, not at all a personal criticism of Mr. Morse, we need only say that it is pleasant to find that the unenlightened views which we criticised cannot claim him as their sponsor; and we should have been pleased if he could have gone further than make a mere non-committal disclaimer in regard at least to one remark in the Committee's report, upon which we refrained from commenting before. Did it not seem somewhat humiliating to a gentleman and scholar like Mr. Morse to sign—with a merely general disclaimer of personal responsibility—a report which expressed surprise that Harvard's teaching should be absolutely uninfluenced by the consideration that she owes so much of her wealth to "a community of protectionists," and to "gifts of money earned in protected industries"? We feel sure that Mr. Morse must agree with Mr. Putnam, who made a minority report, in regarding this allusion as "an extraordinary and unworthy one."

While the decision of the Circuit Court at St. Louis in regard to the Anti-Trust Law of Missouri is destructive of that law so far as the authority of that Court is concerned, the decision shows that the law was badly drawn, but does not touch the legality of Trusts as such. The demurrer is sustained, in other words, as regards a particular authority conferred by the law on the Secretary of State, not on the point that a Trust is an unlawful conspiracy. This Missouri law authorized the Secretary of State to revoke, of his own will, the charter of any business corporation in the State which refused to send him an affidavit stating whether or not it had done any act prohibited by the statute. The State Constitution provides that no person charged with the exercise of legislative, executive, or judicial power shall exercise any power not belonging to his department. As the forfeiture of a corporation's charter is a judicial act, the Court holds that the authority conferred on the Secretary of State, an executive officer, by the Anti-Trust Law is contrary to the Constitution. The drag-net which this law put into the hands of a single State officer was so open to abuse that, aside from the question of its constitutionality, it seemed designed to bring the law into disrepute; and it is currently reported that the law was framed in this shape because it was deemed easier to overthrow an unconstitutional law in the courts than to defeat anti-Trust legislation at the capital.

That Bismarck's resignation was sure to come before long, most people have believed for some time. Bismarck is not a man to divide responsibility with anybody. He got on well with the old Emperor because he was always sure of having his way in the end, but it was considered certain that he would have to go when the Emperor Frederick ascended the throne. The matter can hardly be considered of great importance in any case. Bismarck's retirement from the active control of affairs could not be

far off in the ordinary course of nature, and only leaves the young Emperor in undisputed possession of the field a few years earlier than he would otherwise have had it. The German people have now a fair prospect of what are called "lively times." With a majority hostile to the Government in the Reichstag; with Socialism growing every day, and undoubtedly by this time making itself felt in the army, and with an inexperienced young man in command of the army, who considers the whole community "a talent" committed to his keeping by Almighty God, we may fairly look forward to that state of things in Germany described in the old English saying as "wigs on the green."

The Turkish question on which the French Ministry has been beaten and resigned, consists in M. Tirard's failure to negotiate a new treaty of commerce with Turkey, to take the place of that of 1861, which is now expiring. A new treaty was negotiated in 1887, and signed on both sides, but was never submitted to the Chambers, in the belief that it would be defeated, as the new treaty with Greece had been. On the 27th of February M. Tirard made an explanation of the position of the Government in the matter, declaring that they did not mean to try to negotiate a new treaty at present, and were going to rely, as far as the treatment of French goods in the Ottoman custom-houses was concerned, on the most-favored-nation clause in the treaty of 1802. To make assurance doubly sure, they got this clause confirmed by an exchange of notes with the Porte, in January of this year. As matters then stood, France was, in his opinion, on exactly the footing which Germany and England have just secured by treaties recently negotiated and now ready to be signed, and he therefore proposed to wait until 1892 before opening any fresh negotiations for a new treaty in behalf of France. What seems to make this situation unpalatable, and has probably led to the overthrow of the Ministry, is the discontent of the French wine-growers over the heavy importation of raisins from Turkey, which now goes on for the manufacture of a cheap wine that competes formidably with the French grape juice, and the doubts of a considerable portion of the Chamber whether the most-favored-nation clause of 1802, even when fortified by a note, really gives French trade in the Levant all the *ad-interim* security it needs.

M. Freycinet is back in power in France with as good a cabinet as the times will permit. M. Constans, whose resignation (for reasons suggested by our Paris correspondent on another page) shook the Tirard Ministry to its centre, is back in his old post. M. Ribot, a first-rate man in every way, is Minister of Foreign Affairs. He is one of the few Frenchmen who speak English perfectly, has an American wife, and has made frequent visits to this country. He is or has been a professor in the School of Political Sciences in Paris. M. Freycinet, the chief, is an able man, but has fully half-a-dozen sources of weakness (or, rather, unpopularity) about him, beginning during the war of 1870 and running down to our own day. It would be unsafe, therefore, to predict a very long life for his Cabinet. The "group" spirit evidently still reigns among the French Deputies.

Lord Randolph Churchill's experience as a politician during the last four years has had a great deal of variety in it. He became prominent by the vigor of his invective and his hostility to the old fogies, as he considered them, of his own party. He was, when Lord Salisbury came last into power, considered formidable enough and able enough to receive the Chancellorship of the Exchequer; but he had not held it many months when he began to attack his own party again, and threw it up in disgust. Since he left office, he has, on the whole, stood by the Tories, but his friendliness towards the Home-Rulers has been, at the same time, very ostentatiously displayed, and he occasionally said a good word for them. Almost every one of his speeches, however, furnished ammunition to both sides, and he gradually destroyed all chance of returning to office under Lord Salisbury. But his last outbreak has apparently taken everybody by surprise, and has been thoroughly characteristic, for, instead of supporting Gladstone's amendment, which would have furnished him with the proper occasion, he reserved himself for a little amendment of Mr. Jennings's, but in supporting it so frightened Mr. Jennings by his anti-ministerial violence that Mr. Jennings himself did not vote. The speech has apparently destroyed all hope of an official career for the orator. Neither party would now trust him round the corner; but some of his last strokes must have told on the Government. The funeral discourses delivered over his political remains by the Conservative press are very amusing reading, and make the earlier attention paid to his utterances difficult to understand. He was one of the small batch of young aristocrats who brought themselves into notice between 1880 and 1886 by their savage attacks on the Grand Old Man, but Balfour is the only one of them who has come to anything.

The death of Baron Dowse, the Irish judge, reported by cable on Friday, must be a relief to Mr. Balfour. Dowse had an extraordinarily sharp tongue and a rich vein of cynical humor, and he used them both in appeal causes mercilessly on the stipendiary magistrates who are charged with the duty of executing the Coercion Acts. The annoyance this gave to the Irish Secretary was very great, and it could not be mitigated by the reflection that Dowse was a poor lawyer, for he was by general confession one of the ablest on the Irish bench. His overhauling of the decisions of the "Removables," as the Home-Rulers call them, was often very entertaining. His observation to one of his brethren who was directing one of the magistrates to "state a case" for the court above on an appeal—"State a case! You might as well ask him to write a Greek ode"—amused the public mightily and had a great run. His satire was all the more poignant because the stipendiary magistrates are one of the great blots on the present government of Ireland. They are to a very large extent either half-pay officers of the army or needy men who have failed in life, and for whom their relatives have to provide in some way. They rarely have any knowledge of law, or much other knowledge, belong to the landlord class, are bitter Tory partisans in politics, and have not a particle of sympathy of any sort with the people over whom they rule under the present régime. In fact, it is hardly too strong to say that as a body they are a disgrace to the British Government.

That the immense coal-miners' strike in England is the direct result of the support given by the London public, and especially by the clerical and philanthropic part of it, to the dock-laborers' strike, there can be little question. Londoners are now thoroughly cured of their philanthropic rage excited by the last-mentioned strike, but they have raised Frankenstein and they cannot lay him. The gasmen's strike, which followed soon after, showed the consequence of exciting unreasonable expectations among ignorant men. On Tuesday there were 30,000 turbulent strikers parading the streets of Liverpool, and putting the whole town in terror, and keeping even the military garrison on the alert, in the firm belief, which people who ought to know better are spreading every day, that there is a great fund somewhere available for the diffusion of comfort and leisure through the community, which the well-to-do are keeping from the poor, and that the notion that temperance and industry and economy are necessary to prosperity—or, in other words, that success in life depends in any large degree on character—is all humbug. The German Emperor's Labor Conference is likely to have the same effect. In fact, it would not be at all surprising if, within the next few years, we were to witness, owing to the follies of philanthropy, the greatest disturbance of industry the modern world has seen, followed, of course, by the usual subsequent increase of misery. The labor problem will pursue every civilized country like a scourge of Providence until people recognize its simplicity. It consists simply in the collection at certain points of more mouths than there is provision for, and the highest law of all says that wherever this is the case there must be suffering. No solution which does not make population lag behind production will ever be of any value. The story which comes from every strike, that thousands stand ready to take the places of the strikers, if they can be protected, contains the secret of the labor problem.

PIG-IRON AND WOOL.

THE advocates of a high tariff, or of protective rates of duty, so called, upon pig-iron and wool, appear to have been somewhat dismayed by the positive proofs which have lately been given by Mr. David A. Wells, that in ten years the difference in price of iron and steel in this country, as compared with the prices which have been paid by the consumers of those metals who have been supplied from British mines and works, amounts to not less than $560,000,000, and has doubtless been a good deal more.

In the attempt to meet this statement, the only reply which the advocates of heavy taxes on imported metal can make seems to be, that, through the application of their policy, the actual prices of iron and steel have been lower than they would have been had not the policy of protection tended to stimulate the construction of iron and steel works in this country. They ask, "What would have been the actual price of pig-iron if the pig-iron industry had not been rapidly developed in the United States by the duties imposed upon foreign metal?" and they impute the reduction, both in this country and in Europe, to the stimulus which has been given in this country by this policy.

This question of what the price *would have been* is a mere subterfuge. No one can prove or disprove their allegations. But every man of common sense is aware that the process of making pig-iron has been subjected to a complete revolution within the last few years, the effect of which has been a great reduction in the cost throughout the world. In the period which Mr. Wells treats, 1878-1887, the reduction in the price of pig-iron was greater in Great Britain than it was in the United States; and it is well proved that the art has not ceased to be profitable, because the product has been well sustained in Great Britain, while it has been rapidly increased in this country. Yet in both countries old furnaces which were misplaced have been put out of blast, and new modern furnaces of greater capacity to produce iron at constantly lessening cost have been constructed.

The admission, however, on the part of the advocates of high tariff, that through their policy the price of iron in Great Britain has been reduced and kept at a much lower point than it would otherwise have been, is the most complete surrender that could be made. In this admission they give up every point on which their policy could be justified. This will become very plain when the relative importance of the production of pig-iron and the consumption thereof are brought into view.

Again, the advocates of a high tariff on wool may be challenged to justify that tax on the same grounds by which they attempt to justify the tax on foreign iron. Do they dare say to the farmers, "Our object in putting a duty upon foreign wool in 1867 was to *reduce* the price of the domestic wool of the United States; our purpose was to exclude the wool of South America and Australia from this country, to throw it all on the markets of Europe, and to put down the price of wool in Europe as well as in this country"?

The moment they presented such an argument as this to the wool-growers of the United States, they know that the wool-growers would instantly turn upon them and scout their policy with contempt; and yet that is exactly what they did. That has been the exact effect of the duties on wool. And this malignant influence of the duty on wool has now gone so far, and has reduced the price of South American wool to so low a point, that the great plains of the Argentine Republic, which had been devoted to pasturage and to the product of wool, are now being ploughed up and planted in wheat. Hence the malignant effect, depressing the price of wool in Europe by excluding South American wool from this great market, will presently be to establish a competition in the production of wheat which, in a very few years, will grow to great proportions, and will be more dangerous to the interests of the wheat-growers of the United States than an East India competition ever has been or ever can be.

Let the advocates of duties on these crude materials tell the farmers, if they dare, that the object of their policy is and has been to depress or put down the price of wool in this country and in Europe; yet that is their only justification of the duty on pig-iron.

What, then, is the relative importance of the production of pig-iron, and what advantage has it been to reduce the price—even if that has been the result of the protective system—as compared to the disadvantage of maintaining the price of pig-iron in this country from $50,000,000 to $75,000,000 a year above that at which the consumers of other countries have been supplied?

This policy originated in Pennsylvania. The impression has been made that the people in Pennsylvania would become paupers were it not for the artificial stimulus and support which have been given to the production of pig-iron by taxing the consumers; and yet even in Pennsylvania the product is utterly insignificant in ratio to the aggregate product of the State. In 1880, when Pennsylvania produced half the pig-iron of the United States, the whole number of men and boys occupied in the production did not exceed 40,000, and their earnings were low—far below the average earnings of those engaged in the higher branches of the iron and steel industry. At the present time the population of Pennsylvania approximates 6,000,000 of people. The product of pig-iron approximates 4,000,000 tons, worth at the mines only $65,000,000 to $75,000,000; possibly giving employment, under rather bad conditions, to 60,000 or 70,000 men and boys. On the other hand, the tax on pig-iron in this country protects the ship-builders, the machinists, the engine-builders, the rail-makers, and the hardware-manufacturers *of Great Britain, France, and Germany*, and tends to give employment in those countries to a force far larger than the petty little force which is occupied in the production of pig-iron in this country.

The advocates of this system cannot deny that invention and science applied to the production of crude iron would have reduced the price in some measure, even had there been no tariff or duty upon it in this country. What would probably have happened under such conditions would have been such a rapid development of the product of iron in Great Britain as to have led, many years ago, to the exhaustion of the fine ores and the coking coals which is now creating such alarm on that side of the water. No one can deny that in such event the iron mines and iron works of this country would have been opened and would have been rapidly developed. The only thing that has been accomplished by the policy of the United States, even if it has accomplished all that is claimed for it by its advocates, has been to delay by ten or fifteen years the time when the paramount control of the production of pig-iron would have passed from Great Britain to this country, as it is now passing under present conditions.

Let it be admitted that, during the ten years under consideration, the actual price of iron here and abroad has been a little lower than it would otherwise have been, and that our consumers, in their vain attempt to retain the home market for the products in which pig-iron is the chief component material (in which they have not succeeded fully), have paid a little less for their iron. But what does it come to, compared with the disadvantage of having been required to pay a great deal more than their competitors each and every year?

If the abatement of the duty should result in giving us more iron at less cost, or even in giving us more iron at a little higher cost, but at the same price as the price at which our foreign competitors are supplied, the stimulus to the machine shop, to the ship-yard, to the engine-builder, and to the higher arts would be so great that the little change in the occupation of the people who are now forced by our tariff to work in the mine or the iron furnace, would be forgotten almost as quickly as it became apparent; the rise in the wages and in the conditions of those who are now occupied in these undesirable branches of work would be so great.

We therefore welcome the admissions with which have been met the unquestioned figures by which it has been proved that the price of protection to the domestic pig-iron furnace in ten years—1878–1887—amounts to far more than the entire value of all the iron mines and iron works of the United States put together. When this fact is generally understood, the duty on pig-iron will go; and that day is not far off.

PRESIDENT ANDREWS ON TRUSTS.

PRESIDENT ANDREWS of Brown University read a paper on Trusts before the Social Science Association at its last annual meeting, which has just been published in the journal of its transactions. The title of the paper is the "Economic Law of Monopoly." It is original in its line of thought and extremely well expressed, being much superior to the paper on the same subject by Prof.

Foxwell before the British Association last year.

It is Mr. Andrews's belief that the law of competition, which has been relied on to deliver mankind from every kind of monopoly not created and enforced by the State, can no longer be considered efficient in all cases. State monopolies are no longer tolerated in civilized countries, or, if tolerated, the proceeds go into the common treasury, and the monopoly becomes a special form of taxation, against which no objection lies. *Laissez-faire* monopolies are the dangerous ones, and these are multiplying on every hand, mostly in the form of Trusts; but the object sought by a Trust may in some cases be accomplished by a different organization or even by a common understanding.

An effective organization of a majority in interest in any trade, like sugar-refining for example, may, as Mr. Andrews shows, and as has been shown before, contain all the bad features of monopoly, even when a considerable minority remains outside the Trust. In such a case the minority participates but does not compete. Real competition begins only when the minority is able to make, and does actually make, a serious inroad into the market controlled by the monopoly. Those outside of the combination are as much interested in keeping up prices as those inside. They will do nothing to break the market knowingly. If the combination will let them alone, they will let the combination alone. As was said of the small mills outside of the Canadian Oatmeal Millers' Association, they will "avail themselves of whatever advantage the combination gives them to keep up prices."

But if prices, and consequently profits, are unreasonably high, will not new capital be attracted to the business and thus prices be forced down to the proper level? It is one of the maxims of political economy that this result will follow. This tendency Mr. Andrews admits, but he points to certain facts counteracting the tendency. In the first place, all the parties to the gains of the monopoly, both those inside and those outside of the combination, are interested in keeping their rate of profits secret. They can keep it secret even from their own certificate-holders. They are not amenable to law in the sense that joint-stock corporations are. They are not liable to investigation. They can arrange their book-keeping to suit themselves. New capital is not "attracted" in the way that one body is attracted by another in physics. It requires knowledge, and generally of a very detailed kind, before it feels the attraction.

Again, the amount of capital required to compete with an established Trust must be at least as great as that of the Trust itself. Any less sum is exposed to destruction. Sometimes people will put their money into a venture whose avowed purpose is war with another concern (like the West Shore Railroad against the New York Central); but generally the expectation is to sell the new plant at a profit to the old concern. Such experiments on a large scale are not likely to be repeated; but, supposing them to be repeated again and again, how is the public benefited thereby? Are the prices of commodities reduced to a fair level by the process of putting up new capital to be bought out by old? If there is no buying out, if the new fights the old and the old fights the new to the death, says Mr. Andrews,

> "it is a battle of Titans, of bull-dogs. The signal for letting go is likely to be death, not pain or a little blood. So vast the stake, each side is pushed on by every economic consideration to make the struggle one for victory or annihilation. . . . Either of two results must take place: faint-heartedness may bring truce, or one or the other of the two gladiators may utterly succumb. In either case monopoly is resumed again."

In short, the economic laws which govern when the case is that of blacksmiths and cobblers and gardeners, or of any vocation in life as it existed fifty years ago, do not apply to modern trades in which machinery plays the greater part in production, and where millions of dollars are required to bring the machinery into existence and into play.

Mr. Andrews does not enter into the ethical considerations involved in the subject of Trusts. He denies with emphasis, however, that Trusts and combinations have any tendency to invent or to practise economies, or to share such economies as they may make with the public. They may do so in isolated cases, but there is nothing in their constitution, or in the constitution of things, that can be called a tendency that way. On the contrary, the tendencies are exactly the opposite, for "monopoly prices are determined not by the cost of production, but by the tolerance of the market, by what the market will bear"; and, moreover, "prices, under the law of the tolerance of the market, while never lower than cost, range more or less above, according as the articles approach more the nature of necessities or that of luxuries." Necessities will, of course, bear the higher price.

While Mr. Andrews's paper seems to give us a pessimistic outlook, he is by no means alarmed. "Our sole present needs," he says, "are information, courage, and willingness to take new steps in industrial evolution so soon as they are proved to be wise. In the ages past, society has never gotten itself into an imbroglio without somehow finding a way out. It will be so now."

THE NEW TAMMANY'S TRIBULATIONS.

It is less than a year since *Harper's Weekly* (of July 13, 1889) astonished its readers by publishing portraits of Tammany's Big Four —"Dick" Croker, Bourke Cockran, "Tommy" Gilroy, and Mayor Grant—accompanying them with a highly eulogistic article on the "Tammany Hall of To-day." The readers of the *Weekly* were informed that "there is a new Tammany of to-day, and the people know it not," and that this new Tammany was the Big Four whose portraits were published. A column of most flattering biography was devoted to Croker as "a silent, self-contained man," who had "power and personal strength of character, political sagacity, political honesty, great knowledge of individuals, and spotless personal integrity." Almost equal space was given to Cockran, who was said to have "ripe judgment and thorough knowledge of principles and men, handsome presence, polished manners, and a rare gift of eloquence." Gilroy was extolled as a "genial, pleasant, and obliging man, as well as remarkably gifted with business ability," whose "judgment is recognized as invariably sound and excellent" in all matters coming before the Tammany Committee on Organization. Mayor Grant, the public were assured, not only possessed an "established reputation for personal honesty," but also "for trustworthiness as a public official." Finally, the *Weekly* gave a comprehensive certificate of character for the Big Four by saying that the "extent of the power held by the men mentioned as the representatives of Tammany Hall is just now very great," which, being left without any intimation that they had ever done anything to indicate that they would use it for the public good, was perhaps the most extraordinary statement of a most extraordinary article to be found in the columns of *Harper's Weekly*, of all papers in the world.

What is the condition of the new Tammany to-day, just eight months after it was thus handsomely presented to the public? Croker, having used his power as Boss of the new Tammany to get himself appointed to the office of City Chamberlain, the most lucrative sinecure position in the Mayor's gift, has resigned and gone away, because, according to general belief in political circles, he feared he might be summoned to appear before the Senate Investigating Committee, where he would reveal his ignorance of the duties of his office. Gilroy, whom the *Weekly* declared to be so "remarkably gifted with business ability," has been exposed and convicted by the *Evening Post* of an attempt to let the city's paving contracts in violation of the law, and in the interest of a single company, by framing his specifications in such a way as to preclude competition from all other sources. Only after such exposure and conviction did he change his plans. Bourke Cockran's achievements, in demonstration of his claim to the title of a man of "ripe judgment and thorough knowledge of principles and men," have been to get his law partner appointed Corporation Counsel, while he himself is the counsel of the enormous claims which the aqueduct contractors are bringing against the city for work which they have been compelled to perform in accordance with their agreements with the city.

As for the Mayor, what is the condition of his "established reputation for personal honesty and trustworthiness as a public official"? He promised, before taking office, that, in the "exercise of public duties, all my acts must be for the benefit of the whole people"; that, "in the selection of municipal officers, I shall prescribe no other test than honesty and special capacity for the offices to be filled"; that, "profoundly conscious of the importance to my party and to myself of a judicious application of the appointing power, I pledge myself to be guided solely by a determination to secure for the people the very highest order of public servants that the citizenship of the county will afford"; and that, "in exercising the appointing power, I will not be moved by considera-

tions of personal friendship, nor will I be affected by my individual preferences." He has made about twenty important appointments to salaried positions, and with a single exception every one of them has been a Tammany man, many of them have been mere personal cronies, and all of them have been more or less unfit. He has not made a single choice from the "highest order of the citizenship of the county," and it is a moderate statement to say that nine-tenths of his selections have been from the lowest order. His one reputable appointment, that of Mr. Loomis for Street Commissioner, he completely neutralized by forcing with it the choice of "Eddy" Hagan, a liquor-dealing politician of the lowest type, as Deputy. The result of this performance, which is now universally regarded as a cheap trick, is that Mr. Loomis is on the point of resigning in discouragement and disgust, while our streets are in a worse condition than ever.

In addition to these failures of the Big Four to live up to the handsome "characters" given them by *Harper's Weekly*, there are the tribulations of Tammany's former Grand Sachem, the Sheriff. Not only is he on trial in court on a charge of criminal conspiracy for seeking to get a divorce from his wife by methods forbidden by the law, but his deputy has also been indicted for bribery, in company with another Tammany leader, the Warden of Ludlow Street Jail. In fact, the office which has charge of the city's criminals is itself shown to be conducted by criminals and to be in league with criminals.

There is nothing surprising in all this. The new Tammany, like the old Tammany, is merely fulfilling its mission. It exists solely for the control of offices and patronage. Nothing else is thought of or talked of in its committees or at its meetings. Questions of municipal administration and government are never discussed there. The only object of the society is to make politics as extravagant and corrupt as possible in order that there may be more "plums" to divide. Every public work and improvement is looked at, not from the point of view of the city's interests, but simply as a job for the benefit of Tammany. These are such trite truths that it ought not to be necessary to repeat them, and it would not be if every now and then reputable journals like Harper's *Weekly*, and reputable men like Mr. Loomis, did not give sanction to the idea that in some way something good and of public usefulness might come out of Tammany if honest men would encourage it with their approval or alliance. Mr. Loomis has learned the folly of it by bitter experience. No reputable man can ally himself with it and not repent of his mistake. All its leaders are of the same calibre and character. The Sheriff, who is on trial, was its Grand Sachem. The Warden of Ludlow Street Jail is a member of its Committee of Twenty-four on Organization, whose executive officers are the Big Four. From top to bottom, the men are all of the same character—they are all political speculators and gamblers; most of them have never had any occupation except politics; many of them have been and still are liquor-dealers, and the great majority are ignorant, vicious, corrupt, and depraved. To pretend that decent government can spring from such sources is worse than foolish.

A SAMPLE OF TAMMANY GOVERNMENT.

THE Senate Committee demonstrated the wisdom of its new departure in investigation methods at its session on Saturday. The revelations which it extracted from Mayor Grant concerning the way in which the business of the Sheriff's office was administered during his term therein, are precisely what the public needs and what it is the first duty of such a committee to furnish. Nobody cares for the views of Mayor Grant or any other Tammany statesman upon the structure of the municipal government, but it is of the greatest public interest to have a clear showing made of the manner in which Tammany's highest municipal official conducted one great office before he was promoted to another. This is what was done on Saturday, and the revelation was so important as an object-lesson for our citizens that we shall sum up its chief features in as concise and dispassionate a manner as possible.

The magnitude of the office of Sheriff appears in the Mayor's testimony that the suits against the Sheriff sometimes aggregate $10,000,000 a year, and that his receipts from fees aggregate somewhere between $25,000 and $30,000 a year. Yet there was no book kept which would tell exactly what the receipts were. While he was Sheriff Mr. Grant kept none. It was possible that all the books in the office might give the total if a bookkeeper were to go over all of them. When Mr. Grant became Sheriff, there were forty-two deputy sheriffs, but he reduced the number to thirteen. Did he do that "because he thought it was better to have thirteen well-fed men than forty-two hungry and thirsty ones"? "Well, that's about it," said Mr. Grant. The fees of the offices were divided by the Mayor with these thirteen deputies after the latter had collected them. No books or records of any kind were kept of the amounts collected. Mr. Grant himself made no distinction between his private and official bank accounts. He had a schedule of fees which the deputies were to collect, which he had had prepared by his counsel, Bourke Cockran, for their guidance. He took the money which they brought to him, deposited it, and kept what remained after he had paid over their shares to them. He had no check upon their operations, but kept a close watch upon them, and if he caught one of them charging illegal fees, he discharged him. The deputies attended to all cases in which the execution was on judgments not exceeding $20,000. All others were attended to by the Sheriff or the Under-Sheriff.

The law allows that in certain cases the deputies may receive as "extra compensation" such sums as may be agreed upon between them and the attorney for the judgment. Mr. Grant kept no record of transactions of this kind. He was aware that great abuses, and even systematic blackmail, might be practised by the deputies under the pretence of "extra compensation," but he kept no check upon them and no record of their receipts from this source. If there was any controversy between a deputy and an attorney over such a charge, the deputy took the advice of Bourke Cockran, and for this service each of the thirteen deputies paid Mr. Cockran $35 a month. If after Mr. Cockran's advice had been followed, the attorney for the judgment still objected, Mr. Grant sent the matter before a judge for decision.

When Mr. Grant became Sheriff, he found that there had been many complaints about the way in which Sheriff's sales were conducted. He thereupon summoned an old auctioneer, Mr. Topping, and told him he wished to put all these sales in his charge, guaranteeing him adequate compensation and taking for himself half his fees. Was he as Sheriff aware of the fact that he had no legal right to charge auctioneers' fees? Technically, he knew, he had no such right, but the "auctioneer generally disposed of the goods to such advantage that the creditor was usually willing to pay him something for his services." As Sheriff he received between $4,000 and $5,000 from this source during the last year of his term. He was not certain whether or not it was the custom to charge auctioneers' fees in all bills—he was inclined to think not, but would not swear that it was not. Yet he had made an agreement at the beginning of his term that he should receive half of them. When asked by Mr. Ivins, "Was it not your duty as Sheriff under the law to sell the goods without fee?" Mr. Grant hesitated for some time, and finally replied: "I understand that it was the Sheriff who done the sale. It was the services that the Sheriff rendered for which we were compensated." This was the clearest explanation which could be obtained.

These were the main points of the Mayor's testimony. What they revealed is too plain to need much comment. They showed, in the first place, that utter lack of ordinary business methods which is always found in a department in which there are transactions that will not bear the light. In the second place, they show that in two most important respects the law was violated, in one case somewhat indirectly and in the other openly. Every lawyer in the city knows how uniform the charge of "extra compensation" has become, and what an organized system of blackmail it is upon all legal business which comes before the Sheriff's office. That it is directed by Bourke Cockran, who receives from the deputies who levy it about $6,000 a year as "counsel fees," is a new revelation. The income of a deputy is about $3,000 a year, and of this amount he must hand over $35 a month, or more than one-seventh, to Mr. Cockran, as counsel, not for services actually rendered, but as a retaining fee. This disclosure throws a strong light upon Mr. Cockran's functions in the municipal govern-

ment. To how many other employees does he hold this relation of compulsory counsel, and what is the gross income which he receives in that way? He was the Mayor's counsel while the latter was Sheriff, and it now appears that the Mayor made Mr. Cockran's law partner Corporation Counsel not because of the partner's services, but because of Mr. Cockran's. In addition to being general counsel for the Mayor and innumerable Tammany employees, Mr. Cockran has his partner as the city's official legal adviser, while he himself is the counsel of the heaviest claimants against the city.

The auctioneers' fee revelations are full as damaging as those of the "extra-compensation" practice. The Mayor admits that he made himself the partner in a plan to levy such fees when he recounts his bargain with Mr. Topping, and in doing so he seems to have committed an indictable offence. The two practices together place the city in the attitude of levying illegal tribute upon all its Sheriff sales, and upon all litigants who are forced to transact business through the Sheriff's office. In this respect the conduct of the office, which is nominally a county office, becomes a matter of the highest municipal interest, for the city and county are one, and the sufferers from such abuses are the inhabitants of the city.

CLERICAL JESTING.

A SURPRISING feature of the Presbyterian debates on the revision of the Creed has been the great number of witticisms evolved in the discussions. In the New York Presbytery in particular many of the debaters seemed to feel that they must be funny in direct proportion to the awfulness of the doctrines they were considering. Doubtless the presence of a throng in the galleries, where it was so easy to awake the convincing approval of a laugh, had something to do with this; but it is not to be supposed that men with such good stories and witty epithets struggling for utterance would have kept them all down even if the public had not been there. Especially is there reason to believe that the amusing illustration of the dog having eaten up his tag, and all the ingenious turns given it by successive speakers, was bound to furnish all the diversion it did whether men would hear or forbear. The thing itself is of no great importance except as a striking instance of what is a new and important thing—the intrusion of humor into pulpit oratory. To what an extent this has gone may be pretty clearly inferred from the fact that ministers could not rise to discuss what they all believed to be the most solemn subjects, before a miscellaneous audience, without adorning their remarks with jokes.

Of course, there have always been clerical humorists, men born to see the laughable aspects and relations of things, known far and wide as jolly story-tellers or inveterate jesters. The very sacredness of their profession, and the traditional sedateness to which it was supposed to bind them, have lent piquancy and the merit of unexpectedness to their wit. Occasionally they may have indulged in some quip in the pulpit itself, though this was surely very seldom, and would have been esteemed wholly irregular and out of keeping. Indeed, the whole class have always been looked upon, till lately, as a doubtful honor to the cloth, more to be tolerated than commended. But we have changed all that. Nothing is commoner in a church nowadays than the subdued and decorous ripple of laughter at some witty observation of the preacher. We do not allude to the isolated instances of ministerial buffoons, but to the general freedom which a minister now may feel to say "bright" things in the pulpit, if he can, and to excite the risibilities of his hearers in a way that would certainly have called the indignant tithing-man down upon them two centuries ago.

The growth of this tendency is no doubt partly due to the slow secularization of the ministry all along the line. It can no longer stand apart from all other callings, as upon a pedestal of peculiar sacredness. As it becomes more assimilated to the prevailing conditions of life and society, it naturally assumes more and more of their tone and methods. Partly, and perhaps more, the tendency is due to the desire to win attention which cannot any more be commanded. It is all of a piece with the entire recasting of the minister's personality that has come about. The historical figure of the New England parson, stalking majestically along the street, at once the dread and awe of childhood, has given way, in large degree, to a romping, tennis-playing personage, whose advent the children hail with delight as that of a jolly big brother sportively inclined. Bound to be agreeable and amusing all the week, what wonder if he puts the spice of a jest also into his Sunday's discourse?

Certainly he has to face no popular condemnation for so doing. Commendation rather is the result. No ministers are more secure in their positions than those who have the reputation of being witty in the pulpit—"so bright" or "so lively," as they are admiringly declared to be by attached parishioners. Hence it gives one a sort of shock to read in the *Christian Union* a rebuke of those Presbyterians who are giving such a mirthful turn to the discussions about their creed. Of course, in the eyes of Presbyterians, the religious journal named stands for all that is radical and dangerous in doctrine, and so it is to be feared that the rebuke will pass by them unheeded. Yet they ought to give attention to it. The *Christian Union* is right. Call it mystery, reverence, awe, or what one will, there is something of the kind necessary to the preservation of the religious instincts, and those sentiments cannot long survive flippant treatment. Prophets do not play tennis nor make jokes. The Jews were much given to punning, but it was all meant most seriously, and has had, in fact, most serious consequences. The Apostolic prohibition of foolish talking and jesting is not greatly honored in general, but it might well be observed in the pulpit for a while yet.

PUBLIC DEMANDS AND THE MEDICAL EDUCATION OF WOMEN.

BALTIMORE, March 7, 1890.

THE present condition of that department of higher education known as the medical education of women offers a curious instance of social congestion, consequent upon the rapid growth of advanced popular views on the practical side, without a corresponding expansion of opinion on the scientific and academic side. At the moment of writing, two State Legislatures, those of New York and Kentucky, have before them bills requiring the appointment of women assistant physicians in all insane asylums where women are confined, while in Massachusetts and in our neighboring State of Pennsylvania such appointments have for some years been provided for by law. In as many as ten other States, where legislation has not as yet enforced such action, appointments of women physicians in insane asylums have been voluntarily made, and in instances too many to enumerate, in different parts of the country, popular agitation has secured the services of women in the female wards of city almshouses, in prisons and reformatories, and in some hospitals and dispensaries, as well as in infant asylums and girls' homes.

But while the public is thus on all sides demanding, with no uncertain sound, the appointment of women physicians in institutions where women and girls are received, and is proving its honest conviction that the employment of women physicians is right and decent by using the services of such physicians in domestic life, it has neglected to offer medical women the same careful preparation and advanced instruction that are provided for the corresponding class of men. The contest is now no longer for the right of women to practise medicine, but for their right to be properly trained to practise it. The number of State and other appointments above instanced, and the statistics in regard to the number (over 2,500) of women practising medicine in the United States, together with their respective positions and incomes, sufficiently demonstrate the attitude of public opinion in regard to the desirability of women as physicians. These same facts can be shown to prove that it is clearly the interest of the community to give to women medical students and women physicians the same apprenticeship and instruction that it provides for men.

Similar responsibilities require similar preparation. Neither common sense nor justice sustains the public in insisting by law on the selection of specified members of a profession whom in its social and educational functions it pronounces incompetent and inferior. If women physicians are to be given their proportion of State appointments, if the female wards of the State are entitled to the services of physicians of their own sex, then those medical women have a right to exactly the same opportunities for training that medical men have. That they have not these opportunities merely shows that we have allowed zeal to outrun discretion. What we need is a little less zeal and a quickened sense of justice.

"The positions open to women in institutions to-day far outnumber the available women who are properly prepared. The most urgent need of to-day is the opportunity for women to study in the best colleges for men, and in hospitals which admit all cases. Men respect a diploma from a school which also graduates men much more than one from a school exclusively for women, and I believe that those women who study with men are best fitted to work beside and under them afterwards. Women educated by themselves are less broad in their ideas, I am sure."

These words of an able woman physician indicate the lines on which the battle for the medical education of women must be fought. They point, first, to the opening of the medical departments of our great universities, with all their scientific and clinical advantages, to properly qualified women, and, secondly, to a fair division between men and women of hospital and dispensary appointments.

At present the half-dozen medical schools whose endowment and equipment enable them to demand a high standard from their students, and to provide a scheme of instruction abreast of the scientific knowledge of the age, still say sternly to women, "Go and get the best instruction you can somewhere else." Were they to reverse their verdict, they would merely be following tardily in the tardy footsteps of the principal degree-conferring medical bodies of Great Britain, and the existing schools of medicine on the Continent. Many well qualified judges of the matter in this country already hold that separate laboratories and dissecting-rooms, with separate instruction in one or two special subjects, are all that is needed in order to admit women, without friction or complication, to the best-equipped medical schools. But hospital appointments are where the shoe pinches with men, even the most liberal. Such positions are so coveted, and their value so keenly appreciated, that only a growing sense of justice and the outside pressure of public opinion will secure for women and men an equal share in their distribution. Of the hundreds of American hospitals and dispensaries, both public and private, where women and children are treated, few employ women physicians, yet such minor posts as those of interne and assistant physician are the natural stepping-stones to the more important places on a medical staff, and are indispensable for post-graduate study. As internes and as assistants in institutions, women physicians present no more difficulties to honest and competent authorities than do boys and girls in the same families, and with different rooms and habits, to wise and capable parents. The proper arrangements can be and have been made to accommodate and train members of both sexes under the same central administration.

Higher medical education in general is a very recent movement. It was only in 1872 that Harvard announced an extended and graded course of instruction. Not until 1878 did the University of Pennsylvania follow suit, being only enabled to do so then by the endowment of several chairs, the first of which, that of surgery, owed its existence to the liberality of a woman, who gave $50,000 for its foundation. Johns Hopkins has not yet perfected the plans for its medical school, but it is admitted that until some additional or special endowment be received, none but post-graduate instruction and some undergraduate biological and chemical courses will be offered to medical students.

A survey of the advances and recoils of medical education for women discloses two salient forces to be routed and conciliated, namely, the spoils system of politics, which makes it easy to oust or put down a woman, and endowment. The purification of office-holding will progress slowly with the general increase of civic virtue and intelligence. Endowment is the more certain hope of those who are impatient to force our university schools to retire from their present position towards women medical students. Recent information from Harvard foreshadows willingness on the part of both Overseers and Faculty to receive such gifts as would permit them to take action on the final hedging resolution of 1879 over Miss Marian Hovey's offer of $10,000, *i. e.*, "That, in the opinion of the Board of Overseers it is expedient that, under suitable restrictions, women be instructed by Harvard University in its Medical School." The Johns Hopkins Hospital, in organic connection with the University, has this year admitted several women to its post-graduate instruction.

Women need not despair. The trend of university movement and development is on their side. It is the interest of the public to hasten this development by such additional endowment as will secure for its medical servants, irrespective of sex, the best training.

C. B.

THE GOVERNMENT AND THE OPPOSITION IN PARLIAMENT.

LONDON, March 5, 1890.

THERE is a general impression that the present session of Parliament may probably be more critical and exciting than its immediate predecessors. The last two sessions have been chiefly occupied with schemes of local government for England and Scotland, the main principles of which were, to say the least, as acceptable to the Opposition as to the followers of the Government. The Opposition desired to extend the application of these principles much further, and there was abundant material for controversy in detail, but there was no serious party contest over those measures, and no practical possibility of the Government being either forced or having any inducement to appeal to the country.

The situation is now different. The present Parliament has attained or passed its climacteric. Willingly or unwillingly, the Government are now about to take a forward step in their Irish policy. They always announced from the first, with varying degrees of precision, that while they deemed repressive legislation to be indispensable, it would be accompanied, or at least closely followed, by constructive measures of reform in the direction of giving facilities to occupiers to become owners—land purchase as it is commonly called—and more particularly of local government on the same principles as were to be applied, and now have been applied, to Great Britain. Those promises were doubtless made, among other things, as a condition of the Liberal-Unionist alliance. It was a form of marriage to soothe the scruples of these new allies, and enable them with a calm conscience to live under the protection of the Tories. The disturbed state of Ireland even more than the pressure of other business has hitherto been the excuse for doing nothing to redeem those pledges. But now the Government boast that their administration of the Crimes Act has been successful in restoring order and tranquillity. Accordingly, whether the Liberal Unionists, as a compacting party, are pressing for a fulfilment of the compact or not, the Government could no longer evade the task of attempting a constructive policy, and measures of Irish land purchase and local government were announced in the Queen's speech.

The first important business of the session, however, is the debate now proceeding on the report of the Parnell Commission. I dare say your readers are almost as familiar with the report as people in England, and as able to draw their own conclusions from it. The findings of the Commission do not contain anything that is new, and the report has not in itself produced any excitement in the public mind. Mr. Parnell and his colleagues are acquitted of the gross charges of personal complicity with murder and other crimes, and association with criminals, which were persistently levelled at them by the *Times*, and were the sole origin of the Commission. This acquittal was partly discounted after the exposure of the Pigott forgeries, but it is more complete and emphatic than was generally expected. Not a few of the accused persons are found guilty of a treasonable purpose to establish the independence of Ireland. But that purpose and their conversion from it have been avowed, and by public opinion in this country even beyond the limits of the Liberal party the treason is long ago excused, forgiven, and almost forgotten.

There remains the condemnation passed by the Commissioners on the part which Mr. Parnell and his friends took in the Irish agitation, under such heads as incitement to intimidation which in fact was followed by crime, and acceptance of aid from the Physical Force party in America, and, as the price of such aid, abstaining from any condemnation of the action of the party. Of this part of the report it is enough to say that, so far as it carries general conviction, it deals with facts which have always been perfectly well known, and for which, in loss of estimation and damage to their cause, the Irish Nationalist party has, whatever over-zealous supporters may say or think, already paid a heavy and probably the full penalty. But the most marked result of the publication of the report is this: with a few honorable exceptions which throw the conduct of the majority into darker relief, Tory politicians and the Tory press, including the *Times*, instead of frankly acknowledging that what was new was not true, and what was true was not new, represent that the report practically affirms the charges of the *Times*, and proves the Nationalist members to be a pack of traitors and scoundrels. The warm indignation which this attitude has excited among the Liberals is reflected in the amendment which Mr. Gladstone moved on Monday, and it is possible that the debate will cause a more active interest in the report than its publication has yet excited.

But the chief interest and business of the session will be the Land-Purchase Bill. The Local-Government Bill, as was to be expected, is also mentioned in the speech from the throne. If land purchase is specially acceptable to some supporters of the Government, local government is the favorite panacea of others who will prescribe anything for Ireland except what she wants. The bill is described in the speech as one for "extending to Ireland the principles of local self-government which have already been adopted in England and Scotland, so far as they are applicable to that country." But it is not believed that the Government hope to pass a local-government bill this session, if they even expect to do so during the present Parliament. There are many reasons which may have disposed the Government to give land purchase the precedence. It is true that a measure of local government which proceeded honestly and fully on the lines of the English and Scotch Acts, establishing county councils on a popular franchise, would not be opposed by the Liberal party. Mr. Gladstone has repeatedly said that he would welcome and do what he could to assist such a bill. Liberal politicians might even be found who think that a good bill of that kind would take some wind out of the sails of the Opposition. But it would be looked upon with great alarm and suspicion by many followers of the Government, Irish and English, and, so long as they are sincerely bent on opposing any rational form of self-government, it is obvious that in a genuine system of local government they might be setting up a Frank-

enstein, and providing an organization for securing home rule stronger than the Land League ever was or could be.

Land purchase, on the other hand, has solid attractions for the Irish landlords, a class which includes not a few influential members of the English aristocracy and other wealthy men on this side of the Irish Channel. They are not disinclined to be bought out by the British taxpayer. It is at least possible for the Tory party to believe that the establishment of the tenants on the soil as owners would draw them away from the desire for home rule. And the discussion of a land-purchase bill even more than a local-government bill promises chances of embarrassment to the Opposition. The Liberal leaders are committed to the expediency of a general scheme of land purchase. The Land-Purchase Bill of 1886 was an essential part of Mr. Gladstone's Irish policy. The plan was based primarily on Irish credit, but it was secured by British credit involving in theory a contingent liability which was estimated at a hundred and fifty millions. The scheme was not universally accepted even by Liberals throughout the country. In some Liberal constituencies it was emphatically condemned. So that the Government approach the question with this tactical advantage, that while the Opposition are committed to the principle, they are also identified with a plan which they are not likely to propose again. The Government, however, will have their own difficulties in framing a plan. In 1885 they obtained five millions by the Ashbourne Act for this purpose, and again other five millions last year, in spite of the opposition of the Liberals, who objected to making the State the immediate creditor of the farmer, and also to the money being doled out by Parliament in driblets, which led to partiality in the operation of the Act and the incidence of its benefits, without the result of any general improvement in the situation of the occupiers. The Government are also so far hampered by their own criticisms on Mr. Gladstone's bill. The opposition which their supporters, especially the Liberal Unionists, helped to raise against the employment of British credit on a large scale for Irish purposes, contributed materially to the rejection of Mr. Gladstone's policy as a whole. To devise an effectual scheme which will throw no contingent burden on the British taxpayer, will not be an easy task.

In entering on a new phase of the struggle, the two armies find themselves with forces within the House of Commons and fighting arrangements practically unchanged. The Cabinet has been increased, by the appointment of Mr. Chaplin to the new Ministry of Agriculture, to the unusually large number of seventeen. So unwieldy a Cabinet almost necessarily implies the existence of an inner Cabinet, which some observers think is silently developing into an established institution, just as the Cabinet itself did. Mr. W. H. Smith continues to lead the House, *tant bien que mal.* The frequent rumors of his approaching retirement are probably without foundation so long as his health stands, and it now appears to be excellent. If he comes short of an ideal leader in a position certainly unsought by him, yet it would be difficult for his party to replace him. Mr. Balfour, who could fill the place well, cannot be spared from Ireland, and, notwithstanding Mr. Goschen's great abilities, it is not believed in any quarter that his leadership would tend to the smooth transaction of business. On the other side, Mr. Gladstone is exceptionally vigorous, and evidently full of confidence and hope. His followers are extremely anxious that he should spare himself, and, in his necessary absence from the House during long and late hours, there has occasionally been a slackness in the leadership, and the party have felt themselves like sheep without a shepherd. This was likely to happen when there was no single lieutenant who would or could assert an unquestioned claim to be second in command. There are signs, however, that this session, under the joint lieutenancy of Sir William Harcourt and Mr. John Morley, the party will be better led when in front of the enemy.

In the present situation, at the opening of a critical session, there are certain points which the Government may reasonably count as being in their favor. The Liberal-Unionist alliance is unbroken. It is not likely to be tried by a severer strain than it has already more than once resisted. Here and there the Liberal Unionists may have made their influence felt in the legislation of the past three years, but they have fully realized that their political existence depends on their supporting the Government through thick and thin. This advantage the Government have always had, though they may reckon on it now with more confidence. Another point is the freedom from serious foreign complications which the country enjoys. The foreign policy of the Government has been fairly successful. Another point of still greater importance is the improvement of the revenues. After a long period of depression, trade is reviving and the revenue is expanding. The revival has already enabled the Chancellor of the Exchequer to present two budgets which were open to criticism on important points, but which had the great attraction of showing a balance on the right side. This year the budget will be better than its predecessors, and the country, after discussing next month the disposal of a surplus of three millions, will come in a good humor to the consideration of the Government bills.

Another point is a certain improvement in the condition of Ireland. The Government will maintain that they have restored tranquillity and prosperity by a policy of firm government. It is quite true that agrarian crime, which did not stand at a high figure when the Crimes Act was passed, has still further diminished, and that there are signs that farmers are beginning to have better times. So far as social order is concerned, coercion acts have always been successful in putting down crime for the time, but they have naturally deepened the disaffection of the people to the Government. Another cause of improvement is that the Irish Nationalists now hope everything from the good will of the English and Scottish people, and their leaders exert all their influence in the direction of conciliation. As to the farmers, a cycle of bad harvests has been succeeded by two good harvests and improved prices, and in a purely agricultural country like Ireland the general prosperity is immediately dependent on the harvests and the prices of agricultural produce. Thus, in fighting the battle of their policy in Ireland, there are certain not unimportant respects in which surrounding circumstances, so far as any aid can come from them, are at this moment favorable to the Government. This aspect of the situation, together with the difficult and delicate character of the proposed Irish bills, was enough to suggest the probability of a dissolution at the close of this session, and the rumor has more than once been current. The Government might think that no more opportune moment was likely to come, and that if they could again obtain a majority, they would be able to deal with Ireland with a much more confident hand.

There is, however, another side to the picture which may and probably does prevent the Government from forming any definite purpose of dissolution. The belief that the cause of Irish home rule is gaining ground in the country has, I think, been more general during the last few months than it ever was before. The growth of this belief has been partly due to the general success of the Liberal party in a representative group of by-elections which took place in the autumn in various parts of the country. By many people, not all on the same side of politics, conclusions which were probably too hasty were drawn. It was thought that the boat which had been moved on the beach by inches with great effort, was now to slide to the sea with a rush. Even the result of the recent vacancy at Partick, where, in a constituency under 11,000, the Unionist majority was reduced by 600 and the Liberal vote increased by 1,000, was felt to be a check. Expectations are already more sober. But the victory in St. Pancras, by which another seat has been wrested from the Tories, is a great encouragement to their opponents. In London many seats were lost in 1886, and if the tables are to be turned, many seats in London must be won by the Liberals at the next elections. The poll was much heavier than at either of the last two elections, and in a comparatively small constituency a minority of 261 was transformed into a majority of 108. The majority is not large, but it is taken by the Liberals as a hopeful indication that the tide in London has turned, and it has some special importance as expressing the first verdict of the electorate after the publication of the Parnell Commission. Two other by-elections are impending, one a Conservative, the other a Liberal seat. But the majorities at the last elections were so large in both cases that it is hardly probable that the result will alter the numerical strength of parties.

C. D.

ON THE EVE OF THE NEW CABINET.

PARIS, March 7, 1890.

IT is not very easy to analyze exactly the political situation in France at the present moment. Last year the election of Gen. Boulanger in Paris by an overwhelming vote marked the downfall of the radical Cabinet presided over by M. Floquet. The radicals had, so to speak, invented Gen. Boulanger; they had put him in the Ministry of War and given him popularity; they considered him as their right-hand man. They had unconsciously prepared the way for his programme by advocating a revision of the Republican Constitution. This word "revision" became the cry of all factions of the Opposition, and when Boulanger turned against his old friends, he used it freely. Under this vague and equivocal word, the Boulangists, the royalists, and the Bonapartists made war together upon the Government; they formed a coalition which had no avowed object, no definite aim, but which was all the more dangerous on this account.

How was the danger averted? The radical Administration gave place to a new Administration, in which the most important leader was M. Constans, who had been one of the followers of Gambetta, and had placed himself among those republicans who call themselves Opportunists. He had for some years been Governor of our colonies in Cochin China, in Tonquin, and in Annam, and had learned there to govern with decision and with an unopposed

authority. Among so many lawyers and orators, he was thought to be a man of action. Many stories were told of his youth, of the years spent in Spain during the Empire; but these stories, whether true or false, all went to confirm his reputation for a certain courage not unmixed with contempt for formalities and even for legality.

When M. Constans took the Home Office, his task was not easy. He had a two-fold object: he had to make war on Boulanger and on Boulangism, he had to preside over the general elections; and whoever is familiar with our history and our institutions knows how influential the prefectoral administration is in the general elections. He would probably not have succeeded if the republican party had not abandoned the *scrutin de liste* and returned to the *scrutin d'arrondissement*. No amount of administrative pressure would have prevented the success in a number of departments of general tickets headed by the then popular name of General Boulanger. The Chamber felt the danger; not only did it return to the district ticket, which prevented the sort of plébiscite that Boulanger was aiming at, but a law was passed which made it illegal for a candidate to stand in more than one arrondissement. These measures were not sufficient; it was thought that no amount of legislative precautions could prevent the final triumph of Boulanger, if he remained free to go about and speak in every city of France, to agitate the country without intermission, here giving hope to the royalists, there encouraging the radicals, and everywhere threatening a total revision of the present Constitution. It was resolved to proscribe him, and to accuse him of conspiracy against the Government. "Morte la bête, mort le venin," says an old French proverb. The *bête* was not killed, it simply fled.

I will not here discuss the legality of all the proceedings which ended in the final and almost complete discomfiture of Boulangism; one fact is certain, the Home Minister, Constans, was the man who conducted the campaign. He can say, "Ecce, adsum qui feci." He was rewarded by republican successes in the elections. The monarchical minority is not as strong in the new Chamber as it was in the last; it is, besides, somewhat weakened by the memory of the coalition of the Conservative party with Boulanger, and not only with Boulanger, but with Rochefort and the Communists.

The trial of Boulanger and the Exhibition were the two great events of 1889. The Exhibition certainly helped M. Constans; it marked a sort of truce during which passions were allowed to cool. It seemed also like a triumphant apotheosis of the Republic. M. Carnot performed with great dignity his Presidential function, and received all the visitors of France in a way becoming our country. It seemed really as if we were entering on a new era of progress, of union and peace. The proverb "Sic vos non vobis" was, however, soon justified. When the new Chamber met, it seemed as if the Cabinet had nothing to do but to watch quietly over its deliberations. Nobody was prepared to upset it or to undertake to succeed it. The only man of mark in the republican camp who could have presumed to be ambitious of the premiership, M. Jules Ferry, had lost his election. M. Floquet, the radical ex-Premier, had been elected Speaker. There were no greater stars in the House than the present Ministers, and it seemed as if the period of perpetual ministerial changes had come to an end.

The character of the new Chamber was not at first clearly defined—was it moderate, disposed to be tolerant of the minority? or was it, like its predecessor, inclined to be arbitrary, unjust, and even violent? Many people had hoped that the moderate republicans would be the leaders of the new Chamber. Some of them are men of great talent, good orators, and have at their disposition papers which rank among the best in the country, such as the *Journal des Débats*. Nobody had attacked the radicals with more eloquence and force than this last paper, which is generally inspired by one of its proprietors, M. Léon Say, the ex-Minister of Finance, the grandson of the famous economist. The London *Times* had gone so far as to announce that M. Léon Say and his followers would come to power as a natural consequence of the general elections.

The Cabinet in which M. Constans was the Home Minister was not quite homogeneous. Some of its members were Opportunists—republicans of the Gambetta and Jules Ferry school; some of them were radicals. They had, however, worked harmoniously during the struggle against Boulanger and during the period of the Exposition. But, now that they confronted a new Chamber, was it possible for them to remain united? M. Carnot, the President, was unwilling to change the Cabinet, probably from a feeling of gratitude for the services which it had rendered, probably also because he could not well divine the exact temper of the new House, and again, people say, because he feels a great sympathy and affection for M. Tirard, who holds the Premiership.

The temper of the Chamber was first shown in what is called here the validation of the elections. The greatest severity was exhibited towards some of the Conservative, and especially the Boulangist, deputies elected in Paris. On the most futile pretexts, the election of many deputies was invalidated. The new elections which were thus rendered necessary did not always change the verdict of the electors. In Paris, for instance, all the invalidated deputies were reëlected. It is a great pity that there is no special tribunal for these electoral disputes; the Chamber has no qualification for the performance of this delicate office, and, in almost every contested election, its decision is inspired merely by party spirit.

Meanwhile, the divisions in the Cabinet, which had long been occult, became more manifest; the Chamber became aware, a short time after its meeting, that M. Tirard, the Premier, and M. Constans, the Home Minister, disagreed on many questions. An incident brought this antagonism before the public. The Duke of Orleans, on arriving at the age of twenty-one, came to Paris, and offered himself as a "conscript" with the young men of his age. He was placed between two laws, one personal to him, which exiled him from France, another, a general law, which subjects every Frenchman to military service, with a few exceptions in which he was not comprised. He had lost his political rights, but he preserved his civic rights; and the right to do military service may be called a civic right. I will not argue here a question which the lawyers employed by the Duke of Orleans did not themselves argue at length before the tribunal. I will look on the question only from the point of view of the Government. M. Constans from the first moment felt that if the judgment of the public would not be with the Duke of Orleans, at least the sentiment of the public would be with him. He thought it unwise to treat with severity the act of a young man, an exile, who chose the best way he could to return for a moment to his country. M. Constans wished to take the Duke of Orleans immediately to the frontier, and not to give him the advantage of being a victim of the law of exile. On this delicate question the division of the Cabinet became apparent; it became even more so when the question of pardoning the Duke of Orleans had to be discussed after the tribunal had condemned him to two years' imprisonment. The Duke had eleven days if he chose for putting in an appeal, and during those eleven days the question of pardon was constantly discussed. It was finally decided against the opinion of M. Constans, and, when the delay of eleven days was over, the young Prince had to leave the Conciergerie, and was conveyed to Clairvaux, a prison for common criminals.

During all this period, the Chamber manifested its hostility to the Duke of Orleans, and M. Constans soon felt that he was losing its confidence. He seized the first opportunity, the nomination of the President of the Court of Cassation, and offered his resignation to M. Carnot. To the surprise of all, this resignation did not become the signal for a ministerial change. M. Constans was immediately replaced, and by whom? By a M. Bourgeois, a radical deputy, who, before he accepted, asked permission of M. Floquet, the present Speaker, whose under-secretary he had been when M. Floquet was Home Minister. The radical element is therefore strengthened in the Cabinet, especially as M. Bourgeois, on assuming office, made a declaration to the Chamber which had a decided radical tinge.

All the details I have given tend, therefore, to the same end: the new Chamber will not be a moderate Chamber in comparison with its predecessor; it is really more radical; it contains more mediocrities; it is no longer under the guidance of such men as M. Ferry or M. Constans. It wants new leaders, new radical leaders.

Correspondence.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN WISCONSIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The last Legislature of Wisconsin certainly, if it did nothing else, secured itself from oblivion when it passed the Bennet Law. Unwittingly and unsuspectingly, in the last days of the session, it passed this law without debate or question. It went to its third reading without comment or opposition, and received the prompt and ready acquiescence of the Executive. Yet this measure has raised an issue fraught with more bitterness, more of race animosity, more of religious antagonism, than was ever known in Wisconsin before. It has unsettled political values, placed the re-election of a Republican Executive in jeopardy, and has caused the leaders of the dominant party the gravest uneasiness.

To understand the situation clearly, it must be recollected that there are 350,000 Roman Catholics in this State; that, with a total Presidential vote in 1888 of 354,514, there are from 50,000 to 60,000 Catholic votes and about 40,000 Lutheran votes; that the German Lutherans and a large proportion of the German Catholics have been unwavering adherents of the Republican party. Yet here we have a law against which every Lutheran synod, every Lutheran minister, every German paper (secular and religious), almost without exception, is up in arms. We have the Archbishop and the Bishops of Green Bay and La Crosse issuing

their solemn manifesto against the law, and calling upon the believers in the Catholic faith to vote and work for its repeal. The children of Luther and the children of the Pope have for the first time made common cause, and, under a common flag, declared war against what they call an unjust, unnecessary, and unlawful enactment.

The law which has caused all this commotion is said to be mainly a copy of the Illinois law, which in turn is said to have been taken from the New York and Massachusetts enactments. Its purpose, so the person who drafted it has told me, was to turn the children from the workshop into the schools, and to provide authority for the school boards to force truant children into the schoolhouses. Its title is "An Act concerning the education and employment of children." Briefly summarized, its provisions are as follows:

Section 1 provides that children between seven and fourteen shall attend some public or private day school at least twelve weeks in each year *in the city, ward, or district where he resides.* Attendance to be consecutive; number of weeks, to be fixed by the Board of Education, *not to exceed twenty-four.*

Section 2 provides a penalty for non-compliance, and allows an excuse from the school authorities on the ground of inability of the parents, physical or mental incompetence, *and on proof being shown that instruction has otherwise been given for a like period of time in the elementary branches commonly taught in the public schools*, or that the child has acquired such elementary branches.

Section 3. Penalties.

Section 4 provides for prosecutions by the Board of Education.

"Section 5. No school shall be regarded as a school, under this act, unless there shall be taught therein, as part of the elementary education of children, reading, writing, arithmetic, and United States history in the English language."

Section 6 provides that prosecutions shall be begun only by the school boards, etc.

Section 7 gives jurisdiction to justices of the peace and police magistrates.

Section 8 defines what is a "truant child," and provides for forcing it into educational institutions.

"Section 9. No child under thirteen years of age shall be employed or allowed to work by any person, company, firm, or corporation at labor or service in any shop, factory, mine, store, place of manufacture, business, or amusement, except as hereinafter provided."

Sections 10, 11, 12, and 13 provide for the execution and proper administration of section 9.

Such is the law. Its supporters argue that it is purely American in its tendencies; that, English being the language of the country, every child should be compelled to acquire a knowledge of it before he comes to the age of fourteen; that it will tend to do away with the clannishness of our foreign element and Americanize our foreigners. They point to the fact that, in this the metropolis of the State, the proceedings of the Common Council and Board of Supervisors, and the legal notices, have to be published both in German and in English. They deny that the law is in any way aimed against the Germans or against the German language, and call attention to the fact that the Turners have declared in favor of the act.

It is impossible within the limits of this communication to detail the numerous arguments urged against the law. It is said that the power given to the boards of education is too autocratic, that the fines are onerous in the extreme, that the provision confining the education of the children to the district wherein they reside is restrictive and unjust, etc., etc. The opponents of the law do not object to compulsory education—indeed, we have had compulsory education in this State since 1879; but they object to being compelled to educate their children in a certain *way*. The opposition to this law may be summarized as follows:

(1.) The Roman Catholic Church objects to it as the entering wedge against, and a covert attack upon, their parochial-school system, which is supported by voluntary contribution. They have submitted to the mill tax for general education, they support the public schools, they support their own parochial schools too, wherein they allege that English is taught fully within the requirements of the law. They protest against their parochial schools being placed under the supervision of the State. They claim that it interferes with the rights of the parent.

(2.) The Lutherans object to the law because it will destroy many of their parochial schools, wherein lack of funds makes it impossible to keep a corps of English teachers, and because it transfers to the State the rights and duties of the parent. The Lutheran does not object to the compulsory teaching of reading and writing in English, but he does to arithmetic and history, on the ground that it is unnecessary, because the struggle of the German parent is to keep the child to a knowledge of his mother tongue, and he acquires English anyway.

(3.) The religious press, for obvious reasons, support their parochial schools.

The underlying feeling through all this is that the law is paternal legislation, undemocratic and unrepublican. And this last objection is not confined to dogmatic lines, but it is the main objection which tends to unite the foreign-born element against the law.

In the meantime an immense amount of "trimming" is being done. The State press is filled with personal opinions on the merits or demerits of the law. The press itself is badly at loggerheads. The *Sentinel* has steadfastly supported the Governor and the law; the *Evening Wisconsin*, the leading Republican evening paper, is equally opposed to the law, and makes it the basis of a vigorous attack upon Gov. Hoard. *Der Herold*, the most important non-sectarian German Republican daily in the State, while professing not to oppose the principles of the measure, demands amendments, and condemns the Governor for having approved it. The *Germania* and the *Seebote*, respectively the organs of the Lutherans and the Catholics, oppose the law for the reasons before mentioned. Small-bore politicians are trying to trim their sails to the rapidly shifting winds, hoping to derive some personal advantage out of the general disturbance.

The Republicans may be able to patch up a peace before the general elections in the fall, but, at the present writing, political graves are yawning on every side, and were a general election held to-day, Wisconsin would be a "doubtful" State of the most approved uncertainty.

BRADLEY G. SCHLEY.

MILWAUKEE, March 15, 1890.

INSTRUCTION IN GERMAN AND IN AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: From Prof. Francke's letter to the *Nation* of February 13, one not acquainted with the facts would get some mistaken ideas as to the matter treated of. Though the writer takes pains to designate work done in German universities as "general" and "special," and that done in American universities as "elementary" and "advanced," the impression made throughout is that our elementary corresponds to their general, and our advanced to their special. Of course such an idea is not to be entertained. The *ordentlicher* professor is responsible for his department, and is anxious that the fundamental and most important subjects in his branch be regularly taught. Under the German system, or lack of system, the professor in charge of a department cannot direct that any of this work be done by the *ausserordentlicher* professor or by a *Privatdocent*, and consequently he must do it himself. Still, in most cases he prefers to do so, for he desires to give the stamp to the instruction of the institution he represents. The courses we have in mind are encyclopædic rather than compendious, occupying four or five hours a week, and are by no means to be confounded with elementary work.

Still, though a professor cannot tell a *Privatdocent* what to teach, he can, practically, tell him what not to. It is common in this country to picture the bright young German *Privatdocent* as lecturing on the same subject as the professor, and drawing a full house, to the great discomfiture of his antiquated superior. Nothing could be more false. A *Privatdocent* knows well enough that it would be very poor policy on his part to openly set up a rivalry with the professor. He almost always carefully avoids the courses the latter is in the habit of reading, and is consequently, for the most part, restricted to special courses. If he does lecture on the professor's favorite subjects, he takes pains to do so some other semester. Years ago a now famous German professor was *Privatdocent* at one of the larger universities, and had announced a course of lectures for the following semester. But before the semester opened, a new *ausserordentlicher* professor was appointed, who wished to make his début with a course on the same subject. At his request the *ordentlicher* professor asked the *Privatdocent* not to lecture on that subject. As the latter had already made his announcement, he declined to yield to the request, and a struggle ensued, which ultimately resulted in his favor; but his persistence brought upon him the lasting hostility of not only the *ordentlicher* and the *ausserordentliche* professors, but also the whole "school" to which they belong—a hostility that makes itself felt whenever his name is proposed for a better position than the one he now holds.

Moreover, it is by no means generally true that the full professor does comparatively little special work, and that what there is of elementary work is mostly done by him. There are at least three considerations that invalidate Prof. Francke's calculations.

In the first place, the most truly special work is done in the seminary; a course of lectures on some division of a subject surely cannot be supposed "to train investigators" in anything like the way a course of work in a seminary does. With what feelings would Prof. Zupitza at Berlin look upon the most special of all special work, that done semester after semester in his English seminary, should he be informed that "it is universally felt . . . that the *Privatdocenten* . . . are best fitted to reach out into new fields and to train investigators"! But Prof. Francke does not take the work done in seminaries into account at all; he says, "As every university teacher without exception conducts a seminar, or a course corresponding to it, this element also was omitted from the comparison." This is about as logical as it would be to reason as follows: "I want to find out

what is the proportion between the cultivated land on A's farm and that on B's. A has less acres in corn than B, but they both have sown the same number of acres of wheat. As the wheat is equal in both, we may neglect that, and the proportion of A's corn to B's corn will be the proportion of A's cultivated land to B's cultivated land."

Secondly, to "select the two largest German universities as specimens to illustrate what is a general tendency of German university education," is surely a strange proceeding. Would one select London and New York as specimens to illustrate what is a general tendency of life in cities large and small? To say nothing of other considerations, the number of *Privatdocenten* that crowd these universities,* and are forced, in order to get auditors, to offer something novel or a specialty not offered by another—this alone is sufficient to make figures obtained there not true of the average university. It is not my intention to attempt such a classification of work done at other universities as Prof. Francke has of that at Berlin and Munich; but I would give as a fairer sample the work done in the German department at Göttingen during the semester I spent there some years ago.

Prof. ordinarius Müller:
(1.) Hist. Gram. der deutschen Sprache, fünf Stunden.
(2.) Seminar: Hartmanns "Iwein."

Prof. ordinarius Heyne:
(1.) Deutsche Wortbildungslehre, drei Stunden.
(2.) Lessing und seine Zeit, zwei Stunden.
(3.) Seminar: "Kunst Küstner" (an attempt to establish the origin of the text).

Prof. extraordinarius Goedeke:
Über Goethes Leben und Schriften, eine Stunde.

Prof. extraordinarius Bechtel:
Über althochdeutsche Dialekte, eine Stunde.

Privatdocent Roethe:
(1.) Gesch. der deut. Lit. (1200–1500), drei Stunden.
(2.) Erklärung Goethischer Gedichte, eine Stunde.
(3.) Deutsche Übungen für Anfänger (gotisch und althochdeutsch), zwei Stunden.

Here we have general work, special work, and elementary work. Whether Prof. Francke would classify it as I should, I do not know. Only two of the courses seem to me to be "general": the five-hour course in Germanic grammar by Prof. Müller, and Privatdocent Roethe's three-hour course, treating of the first three centuries of German literature (the course was carried down to recent times in the following semesters). The other courses offered by the professors I should class as special. All the elementary work done was done by the *Privatdocent*.

Thirdly, Prof. Francke seems to forget that it is not the *Privatdocent* that corresponds to our instructor, but the *Lector* (and in some scientific work the *Assistent*). Perhaps the oversight was due to the fact that the name and work of the *Lector* are not always published in the catalogue, which is usually the case when the University does not appoint the *Lector* directly, but through the professor. As the Gymnasium course is longer than that of our high schools, there is less elementary work done in the University, and, therefore, the sphere of the *Lector* is limited, and sometimes (as in the case of instruction in the mother tongue) wanting. But the *Lector* is engaged at a salary, as is the American instructor, and does all the elementary work that somebody else does not care to do—and so does the American instructor. That the latter may, in time, rise to a professorship, while a German *Lector* seldom does, is rather an advantage inherent in the American position.

But the burden of Prof. Francke's letter seems to be the desirability of the introduction of the *Privatdocent* system into our universities. If this means the granting to young men of ability who can live without a salary the privilege of lecturing or conducting other courses, and thus an opportunity to show their fitness to occupy a higher position, and does not mean that this is to be the only way open to aspirants (for I need hardly mention that most German *Privatdocenten* nearly starve before they get a professorship or throw the thing up), I do not see that any one can find fault with it; indeed, much would, without question, be gained, and a start of the kind seems to have been made at Clark University. But if it practically means that instructors engaged at a salary are to conduct most of the courses in special or advanced work, not even "encumbered with conducting examinations," while the bulk of the elementary work is to be assigned to the professors, as "through wider experience and practical efficiency best adapted to represent the foundations and the system of their science in their accepted form," why, we should all want to stay instructors.

GEORGE HEMPL.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, March 4, 1890.

* I have by me only the *Universitätskalender* for the winter of '85–'86. According to this, there were in active service in the "Philosophische Fakultät" 37 *ordentliche* professors at Berlin, 28 at Munich, 17 at Jena, and 32 at Göttingen; 44 *Privatdocenten* at Berlin, 30 at Munich, 9 at Jena, 15 at Göttingen. The per cent. of *Privatdocenten* to *ordentliche* professors was thus at Berlin 118, at Munich 107, while at Jena only 52 and at Göttingen 46. As the universities at Berlin and Munich have since grown very rapidly the proportion is now even greater.

WHEAT-RAISING IN NEW ENGLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Familiar, long ago, as a New England boy, with rye bread, I agree with Chisholm that "in a large part of that region, wheaten bread did not early come into general use." I hold that your reviewer of Chisholm (No. 1286) would not have controverted Chisholm's statement if he had not himself forgotten a notable passage in Dwight's 'Travels'—the best description of New England some ten decades ago. In 1796 Dr. Dwight made a journey on horseback from New Haven to Maine. His ride was leisurely, and his notes, in their exactitude, often recall the incomparable Samuel Pepys. He declares that "the country lying eastward of a line which may be fixed about thirty miles east of Connecticut River, is unfavorable to the production of wheat. The cause," he says, "I have in vain attempted to investigate." He talks about several assigned causes, in which he has no faith, as soil, ocean, fertilizers, and the barberry bush, and adds, "Whatever may be the cause, the effect is certain."

"A traveller will scarcely see a field of wheat in this tract during a journey of one hundred miles. The general opinion of the farmers is that wheat cannot here be cultivated with success. . . . In consequence of this fact, the bread generally used in this region is made of rye. Rye bread is used in considerable quantities on Connecticut River [that is, in a district where wheat would grow]. A stranger can hardly be persuaded that this bread is preferred by the inhabitants who have been used to it to the best wheaten loaf" ('Travels,' i., p. 376.)

It was those who did not prefer it who migrated to the Connecticut valley and filled its intervales with wheat fields, and so westward to the Connecticut Reserve, raising crops there to fill the boats on the Erie Canal. Their motto was that of Gen. Sherman's Old Shady, "We're going up North, or out West, where they eat *white bread* and get a dollar a day."

B.

[We are grateful to our correspondent for calling our attention to this interesting passage in Dwight's 'Travels,' but we doubt whether it wholly supports the idea which Mr. Chisholm's words would convey to the average reader. All that can be certainly deduced from Dr. Dwight's testimony is that in 1796 rye bread was generally used in the eastern half of Massachusetts. If we turn back to p. 373, we see that his remarks on the pages immediately following are a general comment on Worcester County. In the paragraph following that quoted by our correspondent, he says: "The white bread served up at the tables in this county, and in the country further east, particularly in the inns, is made in the form of large biscuits, dry and hard, but agreeable to the taste." Dr. Dwight also tells us he has seen rye bread on the most richly spread tables in Boston, "preferred both by the host and the guests to the finest white bread."

We will note, very briefly, some of Dr. Dwight's other statements on wheat-growing. Vol. i, p. 48, wheat grows well west of the White Mountains, "and in very many places eastward of that limit"; p. 108, the average crop of wheat in Connecticut, fifteen bushels to the acre; p. 195, wheat flour in New Haven market $6 to $9 a barrel in 1810, lower in 1820; vol. ii, p. 110, northern New Hampshire—the land yields wheat and other grains in abundance; "wheat yields ordinarily from twenty to thirty bushels an acre." The average yield of wheat over the whole country is to-day about twelve and a-half bushels per acre. On p. 340 is a discussion "why the lands in New England which formerly yielded wheat surely and plentifully," now suffer from the blast. On p. 342 he says: "All the lands in this country which were not too wet, originally yielded wheat easily, surely, and, so far as they were rich, abundantly." "This country" would seem to mean New England, from the context.

As regards eastern Massachusetts, in vol. iii., p. 75, we find that in Sandwich wheat "not uncommonly yields well"; in vol. iv., p. 159, Dr. Dwight notes that for a hundred years it has been a popular belief that wheat could not come to perfection in eastern Massachusetts; but Mr. Bartlett of Methuen (Essex County) deserved the credit of having shown that "this gray-haired prejudice" was "without foundation." The "Father of American Geography," in his descriptions of the different New England States (Morse's Geography, *passim*), would lead one to suppose that, with the exception of eastern Massachusetts, New England could easily grow enough wheat for the home demand. The export of wheat flour from Boston would seem to indicate that some of the consumption of rye must have been for some other reason than the lack of wheat flour.

If we are correct in interpreting the pas-

sages our correspondent quotes from Dr. Dwight as applying primarily to Worcester County, it is obvious that the Erie Canal could have afforded little relief to the situation before the completion of either the Boston and Worcester Railroad in 1835, or of the Western Railroad (B. & A.) in 1841. Upon further reflection, we incline to attribute the increased use of wheat in New England rather to general economic improvement than to any specific cause like the Erie Canal, for the cultivation of Western lands and the modern transportation system have reduced the price of corn and rye far more than of wheat. In 1810 a barrel of flour cost about the same as eight bushels of corn or rye, while to-day a barrel of flour costs about the same as fifteen bushels of corn and twelve bushels of rye.—Ed. Nation.]

THE FARM VILLA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have been much attracted by your article suggesting to city people buying up deserted farms for vacation residences. I see, however, many reasons which will prevent any rush of applications for them. First, there is but little taste among our young people for a quiet life. They demand excitement; they like to take their country pleasures in company with many of their mates. A summer without tennis parties, riding parties, boating parties, would be no fun at all. Many of them do not have very lively winters. They look forward to the life in summer hotels to make up for it. In reading stories of English country life among the gentry who do not go to London, I fancy almost every American girl feels that such a slow, uneventful existence would be impossible to her. But if mothers with young families would take their children year by year to these quiet places, no doubt a taste for simple country pleasures and fine scenery might be developed.

Then comes in another set of difficulties. Very few husbands and fathers can leave their business to stay with their families. A young mother in an isolated farm-house, without her husband, is in a very lonely position, not to speak of the real danger from tramps, which would haunt her nights and banish sleep. The difficulty of getting servants to stay in such places would prevent her filling her house with friends, even should her purse allow such hospitality (and we are considering the needs of those who must find an inexpensive way of taking a vacation). And so, though when I first read your article I felt I must immediately begin to save up the $500 for that farm under Chicorua, further reflection has dampened my ardor.

But, as I write, a new idea flashes into my mind. Why could not two families of friends combine in one farm-house, or two neighboring farms, and thus find society and mutual protection, in addition to the other charms which you put forward so attractively?

Hausmutter.

Salem, Mass., March 8, 1890.

THE SPOILSMAN AND HIS PICTURE GALLERY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a recent letter from Washington, the correspondent of the Boston *Herald* (March 10) endeavors to show that a great injustice is done to some of our high officials by political attacks and caricatures. He gives instances of strangers to the capital who had conceived that certain statesmen were little better than demons with forked tails, but who have returned from a visit thither full of admiration and wonder at the virtues and attractions of the accused. Then he draws two or three charming pictures of the "homes" of politicians. We learn that one Cabinet officer is a highly moral, cultivated, and refined man, with taste in art, and that his first assistant has a pleasant domestic circle and a fine picture gallery. It is called little less than an outrage that such persons should be the butt of political satire and contumely.

The correspondent does not reflect that the more virtuous and refined a man may be, so much the more shameful to him are acts which might be expected from immorality of character or unenlightened Philistinism. What consolation is it to the people that their officials can appreciate masterpieces of Corot, though not the worth of a long-tried and honest public servant? "The fact of their possession alone (*sic*) showed the nature of their owner," says the correspondent. What must be thought of him who loves truth in art, but clings to a policy exactly opposed to promises made before election to office? What of him whose domestic life is pure and undefiled, but whose public acts are stained with offences against political morality? Nothing for such an one but to cry, like the weakling that he is,

"Video meliora proboque:
Deteriora sequor."

Nothing but a blunted moral sense or the ingenuity of perversity can discover in fine personal qualities excuse for public wrong-doing.

M. H. M.

Cambridge, March 12.

MR. BISHOP'S SPANISH ARTICLE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I was not at all surprised to hear that Spanish women wrote, but I am surprised that your paragrapher should have read my article carelessly before commenting upon it. (The article is that on "Literary Madrid" in the February *Scribner's*, mentioned in the *Nation* of February 6.) I referred to the gallant saying that Spanish women do not write nor read many books, because they are satisfied with their influence in inspiring them. I have told the story before in the *Nation*, and it was a Spaniard who said it. Thereupon, I said, a few lines later, that Emilia Pardo Bazán was *one* Spanish woman at least who wrote, and that exceedingly well, meaning the emphasis to be got by connection with the former statement. I do not think this slight attempt at a jocose turn ought to be so misleading as to make it appear that I supposed there was absolutely only one Spanish woman in existence who wrote.

I am further taken to task for mentioning as "last" works two that were in actual fact the last at the time of my visit to Madrid, *i. e.*, in the spring of 1889. Naturally enough there has been opportunity for others to appear between that time and the moment of your critic's sending his "copy" to the press. As to Galdós's "first" book, I should have done better to say that 'Doña Perfecta' was his first pronounced and high-grade success, or, perhaps, the first of the novels proper, for a pronounced distinction is made between the novels and the 'Episodios Nacionales,' and the publishers in their list put 'La Fontana de Oro,' dealing with the events between 1820 and 1823, in a department by itself, much nearer the latter than the former.

And now, as to the matter of putting words together, it seems as if your paragrapher had been at some pains to frame his in such a way as to let it be implied that I had derived some important advantage of information about Galdós from the little Spanish pamphlet in the 'Celebridades Contemporáneas' series, instead of getting it from him personally. I do not care very much about this, but it gives me the opportunity to add, if you are willing, still another curious trait of Galdós, in virtue of which trait it will be seen, too, that it would have been absolutely impossible to get information about him from the pamphlet in question. Indeed, this little brochure is worthy of a place in a museum, as probably containing less on its subject, in proportion to its size, than any similar publication ever put forth. I happened upon it, I think, in the railway station just as I was leaving Madrid.

Its author, Leopoldo Alas, "Clarin," prides himself upon being one of those journalists who most enjoy Galdós's intimacy and confidence out of all Spain. This he says himself. "But what veritable labors it cost me," he exclaims, "to draw out of him the bare admission that he was born at Las Palmas." It seems that it is one of the most marked peculiarities of Benito Pérez Galdós not to want to tell anything about himself.

"He has a history," says Clarin, "yes, he has one, but he keeps it under lock and key. Having set out to prepare this series of biographical notices," he goes on, "and anxious to make the first one as taking as possible, I availed myself of my friendship with Galdós, and begged of him the data necessary for his case. After a long and most amiable correspondence, it appeared that he did not know in any determinate way what that kind of data was, or what was demanded of him. In any case, as the upshot of it all, it was duly admitted and agreed that he was, in fact, born at Las Palmas. If I exaggerate a little, it is very little indeed, as the reader who has curiosity enough will see in the end."

This, in truth—and I think I begin to admire the model for its refreshing rarity—is all that the reader does find in the whole closely printed thirty-nine pages.

To this same spirit I fear it was due that Galdós did not send his photograph over to America, as I had every reason to believe he would do, and that the photo-lithographed portrait and facsimile page from the 'Celebridades Contemporáneas' came to be used at the last moment as illustrations. Galdós knew of the possible use of that portrait, in default of one more satisfactory to himself.

William Henry Bishop.

Villefranche, Alpes Maritimes, Feb. 23, 1890.

PROTESTANTISM AND LOTTERIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The New York *Times* of March 10, in an editorial on the establishment of a State lottery in North Dakota, says:

"The public sentiment about lotteries is very largely a matter of geography, or, at least, of race. In Protestant and Anglo-Saxon countries lotteries are looked upon as devices of Satan."

Now, Prussia is a Protestant country, yet in all its principal cities a handsome office on the ground floor of an important street bears across its plate-glass windows, in letters to attract the passer-by, "Royal Lottery." The institution is not "dedicated by permission" to royalty, but is under Government management. The old Emperor William is said to have been opposed to its continuance, yet he

nevertheless found its abolishment not advisable.

The newspapers publish advertisements of various private lotteries for every conceivable object, such as repairing a cathedral, etc., and benevolent ladies organize a lottery among their friends as they here get up a concert. In German novels a poor but worthy man is often started on an upward career by winning a lottery prize. While in Germany, I came across a magazine article which, urging the wisdom of keeping a systematic account of the family outlay ranged in appropriate columns, included under its headings of personal expenses lottery tickets; and although the author wrote in the interests of economy, he said not a word about eliminating that column.

An old gentleman asked if we had lotteries in America, and I thought I was to be taunted with the Louisiana one, but found myself mistaken. "Ah, only one! We manage things much better in this country. Here, Government establishes a lottery in all the towns, thus giving every poor man a chance to grow rich"; and a look of serene superiority appeared on the faces of my German convives. I never found it possible to make my German acquaintances understand the Anglo-Saxon feeling towards lotteries, and if the German element preponderates in the population of Dakota, I should think the passage of the obnoxious bill highly probable. There would be nothing incongruous in the existence of a lottery in a State whose capital is Bismarck. J. C. N.

CINCINNATI.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS have in press 'The Poetry of the Anti-Jacobin,' edited by Charles Edmunds, with Gillray's designs—a limited edition; 'The Trials of a Country Parson,' by Augustus Jessopp; 'The Sayings of Poor Richard,' being Franklin's prefaces, proverbs, and poems extracted from his almanac (1733 1758), by Paul Leicester Ford; 'American Farms, their Condition and Future,' by J. R. Elliott; 'The Story of Russia,' by W. R. Morfill, and 'The Story of the Jews under Rome,' by W. Douglas Morrison, in the "Story of the Nations" series. They also announce a new series, edited by Evelyn Abbott, to be called "Heroes of the Nations," dealing with "historical characters about whom have gathered national traditions, and who have been accepted as types of the several national ideas," as Nelson, Gustavus Adolphus, Pericles, etc.

John Wiley & Sons have in preparation a 'Handbook of Problems in Direct Fire,' by Capt. James M. Ingalls, First United States Artillery; and 'Constructive Steam Engineering,' by Prof. Jay M. Whitham.

Henry Holt & Co. will shortly publish an 'Introduction to Systematic Botany,' by Prof. Charles E. Bessey of the University of Nebraska; and 'The Idle Thoughts of an Idle Fellow,' by Jerome K. Jerome.

'The Future of Science,' by Ernest Renan, will be produced in English in May by Roberts Bros., Boston.

The third volume of the 'Sketches of War History,' issued under the auspices of the Loyal Legion of the United States (Ohio Commandery), is about to appear, with the imprint of Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati. Twenty-two papers are enumerated, mostly on operations in the Southwestern field, but there are also papers on the critical engagements of the Army of the Potomac, and diplomacy and the navy are not neglected.

We have received from Rand, McNally & Co., Chicago, a complete English version of the 'Journal of Marie Bashkirtseff,' in which passages omitted or condensed in other translations have been restored. The only effect is to give the reader more of the wearisome repetition of this selfish victim of her own vanity, and to draw out more tediously a disagreeable tale.

The issue of the "Knickerbocker Nuggets" which is entitled 'The Garden' (G. P. Putnam's Sons), gathers those pieces upon the subject, by Bacon, Temple, Addison, Pope, Goldsmith, Walpole, and others, which have become classical, and makes a brief and delightful history of the English taste in gardening. An introduction, admirably done, is furnished by Mr. Walter Howe, and passages from the two Plinys agreeably open the volume. The conception of the work was happy, and the result is a charming book of out-of-the-way literature very welcome to a refined taste.

The extent to which Spenser was much more than a story-teller is illustrated by a little volume of 'Tales from Spenser' (Macmillan), on the well-known model of such popularization of the narrative element in literature. Only a comparatively small portion of his poetical fables is dealt with, and the result is as excellent as the nature of the case permits; but the interest is slight, the adventures seem very shadowy, and perhaps the best use the book can be put to is to point the moral of how little, after all, Spenser owed to his poetical "machinery."

Mr. William Davenport Adams, encouraged by the reception of his 'By-Ways in Bookland,' publishes a second series of these slight essays under the title of 'Rambles in Bookland' (A. C. Armstrong & Son), of the same agreeable but trifling quality. The topics are such as allow of liberal quotation and abundant literary anecdote, but are not so fresh or varied as in the previous volume. The papers, however, are meant only to while away a moment of idleness, and they attain their unambitious end with commendable lightness of touch.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have brought out a new edition (the third) of Prof. R. T. Ely's 'Labor Movement in America.' It is unchanged, except for an appendix on the relations of the temperance agitation to the labor movement, a very characteristic piece of writing. "I think," he says, "that absolutely temperate strikers, fleeing all associations with saloons, opening every meeting of any sort with prayer, and holding a prayer-meeting, or some kind of religious service, every day, would inspire an unscrupulous individual or corporate employer with a new terror."

A stout volume, the report of the Commission on Industrial Education made to the Legislature of Pennsylvania, comes to us from Harrisburg. As a repository of facts bearing on the subject it appears deserving of attention, and a large edition has been ordered by the Legislature. Very little has been done as yet by the States to foster industrial education. The Commission cite statutes only of Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania.

The Channing Club of Boston, of which the Secretary is Mr. George Peirce, No. 70 Water Street, has a Committee which reports annually upon the books for boys published during the year. Such as it approves it makes a classified and descriptive list of, and that for 1888 is now before us, and is procurable of the Secretary for a postage stamp. Every title has a brief comment attached. We remark that most of them are as well fitted for girls as for boys, and that not a few were composed and issued with a view to adult reading—for example, Prof. Masson's 'Story of Mediæval France,' and Tolstoi's 'The Long Exile.'

We are glad to see a second edition, enlarged, of Prof. B. G. Wilder's wholesome 'Health Notes for Students,' a volume for the side-pocket (G. P. Putnam's Sons). Among the "Aphorisms" at the beginning, we find this from Prof. Goldwin Smith, which has a cis-Atlantic validity: "The mania for athletics in England seemed to me to have perverted, so far as a good many of the students were concerned, the objects of the University, set up a totally false standard of excellence, and almost misdirected the aim of life."

A translation of the Swiss Constitution, by Prof. Albert B. Hart of Harvard College, has been added by D. C. Heath & Co. to their "Old South Leaflets." Other European constitutions will follow, and some representative American, like that of Ohio, which has already been printed in the above series.

In a rather untidy pamphlet, with rough and quite needless sketches by M. Gorguet, a French musician who calls himself "Benedictus" has collected the strange native airs performed in Paris during the Exhibition of last summer. Among the exotic tunes written out in 'Les Musiques Bizarres à l'Exposition' (Paris: Hartmann; New York: F. W. Christern), are airs of Javanese, Japanese, Algerian, Annamite, Persian, and Rumanian origin. There are a dozen in all, of which perhaps the most curious is the famous "Danse du Ventre."

M. Auguste Vitu continues the steady collection of his theatrical criticisms from the *Figaro*, and the latest volume of 'Les Mille et Une Nuits au Théâtre' is the seventh (Paris: Ollendorff; New York: F. W. Christern). It extends from January, 1879, to March, 1880, and the most important play criticised is "Daniel Rochat." There is an interesting and learned excursus about the origin of "Ruy Blas"; M. Vitu does not seem to have discovered the likeness of the fundamental situation of Hugo's play to that on which the "Lady of Lyons" is based. A glance through his pages shows that the present sterility of the French drama had begun ten years ago: revivals and dramatizations of novels were almost as frequent then as now.

M. Jules Claretie, a dramatist himself, and now the director of the Comédie-Française, contributes a pleasant preface to a little collection of puppet-plays, 'Le Guignol des Champs-Élysées,' by MM. Adolphe Tavernier and Arsène Alexandre (Paris: Delagrave; New York: F. W. Christern). The ten tiny dramas herein contained are adapted for performance by puppets like those familiar to us in Punch-and-Judy shows and animated by the human thumb and fingers—a form of puppet capable of far more humorous acting than the marionette manipulated by wires from above. The French Punch-and-Judy show is not confined to one monotonous drama; it has a varied repertory, sometimes calling for two operators, that four figures may appear at once. The plays in the present volume are a little literary and less pantomimic than those actually acted in the best of the *guignols* in the Champs-Élysées; but they may be recommended to the American juvenile amateur. The illustrations have one fatal defect: they are illustrations of the plot as literature; they are not illustrations of puppets in a puppet-show, as were the unequalled sketches in which George Cruikshank once explained the British Punch-and-Judy.

The third volume of the *Forschungen zur Deutschen Landes- und Volkskunde*, edited by Prof. Dr. A. Kirchhoff of Halle, is lately issued. It contains essays by Borggreve, on the dis-

tribution and value of the more important trees of Germany; by Jäschke, on the Meissnerland between the lowlands of the Werra and the Fulda; by Burgkhardt, on the Erzgebirge in their anthropological relations; by Bezzenberger, on the Kurish lowland and its inhabitants; and by Krones, on the German settlements in the Eastern Alps. The essays are all of serious and thorough character, but are not well provided with maps, diagrams, and views. Dr. Kirchhoff is also editor and in part author of *Länderkunde des Erdtheils Europa*, in which several competent geographers coöperate with him. Several finely illustrated parts have appeared. The work appeals to a highly intelligent circle of readers.

Prof. Georg Gizycki of the University of Berlin has translated, with the author's permission and revision, five ethical discourses by William M. Salter: 'Moralische Reden' (Leipzig: W. Friedrich).

A new sixteen-page periodical will be launched directly in Boston, by Benjamin R. Tucker, called *Five Stories a Week*. The stories will be short and from writers of all countries.

Garden and Forest for March 12 contains a notable bibliography of landscape-gardening in English, French, German, and Italian, by Henry Sargent Codman of Brookline, Mass. It has been prepared with the aid of the library of the British Museum, the National Library in Paris, and of other public and private libraries, and fills nearly five pages of *Garden and Forest*. It begins with Bacon's essay "Of Gardens," 1625. The second work is French, 1638. Milton's 'Paradise Lost,' Book iv., 1667, stands fourth on the list. Walpole has several entries. Rousseau contributes from the 'Nouvelle Héloïse.' Loudon cuts a great figure; Downing likewise, from 1841 on. Other American names than the latter pioneer's are H. W. S. Cleveland, Wilson Flagg, F. L. Olmsted, R. M. Copeland, Charles Follen (the younger), Donald G. Mitchell, etc. The list merits separate publication, and perhaps will get it after the present issue of it has served its purpose as a proof-sheet.

From last year's *American Field* Dr. R. W. Shufeldt has reprinted in a brochure a series of popular articles, 'Remarks upon Extinct Mammals,' with illustrations of the skeleton and some restorations from the author's own pencil. They make a convenient grouping.

Profs. W. B. Scott and Henry F. Osborn of Princeton have reprinted from the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society their memoir, 'The Mammalia of the Uinta Formation,' descriptive principally of a collection made by the Princeton Scientific Expedition of 1886 in the Bad Lands of the White River, northeastern Utah. Prof. Scott leads with an exhibition of the geological and faunal relations of the Uinta Eocene formation, in comparison with the Bridger and White River basins particularly. Prof. Osborn reports utter confusion in the nomenclature, both foreign and American, of the Eocene Perissodactyla, which include the interesting series of the many-toed horses. Five full-page lithographic plates accompany the text.

Mr. A. F. Bandelier has been publishing in the New York *Belletristisches Journal* since the new year a serial story, "Die Kö-Sha-Re," illustrative of the life of the Pueblo Indians of New Mexico. The rôle of novelist is somewhat new for this scholar, but it cannot be said that he is going beyond his last. In fact, no one is so competent as he to attempt this portrayal. The *Journal* has just entered its thirty-ninth volume, under the editorship of Dr. Julius Goebel. Its range is wide, from politics to music, literature, and current events. The form of the paper is inconveniently large, judged by American standards, and in the finer type the Gothic letter becomes sufficiently trying.

Anglia, entering upon its thirteenth volume, loses the editorship of Prof. Wülker, leaving Dr. Ewald Flügel in sole charge. To the quarterly issue it is intended to add a monthly critical paper having special reference to American literature, and the first number will appear about April 1. This review department should not be overlooked by American publishers whom *Anglia* is capable of serving. The magazine is issued at Leipzig.

Armenia is the subject of a valuable paper in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for March, by Col. M. S. Bell. In the course of an account of a journey through that country he points out the most available railway routes by which it may eventually be connected with the Mediterranean and Black Sea. His observations also led him to believe that Russia, which was then completing military roads from the Caucasus to the Turkish frontier, could easily occupy Armenia in three weeks, and that her ultimate approach to Constantinople may not impossibly be from this direction. The Turkish army which was being collected to oppose this advance, he characterizes as "little better than a military mob." He adds, in words confirming somewhat similar impressions of Mr. Curzon in Khorassan, that the humanity shown by Russia to her prisoners of war has made a lasting impression upon the Turkish soldiers, many of whom, in consequence, "expressed themselves as ready to be made prisoners of war rather than to fight" under their present conditions. While censuring the British indifference to the sufferings of the Armenians, notwithstanding the treaty obligations of the Government to see that certain reforms were carried out, he pays the highest tribute of praise to the American missionaries, who, by their educational and religious work and by their "exemplary and honorable lives, [are] introducing the elements of a higher civilization among both Turks and Armenians." Mr. J. Abercromby describes the once famous "Wall of Derbend," which stretches from the Caspian westward some twenty-five miles. Tradition attributes its construction to Alexander the Great, and says that it formerly extended to the Black Sea. The best authorities, however, believe it to have been built in the sixth century by Khosroes I., a contemporary of Justinian, "with the object of checking the incursions into Persian territory of the Khazars from the north."

— A writer in the March *Macmillan's* discusses the matter of the choice of titles for novels with a good deal of interesting literary detail. Authors differ very much in this faculty of naming their offspring, though the fortune of a book is often materially affected by their happiness in the selection. Some choose the title first, as Gautier, who announced 'Le Capitaine Fracasse' thirty years before composing the story; Dickens, too, was ill at ease and could not go on smoothly with his tale until the title was ready, though he sometimes changed it at the end. On the other hand, readers of Wilkie Collins will remember how hard he strove for the title of 'The Woman in White' after the novel was completed. Historically the hero first gave the name, as in 'Tom Jones'; then sprang up the name of the locality, as in 'The Castle of Otranto' and its numerous brood, down to the most successful of such titles, Victor Hugo's 'Notre Dame.' Historical novels of the best sort, the writer observes, do not take names from the period or the great personages: we find rather 'Quentin Durward' and 'The Three Musketeers' as typical successes in this department. 'Kenilworth' was Constable's title, which is less good than 'Cumnor Hall,' but to Constable we owe 'Rob Roy' and 'Redgauntlet,' two of the best of Scott's always happy names. The proverb form, 'Red as a Rose Is She,' and the interrogative form, 'What Will He Do with It?' are very properly set down as poor, being unsatisfactory and plainly sensational. The best title is that which does not disclose the story or reveal its leading character or topic, but suggests a real invention; among the most excellent, for example, are 'The Scarlet Letter' and 'Wuthering Heights.' In plays a different rule would seem to hold, possibly because Shakspere's greatest plays are called by the hero's name. Titles for long poems are, perhaps, the most difficult of all, and the failure of modern epics has been foreshadowed by the dismal failure of their names. 'The Idylls of the King' is good, but it is an evasion of a title, in fact.

—A recent instance of library cataloguing is worthy of notice from several points of view. This is the 'Alphabetic Catalogue of the English books in the Circulating Department of the Cleveland (Ohio) Public Library,' a quarto of some 1,400 pages. A less cumbersome title for the work might have been preferred, certainly, as a matter of taste, yet an examination of the limitations observed in its construction vindicates its truthfulness. The successive developments in library administration and coöperation from year to year are not without their influence upon the prevailing types of library catalogues. Thus the great catalogues of Mr. Cutter and Mr. Noyes, begun as they were before the completion of Poole's Index, and giving exceptional space to analyzing the contents of volumes of essays, periodicals, etc., are of extraordinary service. Yet no catalogue now would index the contents of periodicals at so great length, and thus duplicate the work of Poole's Index. The size, moreover, of a library has some important bearing on the type of catalogue to be chosen, as have also the character and comparative rarity or commonness of the books composing it. Taking all the conditions into account, Mr. Brett, in deciding on the details of a catalogue for this library of 58,000 volumes (about 54,000 when the printing was begun), appears to have chosen wisely. A catalogue of the Reference Department had already been made, in 1883, on the alphabetico-classed plan of the Brooklyn Library. In this one, however, the dictionary catalogue is adopted as the type (author, title, and subject in one alphabet); the classification is that of the Dewey system; and the catalogue entries are made on the basis of Cutter's Rules. Several attempts have been made within the past few years to fix upon a standard size of page for a library catalogue. This is a question which, if any proper proportion be observed, holds a very intimate relation to the other question of the size of the library and the consequent number of pages required. Mr. Brett's page is undeniably large, though certainly not too large if the thickness of the book be considered; yet we can but think that he would have modified his plan to advantage, particularly when the future policy of the library as to catalogues is considered, if he had been willing to forego the entry of contents of books in so many instances. No one can doubt the serviceableness of this kind of information; and yet the question of unnecessary duplication has become a practical one here, as in the

case of the periodicals included in Poole's Index. It is possible, of course, to discriminate in this matter. Thus, it is hardly worth while, in each one of the many library catalogues all over the country, of which this may properly be taken as a type, to devote more than two columns to minutely enumerating the contents of Daniel Webster's works, when each library may number among its works of reference the Brooklyn Catalogue, which has done this at length. On the other hand, the similar analysis made in the case of Tolstoi's works serves a really useful purpose, since not so obviously accessible elsewhere.

—*Le Droit d'Auteur*, the official organ of the Bureau of the International Union for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works, has completed its second year. The treaty for the creation of this important Union was signed at Berne, Switzerland, September 9, 1886, and went into force on December 5, 1887. Its sixteenth article provided for the organization of an international office for the collection, arrangement, and distribution of information relative to the protection of the rights of authors over their literary and artistic productions. It also provided that the information so obtained should be published in a periodical to be printed in the French language. With commendable promptness, the first number appeared on January 15, 1888, and regularly, on the 15th of each month since, there has been issued a thin number of this valuable journal. Typographically it presents an attractive appearance, with a page somewhat larger than that of the *Nation*, and also of three columns, but with larger type. The contents is divided into two parts, "official" and "unofficial." Into the first division falls anything directly relating to the International Union, the text of the treaty, and articles commenting on or explanatory of its provisions, together with the texts of the more recent copyright laws of various countries; while the unofficial portion contains a variety of articles of interest and value in relation to literary or artistic property. Notable copyright decisions rendered in European courts are printed at length, with comments, and there is a bibliographical section in which books on copyright are reviewed and articles in current journals noticed.

—Of contributions of more than usual importance published in the two volumes, may be mentioned an anonymous series on the retroactive clause in the international treaty; three papers analyzing the different articles of convention to determine the legal status of each, from the very competent hand of Prof. d'Orelli of Zurich, who was one of the framers of that document; and a third series of articles, also unsigned, on the registration of titles and the deposit of copies. In the two years which have slipped away since the formation of the Union, but two additional countries have been admitted into it, namely, the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg, May 23, 1888, and the diminutive principality of Monaco, May 30, 1889. Of more importance is the formation of a similar union among the States of South America. An international treaty for the protection of literary and artistic property, modelled after the Berne Convention, was signed on January 11, 1889, by the Argentine Republic, Bolivia, Brazil, Chili, Paraguay, Peru, and Uruguay, an occurrence which the United States delegates to the Pan-American Congress might make a note of, in view of the fact that our Congress has placed copyright upon the list of subjects for discussion at the present Conference. The Director of the International Union is also the editor of the official journal, and the duties of this position have been acceptably performed by Mr. Henri Morel, formerly President of the Federal Assembly of Switzerland. We should be glad to see this excellent journal widely distributed in the United States, and doubt not that it would have good results in helping to bring about the much-desired international copyright law.

—A package of private papers belonging to Alexander Hamilton has been lately brought to light in a loft of the Treasury Building at Washington. The greater part of these are declarations, pleas, etc., filed in the Supreme Court of this State during the years 1785 and 1786. Some of these bear the endorsement of Aaron Burr, calling on Hamilton, as defendant's attorney, to plead in twenty days or permit judgment to be taken. Besides these and other legal papers, are a few letters addressed to Hamilton, requesting his professional services. The most interesting of them is one dated Charleston, S. C., February 27, 1786, from Mr. Charles Goodwin, who encloses a letter of attorney authorizing Hamilton to collect a debt due from Barent Roorbach, and a penal bond upon which the indebtedness arose. This bond, executed by Roorbach (who is styled "Captain of the First Battalion of Delancey's Regiment") on the 12th day of March, 1782, "and in the twenty-second year of his Majesty's Reign," required the payment of a certain sum of "good and lawful money of Great Britain" to Salina, Countess Dowager of Huntingdon, in the penalty of a certain larger sum. Charles Goodwin of "Charlestown," attorney-at-law, was joined as surety, and payment in full had been made by him. He writes to Hamilton: "I would wish you to make an Application to him by letter first & as the suretyship I entered into for him was for a Negro boy he bought here, if he will give him to me I will take him for the money I have paid [seventy pounds], provided you think him worth it." Mr. Goodwin further says, that although he has not the honor of being acquainted with Hamilton, "yet from your Character I am induced to trouble you," etc. After reading this declaration, Hamilton must have been somewhat chagrined to observe that at the lower left-hand corner of the letter he is addressed as "Wm. Hamilton, Esqr." The same error occurs in the letter of attorney, but the "William" has been cancelled and "Alexander" written above.

THE CONSTITUTION OF 1653.

The Constitutional Documents of the Puritan Revolution, 1628-1660. Selected and edited by Samuel R. Gardiner. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1889.

Mr. Gardiner has revealed to the mass of English readers the Constitution of 1653. The Instrument of Government which embodies the political ideas of Cromwellian Puritanism has long been accessible to any one who chooses to turn to the Parliamentary history, and has no doubt been read by more than one historical investigator. But Mr. Gardiner's 'Constitutional Documents of the Puritan Revolution' will now, it may be hoped, make the Constitution of 1653 as well known to ordinary students as Magna Charta or the Bill of Rights. His excellent book has scores of claims to notice, but to constitutionalists its chief interest for the moment lies in its bringing into the light of public day the document which, above all others, embodies the ideas of government entertained by the most capable among the Puritan leaders.

To any one who studies the Constitution of 1653 in the light of a lawyer and a politician, the fact soon becomes apparent that the constitutionalism of the Commonwealth differed radically from the sort of government which the course of events and the influence of the Whigs finally established in England. The Instrument of Government is the work of men who, compared with the Whigs of 1689 and their successors, were both Revolutionists and, strange though the expression sounds, Conservatives. In some of its provisions the Cromwellian Constitution anticipates ideas which, as far as they have been realized at all, have found their realization rather in the United States than in the United Kingdom. Some of its provisions, on the other hand, are a revival of Elizabethan ideas. Here, as elsewhere, you are met by the paradox, which pervades the whole history of Puritanism, that the heroes of the Rebellion were at once innovators and conservatives. Their eyes were fixed: they were so much occupied with their hopes of the future and their dreams of the past, that they hardly suited their own time, and were forced ultimately to yield the guidance of England's destinies to men who could adjust their policy to the wants of the day.

Any reader of the Instrument of Government will do well to note its two different sides, and to understand how it is connected, on the one hand with the eighteenth or the nineteenth century, and on the other with the sixteenth. The very framework of the Instrument of Government connects it with modern times. It is the first of those written constitutions of which, since the foundation of the American commonwealth, Europe and America have produced so many. It is, again, an essentially democratic constitution; for its very first article refers indirectly to the "People" in a way utterly alien to monarchical ideas. The Constitution, again, is what Mr. Bryce has happily called "rigid." Mr. Gardiner, indeed, believes that the Instrument of Government was intended by its authors to be not only unchanged, but unchangeable. On this subject his opinion is of such weight as to be almost decisive; but a merely legal critic might be inclined to suspect that Mr. Gardiner has not fully appreciated a distinction which would certainly occur to the mind of any court which might be called upon to interpret the articles of the Constitution. A careful study of their terms suggests that while some "fundamentals," to use Cromwell's expression, embodied in articles 35 to 39, and having reference mainly to religious liberty, were meant to be legally immutable, the other articles of the Constitution could not, indeed, be amended in the way of ordinary legislation, by laws passed by Parliament without the consent of the Protector, but were capable of amendment by bills passed by Parliament and assented to by the Protector. However this may be—and we must again repeat that, to our minds, Mr. Gardiner's opinion is in itself of such weight that its correctness hardly admits of question—one thing is certain: the Constitution of 1653 is marked by a kind of rigidity foreign to the Constitution of England, but characteristic of both the Constitution of the United States and of polities modelled upon it. It is also noteworthy that the Constitution established by Cromwell contains, as regards religious liberty, just such an enunciation of general principles as might form part of those declarations of rights which have appeared in most of the democratic constitutions created during the last hundred years.

The nature and position, again, of the Parliament created by the Instrument is in con-

formity with the democratic notions of to-day. It consists of a single house, which can, except as regards the amendment of the Constitution, pass laws of its own authority without the necessity for obtaining the assent of the Protector. He can remonstrate, he can slightly delay legislation, but he possesses nothing equivalent to a veto. The Protector himself might fairly be described as a President elected for life: he is not removable; he has large executive powers; he appoints every official of the Government; he is secured a revenue and an army. But he is compelled to act more or less in harmony with a permanent Council, consisting of from fifteen to twenty-one members, who themselves are irremovable, except for misconduct, and who, when a vacancy occurs, are nominated by the combined action of Parliament and the Protector. The Council, moreover, form the body which elects succeeding Protectors. It is hardly fanciful to find in the Council a certain vague likeness to the American Senate. It is assuredly not fanciful to trace in the Constitution of 1653 marked points of resemblance with the institutions of the United States.

Under the first Constitution of the Protectorate, the Constitution becomes, in England as it is in America, the supreme law of the land; all the authorities which it creates—Protector, Council, Parliament—derive their powers from its articles; the Council, as has been said, distantly resembles the Senate; the Parliament bears a striking resemblance to Congress; the whole polity is pervaded by the influence of the doctrine to which Montesquieu, a century later, gave world-wide currency under the name of the "separation of powers." If the Instrument of Government had continued in force, that blending of the executive and the legislature which is accomplished in modern England by the creation of a Parliamentary Cabinet, would have been impossible, and the Parliament of England would, like Congress, have remained a law-making body of limited powers, which could legislate but did not pretend to govern. The Protector is a President appointed for life. His powers are greater than those theoretically possessed, and still more than those practically exercised, by President Harrison, but they are of the same kind; for the Protector, like the President, was the real head of a real executive. It is not at all certain that, had a first-rate soldier occupied the position of President Lincoln, his powers would have fallen much short of the authority conferred upon Cromwell in 1653. It has been said with considerable truth that an American President is a copy of an English King in the time of George the Third; he was meant to exercise, during his tenure of office, all the powers which, in the opinion of Englishmen, could be rightly exercised by an English King. It is not untrue to say that the Protectorate was, so to speak, a copy of the English Kingship during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The Protector was endowed for life with the prerogatives which the Puritan leaders believed rightly to belong to an English King, for it must always be remembered that the original aim of the Puritan movement was, not to curtail the constitutional prerogatives of the crown, but to prevent the encroachments of despotism, and to insure that the royal prerogatives were used for the benefit of the nation. In the earlier stages of the conflict with Charles, no one maintained that the King's legal prerogatives were too great, but that, under the advice of bad Ministers, he both exceeded his legal powers and used his prerogatives for the destruction of the nation. Here, however, we come across the conservative, we might almost say the reactionary, side of the Puritan Revolution.

To Puritans, the ideal of an English monarch was Elizabeth. To understand this, we must remember that the great Tudor Queen is known to us in some respects more truly than to the statesmen of the seventeenth century. Her vanity, her dishonesty, her parsimony, and her meanness have all been unfolded to us by the diligence of inquirers who, in their zeal for research, are too prone to delight in the discovery of small facts while neglecting to recognize large truths. To the Puritans, who had suffered under the incapacity, the selfishness, the narrowness, the treachery, and the stupidity of the Stuarts, and who knew that Charles at his best could not understand the spirit of Englishmen, Elizabeth naturally became a model ruler; she was the Queen who had defeated the Armada, and who had placed England at the head of the Protestant interest. She was the Queen who, with all her faults, could, at a crisis, give up her whims in deference to the demand of the nation, and who, like her father, while determined to be a strong ruler, felt that the support of Parliament added to the strength of the Crown. The aim of the men who framed the Instrument of Government, therefore, was to place at the head of the State a man who, under the articles of the Constitution, should exercise for life the prerogatives of Elizabeth, and exercise them in accordance with both the interest and the will of the nation.

The constitutionalists of 1653 had not the least idea of creating a ruler who should reign and not govern. The powers conferred upon the Protector are ample. He is provided with an army and with a fixed revenue; he possesses even a legal power of temporary legislation. He is surrounded, however, by a council which undoubtedly was meant to play much the part of the Privy Council at the time when the Privy Council formed, so to speak, the administration. But if the Protector is not intended to be the servant of Parliament, neither is he intended to dispense with the advice of Parliament. The Constitution establishes a "triennial" Parliament, *i. e.*, a Parliament which must meet once in every three years, and which, during the first five months of the session, cannot be prorogued against the will of Parliament. The Protector, in short, is intended to be exactly such a strong and wise monarch as was Elizabeth—at any rate in the imagination of the men who detested the Stuarts. The Protector governs, but he governs with the aid of a Council composed of experienced statesmen. The Protector rules the State, but he is compelled to hear the voice of Parliament. The Protector can make ordinances, but he cannot legislate. He is, in short, not a constitutional King in the modern sense of that term, but a true ruler, who, like the best English Kings, governs in harmony with the Houses of Parliament because he, no less than the Houses, represents the nation.

Nor are the main points in which the written Constitution of 1653 differs from the unwritten Constitution as it existed under Elizabeth so vital as they might at first sight appear. Let it be granted, in deference to Mr. Gardiner's opinion, that the Constitution was legally unchangeable; still, this element of immutability was in reality no novelty. It may well be doubted whether any lawyer or statesman of the sixteenth or seventeenth century would have admitted to the full the now acknowledged authority of Parliament (including in that term the Crown) to alter the foundations of the English polity. The maintainer of the dogma that the English Constitution recognizes no fundamental laws, would at any time prior to the Revolution of 1689 have placed himself in conflict not only with public opinion, but very possibly with the law of the land as interpreted by judges and jurymen. The real though limited toleration secured by the articles of the Constitution for "all who profess faith in God by Jesus Christ" marks, no doubt, a decided advance in ideas of religious freedom. But, after all, the Puritan constitutionalists of 1653 had not progressed much beyond the principles maintained by Elizabeth. They tolerated sects whom the Queen would have condemned, but, to make up, they excluded from their toleration Prelatists, whom she would have favored. Under the rule of the Protector, as under the rule of the Queen no religious liberty is extended to Catholics. We shall not, therefore, go far wrong if we hold that the framers of the Puritan Constitution meant to found a government which should realize the best traditions of the Tudor monarchy.

To modern English Liberals, imbued as they are with the doctrine of Parliamentary sovereignty, the position of statesmen who wish to establish at once a strong Legislature and also a strong and independent executive, appears chargeable with inconsistency. To Americans, who are accustomed to the action of non-sovereign legislative bodies, it easily becomes apparent that the political aspirations of the Puritans were in no sense self-contradictory. Any man, moreover, whether Englishman or American, who examines without prejudice the Constitution of the German Empire, will see clearly enough that modern Germans desire and have, in fact, obtained very much the kind of government which the men who framed the Constitution of 1653 wished to establish in England. The German Emperor could not, if he would, omit to summon the Diet. He could not legislate except by means of laws passed and approved by the Imperial Diet. But the Diet or Federal Parliament, while it is a real Legislature, is nothing like a sovereign power. It could not, if it wished, dismiss Bismarck from office, nor could it restore Bismarck to office if he were dismissed by the Emperor. In Germany, as in the England of Cromwell, Parliamentary government is not identified with government by Parliament. The more carefully, in short, the reader studies the Constitution of 1653, the more clearly he will become convinced that the Puritans aimed at establishing a form of Government radically different from the Constitutional Monarchy or Parliamentary Democracy which the course of events, rather than the foresight of statesmen, has produced or developed in England. The Instrument of Government resembles, from one point of view, the Constitution of the United States. It resembles, from another, the Constitution of England as it existed, or was supposed by the men of the seventeenth century to have existed, in the time of the Tudors. But it has little real similarity to the Constitutional Monarchy founded by the Whigs of 1689 and democratized by the Whigs and Radicals of the nineteenth century.

Remarks and Collections by Thomas Hearne. Edited by C. E. Doble, M.A. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1889.

HEARNE again! May not one wonder what there is in this Hearne that volume after volume of choosings from his hand-written books of jottings is given to the world, in good paper and print? Indeed, the great number of American reader-folk need not take any shame to themselves if they cannot recall the

man to mind. His editions of Leland's 'Itinerary' and 'Collectanea' (in which what he put there of his own was thought, by some, to be better than his much-praised author's) were for English people, and for a generation of them who, with their children and their children's children, are all ghosts. Moreover, Englishmen, in flesh and blood, are nowadays only a few of those who read our tongue; and furthermore, Hearne's Livy and his Younger Pliny and his Justin and Eutropius, which in their day were very good, have been pushed off to darkness and dust a good while since.

Yet, after all, it is not hard to see how this same Thomas Hearne, the assistant keeper of the Bodleian Library, nearly 200 years agone, may be of some account—even of much account—to a considerable class of English people, and to some among ourselves. He was an honest man, a scholar, and an antiquarian; he cherished in his heart "the good old cause," in an age, too, when it was easier than it is now to keep on believing that one family had a right indefeasible, from foolish father to bad son, to rule all others, in at least one country, while the earth shall hold together. He had a strong feeling, too, for "the non-jurors"—the men who chose to lose their places in the Church and in the State rather than take the oaths to what they counted an usurping dynasty.

England has a great many scholarly men, and a great many lovers of old things and searchers for them; and it has, also, a good many who are fain to lay hold of, and hold fast, some one or other broken (and *well*-broken) strand of history flying in the wind and wasting, as that of the turned-out Stuart family, for an example, and are sorry that they do not see the way to fasten it to the moving world, or make the moving world once fast to it. We, too, have men who are, by instinct, antiquarian, and we are not wanting, altogether, in those who profess a sacred liking for the Charles the First that Van Dyke painted, and the Young Chevalier of the songs; and who, in our freedom-nursing American air, maintain for Stuarts and others, selfish, narrow-minded, little-hearted, cruel people, a "right divine to govern wrong," if they wish to govern so, and find their chance.

Moreover, there are many churchmen in both countries who believe the "Erastian" rule of the State over the Church to be no whit more right, and to be to the full as bad, as "sacerdotal" rule of the Church over the State; and that, under the Dutch William and the German Georges, the religiousness of the English people was dulled, and beaten down, and deadened, and that its ways were made coarse and low. To these it seems that, in those times, the worse and wrong had the upper hand in both Church and State, and that the honest, true men—bishops, priests, and laymen—who, having everything snatched from them that greedy and unfeeling hands could tear away, met their fate meekly, and went into it and under it because they ought, have good claim to be righted by true, honest men of after times. So that able scholar, known to every classic man, Prof. John E. B. Mayor, writes: "Perhaps . . . the time has come when one may venture, without offence or loss of intellectual caste, to challenge the vulgar verdict upon the non-jurors, and may at least call upon their censors to name any English sect as eminent, in proportion to its numbers, alike for solid learning and for public as well as private virtues."

Now, at Oxford, about six generations of breathing men behind us, in the "Bodlejan" Library (as he, like a scholar, wrote the name), and while the "rightfu', lawfu' king" was out, and the faithful were non-jurors and at the bottom, was day after day, and year by year, our Thomas Hearne; in the very eye of one of the great political and religious centres of England; misliking things as they were, and those who handled them; hearing, seeing, and writing down. Often he was vexed in his soul; sometimes he took in a mouthful of sweet comfort. So, looking at the days in which he lived, and at the people that he lived among, and at the sort of man that he was, and at what he was about, in his by-times, with his pen and pocket-book, we do not wonder that Englishmen can be found—and a few Americans—to welcome him in print. The rest of us, too, who believe that the gaining of freedom to think and to do is the gaining of something which is worth all price, even though, at first, it should be coupled with unworthy conditions (for these are to be righted in time), can feel for others if they stood by what they saw to be a truth, though, as we look at it, it was a sham.

Our man, we think, was rather picturesque, perhaps. We can make him so to ourselves, as his likeness slowly settles in our minds; and we incline to use some phrase like Klearchus's "ὤφελε μὲν Κῦρος ζῆν!" though not to the spoiling of those still-living words. We may say that we should like an etching of this steadfast, trusty, possibly a little crabbed, "Jacobite" and (half?) "non-juror." There are many chances to one that he was not handsome, or "distinguished"-looking, or well dressed; he may have been ungainly, even rawboned and coarse-skinned; but, being a shrewd man, with eyes quick to watch those about him, and the comers and goers, in times when it was "touch-and-go" with any man of any account, we should like a glimpse of him, caught in a twinkling. His wig might be a little awry; a grim smile might float about his tightened lips as he wrote, glibly, how "that old smooth-booted, self-interested, ambitious, paultry Lancaster" (the Vice-Chancellor of the University—and a Whig, of course) had met a rebuff, or mortification; or his brows might have been knitted, and his teeth set, while he put down, in black and white, what "that sneaking, snivelling" wretch, and his likes, were plotting.

Besides what he saw and heard of living men, and of things at his hand, there are here some curious passages gathered in his scholarly researches among books: altogether, a pouch from which we may take some good things—though not this time.

Five Thousand Miles in a Sledge: A Midwinter Journey across Siberia. By Lionel F. Gowing. D. Appleton & Co. 1890. 8vo, pp. xx, 257. Illustrated.

THIS is a story of a journey from Shanghai by two young Englishmen, who went by the usual route to Vladivostok, and thence sledged it across Siberia. The story is told in a brisk and pleasant fashion, and will entertain many readers. Nothing extraordinary occurred. For Americans the most interesting paragraphs are those in which the author expresses his opinion on the diverse views upheld in regard to the exile system (p. xi.), one of which we quote:

"But the opinion strongly impressed upon the mind of the present writer—an opinion which was completely shared by his companion of the voyage—is, that although Dr. Lansdell has dispelled some erroneous ideas and disproved some false stories in regard to Russia's treatment of her prisoners, political and social, he has been misled into presenting a picture of Siberian prison management which is far too roseate-hued, and which does infinitely more credit to the Russian Government than is deserved. Having first heard, when in the heart of Siberia, of the great and noble work in which Mr. George Kennan had then been so recently engaged, the author cannot omit the opportunity of bearing testimony to the high opinion entertained there as to the unsparing pains which Mr. Kennan had taken to arrive at the truth, and as to the value his work was likely to have in placing before American and English readers a reliable account of the sufferings of Siberian prisoners."

Coming from a personal friend of Dr. Lansdell, and one to whom Mr. Kennan was personally unknown, the above-cited testimony is highly gratifying to all interested in the reform of barbarous penal systems and in the brave and gifted traveller referred to.

Literature and Poetry. By Philip Schaff, D.D., LL.D. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1890.

THE main part of Dr. Schaff's bulky volume is occupied with a history of the great Church Hymns, the Dies Iræ, Stabat Mater, and hymns of St. Bernard, with many translations in English and German which it is interesting to compare with one another, though none of them are successful in rendering the sonorous and direct Latin with real adequacy. A Scriptural interest also governs the remainder of the essays, one of which is devoted to a learned and instructive account of the poetry of the Bible, its forms, characteristics, power, etc. This on the whole is the most valuable of the entire contents. Other essays are upon the English language and the types of universities old and new, and upon Dante. In none of these is there anything specially noteworthy in knowledge or treatment. They are, in fact, elementary studies in their various spheres; but the seriousness which pervades them, and the nearness at all times of a religious spirit, give them a certain distinction which makes an impression on the mind. Literary culture throughout is overborne and not infrequently displaced by the mind of the theologian, to a degree which removes the work as a whole from the department of miscellaneous criticism of literary subjects to that of religion. The spirit is more than earnest, the matter is laboriously set forth, and seriousness takes the place of taste as the arbiter of judgment. This, however, does not materially affect the value of the volume, especially in that portion of it which is devoted to the Church hymns and the Biblical poems; of which we shall hardly find a better account elsewhere.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbot, Prof. F. E. The Way Out of Agnosticism. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.
Anderson, J. English Intercourse with Siam in the 17th Century. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.
Appleton, G. W. Frozen Hearts: A Romance. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
Ball, Sir R. S. Star-Land: Talks with Young People about the Wonders of the Heavens. Cassell & Co. $2.
Barkan, Dr. L. How to Preserve Health. Exchange Printing Co.
Barton, G. B. History of New South Wales. Vol. I, Governor Phillip, 1783–89. London: Trübner & Co.
Bell, M. Roanoke of Roanoke Hall. Belford Co.
Brinton, Dr. D. G. Essays of an Americanist. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Clark, Col. E. History of the Seventh Regiment of New York, 1806–1889. Vol. I. New York: Published by the Seventh Regiment.
Clark, Kate E. The Dominant Seventh: A Musical Story. D. Appleton & Co.
Dryden, J. Essay of Dramatic Poesy. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 90 cents.
Fyffe, C. A. A History of Modern Europe. Vol. III. 1848–1878. Henry Holt & Co. $2.50.
Gerard, Dorothea. Lady Baby: A Novel. Harper & Bros. 45 cents.
Gray, E. C. Idle Musings: Essays in Social Mosaic. London: William Heinemann.
Greer, Rev. D. H. The Historical Christ, the Moral Power of History. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Hall, H. Court Life under the Plantagenets. (Reign of Henry II.) Macmillan & Co. $4.
Harrison, L. R. Rothermal: A Story of Lost Identity. Am. News Co. 50 cents.
Hearn, L. Two Years in the French West Indies. Harper & Bros.
Henry, Prof. V. Short Comparative Grammar of Greek and Latin. Macmillan & Co. $1.90.
Hoffmann, Prof. Tricks with Cards. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.
Xenophon. Works, translated by H. G. Dakyns. Vol. I. Hellenica and Anabasis. Macmillan & Co. $2.25.

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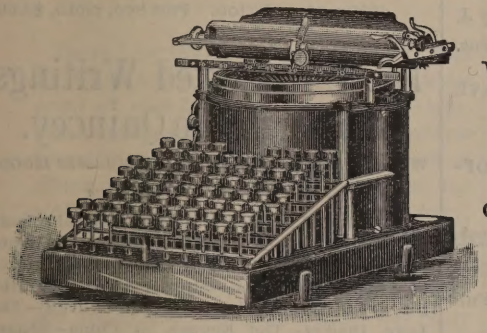

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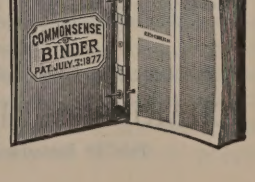

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 27, 1890.

The Week.

AFTER eight years of misdirected effort, Senator Blair has met final and condign defeat in his endeavor to pass his "Bill to Promote Mendicancy." At first nearly everybody was in favor of the bill. It was said that the South had been impoverished by the war. It was shown that illiteracy shadowed large sections of the Southern States. The reasoning was short and simple. It appealed to the magnanimity of the North. The fact that illiteracy growing out of the conditions of slavery—the illiteracy of plantation-hands already past the school-age—was beyond cure, a thing to be accepted and made the best of, was not at first perceived. The fact that if the South had been impoverished, she had had nearly twenty years in which to repair the ravages of war, with incomparable resources of soil and climate, forests and mines, was likewise unheeded. The North was rich. Illiteracy was a common enemy. Nothing was wanting but dollars to expel it from the land. The Federal Treasury had dollars in abundance. Therefore, let us pour out $77,000,000, and have done with it. The syllogism seemed perfect. Public opinion at the outset was strongly for the Blair bill.

By and by the facts became known that the South had really recovered in a material point of view from the disasters of the war, that she was not stinting her contributions to public schools, that she saw the need of educating the black children as well as the white, and that the old score of illiteracy, the inheritance of the slave period, could be wiped out only by the passage of time. When these things became better known and appreciated, the public mind was ready to receive impressions touching the general policy of appropriating Federal money to the States for State purposes and objects. When the discussion turned upon policy, the Blair bill was doomed. The more this subject was examined, the less support was given by the press and the fewer votes were obtained in Congress. The conviction gained ground everywhere that to pour money out of the treasury for local education was to change insidiously our form of government, and weaken the principle of self-reliance which is the strong fortress of all our institutions. Latterly the fact has come out that the agricultural classes of the South are really more prosperous than those of the North, and better able to pay local taxes. Cotton pays better than corn, and is better able to support common schools. Mr. Blair in one of his recent speeches said that if his bill did not pass this present Fifty-first Congress, he would abandon the Republican party. Perhaps this threat had some influence in securing the defeat of the measure. We are sure that the Republican party is stronger without the Blair bill than with it. We suspect that it will be stronger without Mr. Blair than with him.

The distinguishing and decisive feature of the new tariff bill (we speak of the first edition) is the taxing of raw materials. We find this in the increased duties on wool and hops, in the new duties on hides, raw silk, silver, lead ores, zinc, tin-plate, and cabinet woods, and in the retention of the duties on coal and iron ores. This proceeding runs counter to the course of public opinion as we read it. It runs counter also to the old theory of protection, which aims at the building up of new industries. Wool-growing, hop-growing, cattle-growing, iron and coal-mining cannot be considered infant industries in this country, if indeed we have any infant industries now. But, on the other hand, the protection of raw materials is a natural evolution of the protective idea, and one which cannot be resisted by a party that makes protection a political issue. As early as 1824 the wool-growers saw the vantage-ground that their votes gave them in the distribution of tariff favors, and they said then what they have been saying ever since: "Give us our share, or down comes your system. Our arms are on the pillars of your temple, and unless you want to see the whole thing in ruins, please to put wool on the list of things protected." That is what they are saying now in louder tones than ever. No wonder that other producers of raw materials have learned the lesson. And thus it has come about that the producers of copper, lead, iron ore, hops, barley, lumber, and finally hides, have joined the procession. They heap contempt upon the idea that anything is a raw material upon which human labor has been bestowed. What is raw material to one man, they say, is the finished product to another; in this they are right.

The inevitable consequence of the adoption of this principle in the framing of tariffs is a conflict of interests. It has broken out with something like fury in the hide-and-leather trade. For nearly twenty years hides have been on the free list, with great resulting advantages to the tanning and leather industries and the boot-and-shoe trade. Our exports of leather have risen from nearly nothing to upwards of $10,000,000 per annum. Now it is proposed to put a duty of 1½ cent per pound on raw hides at the instigation of the ranchmen and the cattle syndicate, and this at the very time when we are negotiating with the South Americans for more liberal trade arrangements. Our imported hides come principally from South and Central America and the East Indies. They amounted in value to $18,370,973 in 1887, the chief sources of supply being as follows:

Argentine Republic	$2,246,674
Uruguay	2,101,896
U. S. of Colombia	1,314,518
Mexico	959,195
Chili	473,450
Venezuela	7 1 430
Brazil	852,690
Cuba	263 688
East Indies, direct	1,317,220
East Indies, via England	3,438 838
Canada	357,176

The imports from South and Central America alone amount to more than $10,000,000, and, as we have said, we are at this moment negotiating with those countries for some enlargement of trade facilities. All at once, and without warning, comes this proposition to put a tax ranging from 10 to 35 per cent. ad valorem on this article of South American export, this raw material of one of our greatest industries. It is almost incredible, and yet is not a whit more unphilosophical than the existing duty on wool, and is considerably less ad valorem than the present duties on wool, not to speak of those proposed in the new bill.

The *Tribune* made the mistake of worshipping the wrong tariff bill on Friday. This is a kind of mishap that a muzzled, office-holding organ is always liable to. It gets hold of something that is labelled official and it bows down at once to the label. It may be any Birmingham idol, or even an old shoe—it makes no difference. The tariff bill it published and endorsed on Friday contained, among other things, a duty of a dollar a pound on raw silk, than which nothing could be more disastrous to a very highly protected industry. The very suggestion of a duty on raw silk threw the silk-manufacturers into a spasm, and the President of their Association posted off to Washington to wrestle with the Committee on Ways and Means to get the duty cast out of the bill, and he succeeded in doing so. The *Tribune* will bow down to the bill that leaves raw silk free as readily as to one that taxes it a dollar a pound. The same may be said of the duty on hides. The *Tribune's* bill had hides dutiable at 1½ cent per pound. New England was convulsed by this application of the Chicago platform to one of her leading industries. Off goes the duty on hides. Does this make any difference with the *Tribune's* loyalty? Not a jot. It is just as much in favor of free hides as of taxed hides, and of taxed hides as of free ones, if you only put on the right label. It is as easily satisfied as Mark Twain was with his bottle of wine when the waiter brought him the wrong brand, and then made it right by removing the freshly pasted label with his thumb and putting on another before his eyes.

When Señor Peña made his argument for free trade between the American republics in the Pan-American Congress the other day, and declared that the tariff of this country was the effectual barrier to the *enlargement* of our foreign trade, the American delegate

who replied to him thought it sufficient to say that 87 per cent. of our imports from South America came in free of duty. This is, of course, the official answer put forth by the Department of State. How perversely it misses the point is very clear. The Spanish-Americans say that they want us to buy their copper and wool and sugar and lead ores, and that there is no chance of an enlarged trade if we do not. What our reply amounts to is, that we have chosen to restrict our buying to coffee, fruit, rubber, woods, and dye-stuffs, and that we put no tax on those articles. The reply does not touch the complaint in the slightest degree, since the subject under discussion is not the present trade, but an increase of trade. And then we talk patronizingly about our intention to meet the difficulty by means of reciprocity treaties, just as out comes the new tariff bill putting a tax on two South American products which were free before—hides and lead ores. If Mr. McKinley has his way, that 87 per cent. will be lowered very rapidly. Besides, Señor Peña's argument, we understand, took up the question of selling as well as buying, and maintained that our tariff incapacitated us from competing with Europe in the South American markets. That such is the fact, many of the foreign delegates have repeatedly stated, the spread-eagle assertions of our students of maxims to the contrary notwithstanding.

We observe that our pious friend Rising-Sun Stove Polish Morse is in "favor of free coal, provided Canada would reciprocate, in which event," says he, "we would sell them more than we would buy." But how would you manage this, you rising statesman? You would want the Canadians to give you the worth of your goods in their coal, would you not? You do not mean to say you are going to give them more value in your goods than you will get back in coal?—and yet this seems a fair construction of your language. Our advice to you in dealing with the Canadians is to try and make a little profit on every transaction—that is, make them sell you more than you buy—or, in other words, get more than you give. This is the way the members of the Cobden Club have made their fortunes, and this is the way you must have carried on the stove-polish business in order to become as rich as you are, and as good and unctuous as you are.

The debate on Senator Sherman's Anti-Trust Bill is an advantage to the country independently of the merits of the bill itself. It was an advantage, for example, to expose Gen. Russell A. Alger in his character as head of the Diamond Match Trust, a combination to control the production and sale of friction matches in the United States and Canada. After this exposure it is pretty safe to say that Gen. Alger's chances of ever being nominated or elected President of the United States are very slim. It should be remarked in passing that the McKinley Administrative Bill plays into the hands of the Diamond Match Trust by making the boxes and coverings of imported goods dutiable. As the matter stands now, there is a considerable importation of matches from Sweden, in spite of a duty of 35 per cent. ad valorem. If a duty is put on the match-boxes also, the protection afforded to the Alger match monopoly will be prohibitory. The tariff has not come into the anti-Trust debate very much as yet, but it is sure to drift that way, as was shown by the "side-winder" that Mr. Sherman gave to Senator Hoar. The latter had said that he did not believe that every time the price of wheat went down, every time that there was a bad year in agriculture, or that the manufacturers were pinched, or that the mines were unprofitable, it was good policy for Congress to hold out to the people quack remedies or pretended cures. To this Mr. Sherman replied that if the duty on cotton cloths or woollen cloths was a little too low to protect the manufacturers of Massachusetts, not a month nor a day would be allowed to pass before he (Mr. Hoar) would demand a remedy in the way of raising the duty.

It is hard work to keep track of the Windom Silver Bill in its various permutations in the Committee on Coinage in the House, and we shall not attempt to pass judgment on it until we see the whole of it in print. We judge, from the votes taken in the Committee, that no bill will pass Congress this session. Whether the Windom bill as amended ought to pass is, as it were, a choice of evils—a choice between that bill and the present two-millions-per-month law. That the real "friends of silver" are opposed to the Windom bill in any form is made clear by the vote of Mr. Bland against it in committee, and also by the comment of the last number of the *Silver Dollar*, of Cleveland, O., which says:

> "Windom says he is a friend of silver. That is all bosh. If so, Benedict Arnold was a friend of American liberty. He has the power now to befriend silver, if he wished to do so, by coining four millions a month. The law permits him to do it. It has permitted him to do it ever since he came into office. Has he exerted himself in that direction? Decidedly not!—he has done, is doing, and proposes to do all he can to stop the coinage, and to *assassinate silver* in the interest of the gold-bugs—a friend of silver, bah!"

To be the Benedict Arnold of silver and the assassin of silver is to be a false knave. If Mr. Windom is both of these, he ought to be "comprehended" by the police at once.

There could be no more striking illustration of the harmful facility with which campaign "endorsements" are obtained, than is afforded by the certificate of character and fitness which members of the Bar Association signed in October, 1888, in behalf of Hugh J. Grant (who was running at that time as the Tammany candidate for Mayor), when read now in the light of Mayor Grant's own account, on the witness-stand, of the manner in which he administered the Sheriff's office. The certificate says, that his administration of the office was characterized by "broad intelligence and great personal care and supervision." He himself says, that though the business of the office aggregated sometimes $10,000,000 a year, and his receipts from fees aggregated between $25,000 and $30,000 a year, he kept no record or account of any kind, and there was none in the office which would tell what the receipts were. The certificate says that under his administration "long-standing abuses have been abolished and needed reforms have been effected." He himself says, that the only reform which he effected was the reduction of the deputy sheriffs—mainly organized extortionists—from forty-two to thirteen, and that he did that because "he thought it was better to have thirteen well-fed men than forty-two hungry and thirsty ones"; he himself says, that one of his first acts on taking the office was to enter into an agreement with an auctioneer for an equal division between them of the fees from auctioneer's sales, though he was aware that such fees were forbidden by law; he himself says, that in addition to sharing this illegal fee from each auctioneer's sale he exacted also another illegal fee for himself from the lawyers of the creditors, in all cases where the execution was on judgments exceeding $20,000, under the name of "extra compensation," the lawyers being ignorant of the fact that he shared also in the auctioneer's fee. It is quite plain that the gentlemen who signed this document really knew nothing, or next to nothing, about the way the Sheriff's office was administered.

There are many things brought to light now every day about this "new Tammany" which recall vividly our experience twenty years ago with the old Tammany. Who can read, for instance, this gorgeous endorsement of Sheriff Grant without being reminded of the deputation of highly respectable financiers and property-holders who, a few days before the exposure of the Tweed Ring, audited the books of Connolly, the Comptroller, and certified to their correctness and order, when the rascal had actually stolen $6,000,000 of the city's money? No lesson seems to be of any use in this city for over ten years. The old tricks are always available for further fraud, while the very generation which has witnessed their exposure and punishment is still on the scene. The "new Tammany" is probably the worst bit of repetition we have ever had. It is like robbery of the same farmer by the same confidence man, by the very same "game" by which he had previously been stripped of his watch and money; the only difference being that the performer has put on a young wig and dyed his whiskers.

When the present investigation of our city government was proposed in the Senate, one of Tammany's errand-boys in that body sought to make sentiment against it by calling upon the Comptroller of the State for a detailed statement of moneys which had been paid for the expenses of investigating committees during the past ten years. The Tammany Senator's idea was that he could impress the taxpayers of the State with the unwisdom

of further investigations by showing them how much previous ones had cost. The Comptroller has sent in his reply, and it shows that the grand total for ten years is a little more than $404,500. Of this amount $147,000 was for counsel fees, and the remainder for clerical and members' expenses, room-rent, etc. The largest items were, of course, for inquiries into the manner in which the government of this city is administered. Thus the inquiries of 1883 and 1884, which resulted in the Roosevelt reform bills and subsequent laws, cost nearly $34,000. The inquiry by the Comstock Committee in 1885 cost over $26,000. The Broadway Railway inquiry in 1886 cost over $45,000; and the aqueduct inquiry cost $43,000. It cannot be denied that in all these instances the money was well spent. The reforms secured by the Roosevelt bills were worth to the city many times what they cost, in the more economical and reputable conduct of several of our great departments which they made necessary. The Broadway Railway inquiry resulted in removing from the Board of Aldermen all powers over railway franchises, thus making it impossible for any one to repeat the wholesale bribery perpetrated by Jacob Sharp and his allies. The aqueduct inquiry resulted in relieving us of a disgraceful Commissioner of Public Works and an incompetent Aqueduct Commission, and the appointment of our present upright, able, and efficient Aqueduct Commission, who have saved the city ten and twenty times over the money which the inquiry cost.

It seems to us as if the Flack divorce case, as a divorce case, were attracting more attention from our esteemed contemporaries and filling them with far more horror than it calls for. The thing that should shock and alarm the public is not that a man like Flack should get a divorce in this way, but that a man like Flack should be elected Sheriff of the city and county of New York. Flack belongs, if not exactly to the criminal class, to that worthless, shiftless, vicious class to whom a regular and honest calling is distasteful, and who readily abandon it in this city for ward "politics," and in other cities for gambling or other aleatory pursuits in which money can be made without much labor or moral responsibility. We believe he was at one time a bookbinder, but he probably found bookbinding, as Tweed found chair-making and John Kelly grate-setting, a dull pursuit, in which the gains were small and the work hard. So he took to politics for the sake of more fun and leisure and larger profits. For precisely the same reasons, he probably tired of his wife, and determined to get rid of her in order to marry another woman with whom he had long had illicit relations. To hasten the process, he got, as hundreds of others have got, a fraudulent divorce. Now, there is nothing at all amazing or alarming or blood-curdling in this when one knows the kind of man Flack is. It does not shake the institution of marriage or the framework of society. What is amazing and serious in the whole matter is, that this worthless, brutal, characterless creature should be able to become the chief executive officer of a county containing the third largest and second richest commercial city in the civilized world. But for this, Flack would be simply an ordinary criminal acting out his criminal nature. So do not let us talk of it as if a really leading citizen or a minister of the Gospel had been caught in some gross immorality.

The passage of the bill providing for State care of the insane in the Assembly by the decisive majority of 69 to 50 is one of the most notable triumphs of well-directed effort in a righteous cause that we have ever had the happiness to chronicle. Such a vote, after such a struggle, now more than three years prolonged, and gained over the petty spoilsmen of the rural districts, renews our confidence in the soundness of the social and political fabric. To the State Charities Aid Association this advance along the line of humanity and social elevation is due. It is one of a long and honorable list of advances and benefactions which that society has conferred upon the State and people of New York, and it brings freshly to mind the charge of Holy Writ, "Be ye not weary in well doing."

The appointment of Gen. von Caprivi to succeed Bismarck as Chancellor of the Empire is chiefly remarkable for the fact that Gen. von Caprivi is a soldier now in the army, and has never been anything else. He has had no training but military training. Bismarck, on the other hand, was all his life a civil servant of the Government, and had served as a diplomatist for a considerable period before he became known to the world as a parliamentarian and administrator. We do not say that he was a very fine specimen of a constitutional politician, but he had had great experience in persuading or getting the better of other men in debate; if not in winning people over to his ways of thinking, at least getting them to accept his conclusions without using force. Gen. von Caprivi has had no such training. He has been all his life a soldier, and presumably has only learned two things thoroughly—to command and to obey. In his present place he will still be under the orders, in a military sense, of the Emperor as Commander-in-Chief of the army. This may not turn out as badly as seems likely on the surface, for there are rumors both that Gen. von Caprivi is only a stop-gap, and will soon be succeeded by somebody else, and that he is really a man of liberal views, and will meet opposition with more candor and civility of manner than Bismarck. The *National Gazette* makes the curious suggestion, apropos of the succession of a soldier to the Chancellorship, that there is nothing more threatening in this than in the Duke of Wellington's becoming Prime Minister in England, forgetting that prime ministers in England are appointed by the House of Commons, that the army in England lives in strict subordination to the civil power, and that the last monarch in England who thought himself as "big a man" as the Emperor William thinks he is, lost his head on the scaffold two hundred and fifty years ago.

The honors offered to Bismarck by the Emperor are as high as he can bestow, but, nevertheless, they have, when offered to a man like Bismarck—at the age of seventy-five—a somewhat ludicrous air, and bring out strikingly the impoverishment of modern sovereigns in the presence of real greatness. Bismarck's contempt for German Dukes and Grand Dukes is well known. He could make or unmake them by the half-dozen, and was amused by their squeals when he was making experiments on them. It must amuse him now more or less to be offered as a great favor the privilege of being "Duke of Lauenburg." He probably relishes more the rank of Colonel-General of cavalry and Field-Marshal General. He liked to figure as a soldier, and made his great speeches in the Reichstag always in cavalry uniform, and relied on "blood and iron" as the two great solvents of political difficulties. But even if the Emperor has no adequate means left of honoring the retired statesman, he does well to offer whatever he has. He can hardly do or say too much to mark the passage from the stage of the greatest figure—this is hardly too strong a phrase—in German history. Frederick the Great and Luther were certainly his only competitors. The country will pass through many a phase of untried being, and many generations will come and go, before it looks upon his like again.

Mr. Balfour introduced the long-promised Irish Land Bill on Monday. It is intended to assist tenants in purchasing and landlords in selling the fee of their farms. The telegraphic summary of its contents is almost incomprehensible, and it would be useless to try to offer a full explanation of it until the arrival of further details. What appears to be clear is that the Government is to advance about $165,000,000 to enable the tenants to make their purchases, and the tenants are to pay 4 per cent. on the advance, and the landlords are to get Government stock bearing 2½ per cent. interest in payment; but how much of this 4 per cent. from the tenants is to constitute a sinking-fund for the payment of the principal, and how much to furnish the interest on the landlords' stock, does not yet appear. The summary of the Associated Press is a model of obscurity. The bill is said to be very complicated, and would probably have to be set working before a proper judgment could be passed on its value. The Parnellites generally object to it, first and foremost because it has been drafted and introduced without consultation with any Irish representative, and apparently with total indifference to Irish opinion—which is, however, nothing new in legislation relating to Ireland They object to it, secondly, because it furnishes, they say, a market for the landlord's property in inflated values, and imposes a portion of the burden of its operation on the Irish taxpayer; but what this last objection means we cannot make out from the summary of the bill now before us.

THE LODGE ELECTION BILL.

We believe there is not much question that the design of the framers of the Constitution in giving Congress the power to regulate "the times, places, and manner" of holding Congressional elections, was to provide against the danger of a State or States refusing to hold any Congressional election at all, or holding it at an inconvenient or useless time, with the view of breaking down or embarrassing the Federal Government. Full confidence was by no means felt at that time in the continuing loyalty even of the States which most readily accepted the Constitution; and among the contingencies which were thought of as possible, if not probable, was an attempt of a State to withdraw virtually from the Union by refusing to send representatives to the House. This power of the Congress over the elections was, therefore, created as something to be held in reserve and used, if the worst came to the worst, in defence of the existence of Congress itself.

This view is fully supported by the fact that during a whole century of experience the power of Congress over elections has never been used. The reason it has never been used is simply that the contingency for which it was to provide has never arisen. No State in time of peace has shown any disinclination to be properly represented in the House, or to hold suitable and orderly elections for that purpose. It is true that there has been a great deal of corruption and often a good deal of disorder and even of violence at Congressional elections as well as at State elections in various parts of the country; seats in the House have often been wrongfully obtained by all the methods known to political jobbers. But nobody until now has suggested that for this reason Congress should take charge of the elections itself, because for these evils the power of the House to pass on the qualifications of its own members was held to be an ample remedy. Nobody until now has suggested that American State authorities were incompetent to conduct Federal elections, because everybody who has considered the subject before Mr. Cabot Lodge, has seen clearly enough that a charge of incompetency to conduct one kind of an election involves a charge of incompetency to conduct any kind, State or national, and in fact lays the axe to the root of the whole Federal system.

If we admit the necessity of Mr. Lodge's bill, we make a long step towards admitting the total failure of the Republic as at present constructed. Federal morality, either political or other, is no better than State morality. Federal laws are administered by precisely the same class of men as State laws, with, however, this difference in their situation, that State officials are responsible to and controlled by local opinion, an important guarantee for good behavior which, in the case of Federal officials, is wanting, and which in the matter of conducting local elections is extremely valuable. Mr. Lodge's bill proposes a departure from this practice, of one hundred years' standing, not because any State refuses to hold orderly elections for members of the House of Representatives, or because the House has lost or finds any difficulty in exercising its constitutional right to pass on the qualifications of its own members—that is, on the fairness of the election—but because in certain States of the Union there are not as many votes cast for the party now in power as he thinks there ought to be. We have no disposition to cover up the state of things at the South by a play of words, or to pretend that the negro voters in those States do not suffer, as so many voters at the North do, from ignorance and intimidation. What we say is, that nobody knows what the exact extent of this corruption or intimidation of negroes is; that it is probably grossly exaggerated; that it is diminishing, and must continue to diminish as the intelligence of the negroes increases, and that the only remedy for it which Mr. Lodge offers is the very kind of electoral reform which the several States are one by one adopting. In other words, his proposed interference is based on uncertain premises, and offers nothing which the States are not themselves likely to supply without any violent departure from long-established and until now unquestioned usage. He proposes registration and ballot reform, but that is what all the States are proposing. His bill would be executed by Tom, Dick, and Harry, while the State bills will be executed by Harry, Dick, and Tom. Where would the difference appear? What should we gain by this tremendous departure from our present time-honored custom?

In one respect, the Lodge bill is not only unnecessary, but in the highest degree mischievous, in that it proposes to strike a deadly blow at one of the most valuable features of our Federal system—the independence of the judiciary. If there be one provision of the Constitution which experience has justified and glorified, it is the tenure during good behavior of the judges. This has to a remarkable degree secured them the respect and confidence of the country by exempting them from the necessity of taking any part, open or covert, in party politics. We do not say it has been completely successful, because we cannot say this of any rule or regulation which governs or shapes human conduct. It has not done everything, but it has done wonders. It has kept alive among us a standard of judicial propriety and integrity which the legislation of some States has done much to dim or destroy. Hardly less important for the respectability of the Federal judiciary is its strict confinement to judicial functions—that is, to the work of interpreting the law as distinguished from the work of administering it. Now, Mr. Lodge actually proposes to impose on the district judges the task not only of appointing the officers of registration and election, but of counting the vote and certifying the result to Congress. This would of course convert them at once in the popular eye into party politicians, expose them to imputations of unfairness in the choice of the election officers, and make them responsible for the conduct or misconduct of these officers, and for the correctness of the count which might next day come before them in their judicial capacity. The popular rage over charges brought against them would be made all the more furious by the fact that, for any malfeasance as administrators, there would be no remedy except impeachment at the hands of the very majority in the House whose purposes the malfeasance might have served. Nothing more monstrous for the benefit of our negro fellow-citizen has yet been proposed. If he deserves it, and ought to have it, the United States Government, it is not too much to say, has been constructed in vain.

OUR MAYORAL CURIOSITY.

The *Evening Post* printed on Monday some letters addressed by our Mayor, and the Chairman of the World's-Fair Committee, to certain appointing officers in the years 1883–'4, when he was in the Board of Aldermen. The same paper, indeed, printed them during the canvass in 1888, but they probably then had the not unfrequent fate of such literature in a Presidential campaign, and passed comparatively unnoticed. Their authenticity has never been questioned. They are applications for places in the public service for "workers" and "bummers" of various degrees of unfitness. The manner in which the Mayor prepared for the Mayoralty while Sheriff, is being revealed little by little in the investigation now going on before the Fassett Committee. These letters show the way in which he was preparing for the Shrievalty while in the Board of Aldermen.

The grammar and spelling would at first sight lead most people to suppose that they were the composition of a hotel porter or of an office-boy trying to fill his first place. To neither of these classes of persons would they be discreditable. One does not expect a hotel porter or an office-boy in his first place to write or speak English correctly. One readily forgives all deficiencies of this sort to any one whose poverty has prevented his getting any schooling in his earlier years, and whose occupation does not call for literary training. But one does not forgive them readily in a man who has had the means in his youth of getting as good an education as the country affords, and least of all in a man who, having pecuniary ease, has in his early years set public office before himself as an object of ambition. We say that when such a man not only fails to cultivate himself in the ordinary sense of that term, but fails to acquire the rudiments even of a plain English education, who spends the time necessary for that purpose on the trotting-course or the base-ball grounds, or "going round with the boys," while thirsting for employment in the public service, it furnishes an indication of character which no honest and conscientious voter ought to overlook.

No civilized State in our day ought to have any places for such men to fill except those of manual laborers. No places of trust and responsibility have been filled by such men in recent years, except some of those awarded to negroes at the South during the carpet-bag régime. We believe some South-

ern States at that time enjoyed the services of sheriffs whose equipment for the office and whose manner of discharging its duties closely resembled those of Sheriff Grant. And yet his shrievalty was the most important of its kind in the country. According to his own story, $10,000,000 passed through his hands annually, and he played a more important part in the administration of justice in a great city than any other officer not on the judicial bench. And yet this really great function we put without inquiry into the hands of an illiterate and evidently idle youth, who had never learned or followed any calling, or had, in a business community, acquired any business experience.

More astonishing than all, after having shown in the transaction of the Sheriff's business absolute incapacity, disorder, and corruption, Mr. Grant found no difficulty in getting a testimonial to his eminent fitness for it from 121 prominent members of the bar, in order to recommend him for the Chief Magistracy of the greatest American city! And he got the Chief Magistracy. He was made Mayor in spite of it all, with the power of appointing Police Commissioners, Police Justices, Commissioners of Public Works, Excise Commissioners, Health Officers, and so forth. More than this — before he had been six months in the Mayoralty he was allowed to present himself to the world as the leader of an organization which was to invite foreign nations to come here and see American civilization at its best, which was to honor in a grand fête a man who was one of the greatest glories of the human race. And he presided at the banquet in this city which celebrated the hundredth anniversary of one of the greatest achievements in American history — the framing and adoption of the American Constitution. If some ingenuous youth were to ask us where he could find a precedent or parallel for this, we should send him not to the works of Gibbon, or Hume, or Sybel, or Henri Martin, but to those of the vivacious and entertaining Offenbach. There must have been episodes like it during the destruction of the Roman Empire by the Barbarians, but the poor Romans did not elect the Barbarians to municipal offices. They let them take what they pleased, in order to save their own necks.

Our present aim, however, is not simply to expose or depreciate Mayor Grant. One of the shames and sorrows of our present situation is that public journals have to discuss anywhere but in the police reports the history and qualifications of these annual swarms of Mikes, Jakes, and Barneys, who issue forth from the haunts of vice and crime and folly to waste our substance and burlesque the Government. We recur to the subject, in the hope not of reforming the Mayor or his cronies, or of making any impression on them, but of calling the attention of decent men in this city, and especially of Republicans, once more to the consequences of sacrificing the interests of the city to the exigencies of Federal politics. Of those who do this thing, many are honorable men. They really care for the health and comfort of their fellow-citizens and for the good name of the city, and yet every now and then they act as if these were matters of no more importance to them than they are to "Barney" Martin or "Fatty" Walsh. At the three last Mayoral elections they have put up and run candidates confessedly without any expectation of electing them, well knowing that they were thereby contributing powerfully to the election of the Tammany nominee, if, indeed, they did not make it certain. They did this, too, with the full knowledge, of long experience, that this city contains what no other city in the world contains, an organization of its ignorance and vice under the control of criminal and nameless adventurers. Every city contains in its population a large modicum of ignorance and vice, but this is the only one in which ignorance and vice have been organized for public plunder, and have their General Committee, and their Executive Committee, and their Committee on Organization, and their vice-presidents, and secretaries, and clerks, and halls, and sergeants-at-arms, and claim a share in the Government. There is no more discussion of public interests in Tammany Hall than there was in the "Burnt Rag" when that "dive" was kept by "Barney" Martin, the Deputy Commissioner of Public Works. There is there no talk or thought of public offices as anything else than instrumentalities for getting money out of the public treasury, or extorting it, under color of law, from the honest and industrious. To Tammany men offices are "plums," to be distributed among the lazy, the disreputable, and vicious portion of the community in return for services largely of a criminal nature. So much work as is necessary, and no more than is necessary, to cover up theft and embezzlement and extortion is done in the various offices which Tammany controls. No respectable man would employ in any place of private trust most of the men whom it selects for salaries. It is, in fact, in most of its aspects an astonishing product of our democracy. Its composition, it is true, is largely foreign, but it contains no element which may not be found in every great city. What is peculiar about it here is, that the decent, industrious, tax-paying portion of the community does not unite against it, keep a watch on it, denounce it, expose it, prosecute it, and drive it out of sight, and allow no business or excuse to stand in the way of its extinction. On the contrary, every now and then we see alliances with it, and even apologies for it, on the part of men calling themselves "patriotic Americans." It is this tolerance or connivance, rather than Tammany's corruption, which to-day disgraces the city and State.

THE ECLIPSE IN WEST AFRICA.

CAPETOWN, January 30, 1890.

PERHAPS some account of the total eclipse will interest the *Nation*. As is known, it became necessary to establish the Expedition on the immediate coast, near Cape Ledo, and about three hundred miles below the mouth of the Congo. Here I found an ideal station—a point where the total phase would last the longest; the best of meteorological prospects; safe anchorage for the *Pensacola* in the little bay, so that the resources of the ship were at the command of the Expedition; surf so light that the instruments could be landed without too great risk; abundance of rock on the beach to build foundations with; a region where hostile natives rarely came about, and withal perfectly healthy.

It was the 8th of December when the Expedition landed there, just a fortnight before the eclipse. The work of preparation began at once and went vigorously on. The weather by day was in no sense disappointing—perfect in fact: very little rain to interfere, the intense heat of the sun screened every morning by dense clouds, while the afternoons were for the most part clear. This was most encouraging, as the eclipse would take place during the middle of the afternoon. At night, however, there was great difficulty in getting star-observations enough.

A fraction of a mile from our station was the camp of the English Expedition, in charge of Mr. A. Taylor, sent out by the Royal Astronomical Society; and near the *Pensacola*, at anchor in the bay, was the H. M. S. *Bramble*, a gunboat attending upon the Expedition, in command of Capt. Langdon, R. N. The preparations of the party were confined to the use of two instruments during the total eclipse, the lesser one having already made itself famous in the total eclipses of 1882 in Egypt, of 1883 at Caroline Island, of 1886 at Grenada, while in 1887 it was unsuccessful in Russia through clouds. The larger instrument was a silver-on-glass mirror of 20-inch diameter, and the very short focal length of 45 inches. It was constructed by Mr. Common, and was expected to afford photographic evidence of the reality of the outer extensions of the sun's corona. The men-of-war were of the greatest imaginable assistance to the Expeditions. The courtesies extended by the *Bramble* were not a few, while without the constant and hearty coöperation of Captain Yates, U. S. N., in command of the *Pensacola*, all the work of our own Expedition could never have been done.

The eclipse instruments were very numerous —some of them of unusual proportions—spectroscopes, photometers, and polariscopes for the corona, and a great variety of photographic telescopes suited to the specific ends sought in investigating not only the inner corona, but its extreme outer extensions into interplanetary space. For the most part these instruments must be kept accurately pointed on the sun. I therefore adopted the plan of securing them all between the double-fork of a huge polar axis, which was itself moved with the greatest precision by clock-work.

Then arose the problem of operating so many pieces of apparatus, for the sensitive plates must be changed, the shutter of each instrument must be opened and closed at the proper times, and a great variety of other movements must be made at the right time and over the right space. Obviously the usual method of doing it all by hand was out of the question, as there were on the one axis about five-and-twenty telescopes and cameras.

It occurred to me that the pneumatic-valve system, covered by the letters-patent of Mr. Merritt Gally, and largely used by him in the automatic playing of musical instruments, afforded an easy way out of the difficulty. Only rig the little collapsible pneumatics or bellows so that, by suitable mechanical connections, they shall do the small work required; replace the reed-pockets by flexible tubes leading to the various bellows; for the long strip of per-

forated paper ordinarily doing music-duty substitute a like strip with perforations suited sidewise to the number of the bellows, and lengthwise to the exact time the pneumatic movement is desired; then wind up the strip on a chronograph-barrel so that it shall unreel with perfect uniformity, and a pneumatic commutator is at hand whose capabilities are limited only by the size of the main exhaust-bellows and the number of independent valve-ports. The instrument I am describing had forty-eight such ports; and each small current of air, a tenth of an inch in diameter, controlled the action of an exhaust current through the connecting tubes of about twenty-five times this volume. This was the plan carried out; all the various forms of mechanical movements were built, the telescopes were adjusted into parallelism with the greatest nicety, the air tubes were connected, the control-sheet suitably perforated, and the chronograph in readiness to be set going at the precise second.

Like those before it, eclipse-day opened with a cloudy morning. The air was very damp, and a few drops of rain fell. By eleven the sky was about half clear. Less than an hour before the beginning of the eclipse, the west was perfectly clear where the sun would be at the critical period of totality. Now and then, thin cirro-cumulus nearly covered the sky, drifting slowly towards the southeast; but there were still large patches of blue. At the time of first contact, half-past one, the sun was occasionally visible through rifts in the clouds. A quarter hour later there were decided signs of clearing. All the intervals of blue sky were promptly utilized by Prof. Bigelow in getting pictures with a telescope, forty feet long, and pointed directly at the sun, the necessary and precise motion of so weighty an instrument being secured through a sand-clock having some novelties of construction.

At two o'clock, an hour before totality, the large patch of blue had moved over to the east, the clouds near the sun were thinning out, and, a quarter hour afterwards, two long strips of sky cleared in the north. Ten minutes before totality, the light of the sun was so much diminished that all the portentous conditions attending the phenomena of mid-totality began to make their appearance. Of course, these are largely of no scientific moment, and in the eager watching of the clouds few observers saw them. A minute before the beginning of the total obscuration, the light grew suddenly less, and then over the sea swept the blue-black shadow of the moon from the southwest with astonishing rapidity.

Totality was then complete. But the total eclipse was itself totally eclipsed, for a big black lazy cloud had sluggishly drifted between our camp and the beautiful corona, and stubbornly refused to move aside until the bright sunlight was again upon us. The horizon was like that of early morning, with the sun rising in dense clouds. All the southern sky was aggravatingly clear—a deep blue verging on black. Could the instruments have been suddenly transported bodily two or three miles south, the entire eclipse would have been assured in a cloudless sky.

A vessel twelve miles or more off in the southwest, and plainly in sight before totality, was invisible during the greatest obscuration. Bird-life was accurately watched for totality effects. Crows were evidently bewildered, wydahs ceased calling to each other, and swallows, which had been very numerous before the eclipse, disappeared, although the light was quite sufficient to have shown them. The diffused light of totality, by the way, was something most unusual—greatly in excess of the other total eclipses I have seen, in Texas in 1878, and Japan in 1887. At the darkest moment, the time to the second could be read with ease from the face of any ordinary watch, and the finest print would not have been hard to make out.

After the moon's shadow had swept by, on climbing above the telescopes to investigate the working of the exposing-disks, I found a mantis (*M. religiosa*) mounted in contemplation on the objective of the duplex photometer. It is matter for regret that no record of his observations is accessible, owing to our neglect to supply this entomological oddity with pencil and paper. His notions of a total eclipse would have been original, if not valuable.

But the photographic apparatus had all been set in operation at the commencement of totality, and the automatic programme played through from beginning to end with the most gratifying success. The exposures exceeded 300 in number, though the total phase lasted but a little over three minutes. No opportunity comes again till April, 1893, when, in the northeast of Brazil, a fine total eclipse will be visible for four and a half minutes, with the sun nearly overhead. Our satisfaction with this last eclipse must be largely in the fact, now demonstrated, that on like occasions in the future fifty or sixty photographic instruments can all be operated with the ease of one or two in eclipses heretofore. The field of coronal research may thus be vastly extended, and it will be entirely possible to get out of one totality in the future as much as could be learned from five or six in the past.

Another instrument of the Expedition deserves mention here on account of its unusual proportions. The 40-foot, having so excellent a clock, was rigged for corona work, of course; but, in addition to that, Prof. Langley had lent to the Expedition a 20-inch silvered mirror of the extraordinary focal length of 75 feet. This was so mounted as to throw an image of the corona into a huge camera-box set upon a cliff which lay fortunately just beneath the sun at the time of totality. Here a 10-inch image of the sun was formed with beautiful definition, and plates 20 inches by 24 of the highest sensitiveness were prepared for exposure. During totality, however, both these unusual instruments were rendered inoperative by clouds. But we were not alone in our disaster. A half hour later a messenger came across from the English camp; and it then became known that the same cloud had completely occluded their station too.

A few hours before the eclipse came on, the *Pensacola* went out to sea and stood in the centre of the eclipse-track at the time of totality for the purpose of auxiliary observations. Atmospheric conditions were slightly more favorable there than at the main station of the Expedition; but during the total phase the clouds were so thick that it is very doubtful whether the true solar corona was seen at all.

The eclipse station was completely dismantled by the 27th of December, and the *Pensacola* left Cape Ledo in the afternoon of the same day. Returning to Loanda, it was found that all three of the detached parties of the Expedition sent into the interior had also been unsuccessful: at Cunga, at Dondo, at Oeiras, and at Cazengo, clouds—also at Muxima, the location first chosen for the Expedition.

Meanwhile the collateral work of the Expedition goes steadily and successfully on, though with more vigor in some departments than others. In terrestrial physics, in meteorology, in philology, and in natural history there is already an excellent showing, and the return of the Expedition will insure large additions still. While Mr. Preston is swinging the pendulums at the Royal Observatory for determining the force of gravity, and the *Pensacola* is getting ready for the long journey of about 8,000 miles homeward, other members of the Expedition are variously engaged. Prof. Abbe is studying the striking meteorological phenomena of the world-famous Table Mountain, the naturalists are getting ready for a fortnight's stay in the interior, the philologist is deep in his researches in West African tongues, and Prof. Bigelow and myself are, by the kind courtesy of her Majesty's astronomer, Dr. David Gill, fully occupied at the Observatory. To-morrow all ordinary avocations are suspended for the unveiling of the Jubilee statue of her Majesty the Queen, at the Parliament Houses.

DAVID P. TODD.

MANÁOS, AND THE ROUTE INTO AMAZONAS.

MANÁOS, Brazil, January 1, 1890.

IT has been more than once remarked that Pará should have been situated sixteen miles nearer the sea, where stands the present town of Pinheiro. Here is a splendid harbor, capable of admitting vessels of any draught, whereas ships of 1,500 tons can now come to the anchorage ground in front of the city only when the waters are high. Moreover, all vessels bound up the Amazon must pass eastward to this point in order to enter the main estuary which leads into the west. The city of Pará is really not on the Amazon at all, but stands at the junction of the Rio Capim and one arm of the estuary of the Rio Tocantins, commonly called the Rio Pará. Having entered the estuary at Pinheiro, the great island of Marajó, called after a family whose name remains to this day familiar in Pará, is seen forming the northern shore. About seventy miles southwest of this point, the Rio Tocantins empties into the great estuary, bearing in its tide the waters of many tributaries which drain a region rich in the natural products of a tropical forest. Eighty miles west of the Tocantins are two narrow channels, each about seventy or eighty yards wide, which turn abruptly northward, forming the western boundary of the island of Marajó, and connecting with the Amazon, whose waters flow to the sea through two great channels, the Canal do Sul and the Canal do Norte, along the north of Marajó. These two narrow channels at different periods are traversed by currents flowing at one time northward, and at an another southward, depending upon the tide and upon the varying height of the rivers they unite. On the eastern channel, called Paranán, is the town of Breves, a place of much local importance, having a saw-mill and a sugar-mill, and being the centre of the rubber trade of a considerable area. Paranán having silted up to a depth of only five fathoms, large vessels now follow the western channel, Boiussu Furo, whose very existence even is not indicated upon any maps. Just where these two narrow *furos* depart northward towards the great Amazon, the estuary attains an unusual width, and stretches away to the west like a vast sea, with the horizon traced in an arc upon its bosom. This is the Bahia Portel, which, expanding and contracting many times, ends at last abruptly one hundred miles away. On its shores are the towns of Melgaço and Portel, little centres of rubber trade.

The ride through Boiussu Furo is a splendid introduction to the Valley of the Amazon, a portal enriched with all the luxuriance of

palms and vines and gorgeous foliage which the tropics can produce. Here and there against the massive forest walls will be façades of palms, columns upholding green roofs of such graceful arabesques as an Oriental monarch might waste his kingdom to reproduce. Ever and anon a delicate but enormous dome, constructed of a material which, against the clear blue sky, looks like matchless lace, rises above the level forest. These are mammoth sama-umas, the grandest and most conspicuous trees in the sylva of Brazil. The smooth white trunk towers more than a hundred feet without a branch, expending its whole strength there in this crowning effort of lace-like architecture. It is also known for the pods of silky fibre which it bears, and which has gained it the name of "cotton tree." At places where a tree has fallen one can see into the forests, but not far. Within all is black, like a cavern in which reigns the gloom of eternal night. Elsewhere the palms and vines close up the sides, embellished with blooms of many hues, which fill the breeze with delicious odors. As night draws near, the forest, which had been dumb, all at once grows wholly vocal, every bush and tree sending forth the shout and whistle of some feathered songster in an ecstasy of riotous glee. The birds of Brazil have not only beauty of plumage to recommend them, but a gift of music as sweet as any heard in Northern meadows. But soon the sun falls below the wall of the mighty woods, the bird voices hush, while a chill stealing into the air warns the stranger to have caution and retreat to the shelter of the steamer's cabin.

Such is the portal. The following dawn has wrought a change. The vessel is steaming up the broad, muddy Amazon, and the forests have become less luxuriant. But still there is grandeur in them, and the orchids have increased in number, sometimes taking almost complete possession of a lofty tree. Native huts thatched with palm-leaves are more frequent. These clearings are locally termed *fazendas*, a name equivalent to "plantation," but they are in fact nothing more than small, ill-kept tropical gardens, yielding a few bananas, some yucas, and a little mandioca, the root from which farina and tapioca are prepared. There are *fazendas* along the river worthy of the name, but the little Indian hut and clearing is far more common. On the river are many little canoes, each partly covered by a low arched canopy, or roof, of palm leaves. This is the sole means of communication, for there are no roads in the valley of the Amazon; consequently no horses, no mules, no oxen; nothing but canoes. When the canoe carries a sail, it becomes an *igarité*, and is a mark of luxury. The sails are also frequently painted red and blue, producing very artistic effects on the glassy river. They, and all canoes, are usually bent upon some mission connected with rubber, either seeking it or conveying it to market. Occasionally, as we ride close to the shore, a native may be seen "smoking" his rubber, or *borracha*, as he calls it.

The process of rubber gathering is interesting. The Indian makes three or four incisions an inch wide with a narrow hatchet, cutting barely through the bark of the tree. Under each incision he causes a little tin cup to adhere by a bit of moistened clay. Into these cups the borracha milk exudes from the wounds. He goes from tree to tree doing the same, until he has tapped as many as he can conveniently attend to in a day. He then returns to the first tree and goes the round again, collecting the milk into a bucket. Each gash will yield from two to three tablespoonfuls of the sap. This will soon coagulate if not "smoked," which process consists in pouring the milk over a paddle, or round stick, and passing it through the smoke from a fire of palm nuts, which causes it to thicken. More milk is poured upon the paddle, and treated similarly, until the successive coats have made a large ball, often eighteen inches in diameter, called a *pelle*. The nuts of the palm Inajá yield the best smoke for this purpose; but as they are not so plentiful, the nuts of the Urucury are more commonly employed. When neither can be obtained, recourse is had to the more abundant Uauassú. The peculiar virtue of this smoke has not, to my knowledge, been investigated, but the answer of an Indian that it is "o pungimento," the pungency, is significant. The smoke of wood will not serve. Great care is needed in the operation lest part of the rubber should coagulate. When this happens, the product is termed "entra fina," which is the middle grade between "borracha fina," the best, and "sernamby," which is the inferior, wholly coagulated material, as it is found oozing from the trees. Efforts have been made, and are now making, to discover some means to preserve the milk and ship it in its fluid state; but some device to insure perfect "smoking" would perhaps be an equally satisfactory solution of the problem, if the natives could be taught to use it.

The rubber is yielded by a tree very unlike the so-called rubber plant shown in Northern greenhouses. It is tall, with smooth white trunk, often somewhat crooked, and branching at the top into a thick cluster of small gnarled limbs, scantily covered with lustreless green foliage. In Brazil it is called the Seringa. Rubber gathering is the chief industry of the valley of the Amazon. Cocoa plantations and cattle ranches have been abandoned for this business, which, while it is the present sole support, is also, under the existing system, the great obstacle to the development of the resources of the country, by drawing the people away from better occupations. It constitutes the basis of all the commerce of the vast province of Amazonas.

Manáos, a city of 14,000 inhabitants, the capital of Amazonas, is apparently destined to enjoy a prosperous future. There is a growing business in rubber, the exact quantities exported being, in 1887, 1,762 tons; in 1888, 2,167 tons; in 1889, 3,252 tons, including the latest shipments—a gain of 85 per cent. in three years. There are two lines of ocean-going ships which ascend these thousand miles of Amazon River for the trade of this port. One of these lines sails direct from New York, and the number of ships will be increased during the ensuing year. Manáos is situated about nine miles from the Amazon on the east bank of the Rio Negro. In the harbor fronting the city is a depth of fifteen fathoms at low water, and during several months of the year the river rises from twenty to thirty feet higher. The town, which is built on hills of considerable height, has protected its water-front by a handsome brown-stone wall. The houses are generally low, all tile-roofed, and many cornices are ornamented with statuettes. There are three large churches, that of Matriz da Conceição being the most pretentious. It is often called the Cathedral, which, however, is a misnomer, as the two great provinces of the Amazon, Grão Pará and Amazonas, constitute a single diocese under the bishop whose seat is in the city of Pará. This building is of the usual square type with two belfries, common to the country. The church of Nossa Senhora dos Remedios is more modern in style, having a square brown-stone corniced tower, which looks very pretty among its palms, with flocks of pigeons flying in and out of the belfry windows. There are several schools, mostly parochial, and one college under Government patronage, occupying a white marble building called the Lyceum. Within this structure is also a museum, containing an excellent herbarium and a collection of curiosities.

An iron market building of American construction, the pride of Manáos, stands above the wall fronting the river. There are busy scenes here in the early morning, when the population turns out to procure supplies—men in suits of immaculate white, others in white blouse and blue trousers, negro women with baskets on their heads, and a Babel of unintelligible dialects. A list of the provisions exposed for sale here may serve to show the limitations of the cuisine in Manáos. Beef of excellent quality is always obtainable. Many varieties of fish, large and small—preipitingo, very sweet and almost boneless; tambague, and pirarucú, coarse but good; acaré, resembling the sturgeon; surubí, a beautiful fish with leopard-like markings; with more besides. Cabbages, scrawny in appearance, but mild and pleasant in flavor, are abundant. Pumpkins, squashes, beans, yams, tomatoes, cucumbers, okra, lettuce, chicory, machaxeira, the Brazilian substitute for potatoes; jurumo, like a pumpkin; maxixi, like a cucumber; carurú, a green leaf used with agreeable effect in soups; peppers of many kinds, onions, and garlic, constitute a goodly array of vegetables. Fruits are present in the usual tropical abundance. Chickens and eggs, farina and tapioca, are also prominent. It is evident that one need not fare badly in Manáos, and a little more energy in gardening could easily enlarge the list of vegetables.

Manáos is at present lighted by gasoline lamps, but a gas company has been organized and will soon put in a plant. A system of water-works is already supplying the city with pure spring water impounded in the hills near by, and an English firm, having successfully instituted a cotton mill at Ceará on the coast, will probably soon have a similar factory in operation, utilizing a *cachoeira* or waterfall, now the great picnic-ground of the Manaenses, to furnish power. One of the great disadvantages under which this city labors is the absence of banking-houses. Drafts can be purchased from several business firms having dealings with merchants in Pará, but often no money can be obtained, and rubber lies awaiting shipment until the owners can secure enough from Pará to pay the export duties. A bank in Manáos would, however, encounter severe difficulties in the prevalence of lax methods of conducting business. It is not considered a disgrace for a merchant to suffer his paper to go to protest. He simply tells you to be patient and wait a little, and in order to get your money you must exercise forbearance. Business is *never* done on a cash basis, and a man's commercial consequence is often estimated, not on the amount he owns, but on the amount he owes! His ability to obtain credit is the measure of his affluence. Moreover, a merchant of any prominence will be "matriculated," which is another stumbling-block in the way of legitimate dealing. Such a one is registered with the Board of Trade, having paid therefor a fee, and he is then entitled to many privileges, one of which is that his property cannot be attached ("embargoed") for debt, and he can be forced into bankruptcy only when three creditors proceed against him.

A better spirit is springing up here, however, and even native merchants express a desire to see the abrogation of many of the commercial

laws and regulations of the port, which now embarrass the progress of the city, and they are hoping for such reforms under the new Republican régime. Manáos already imports from the United States all the flour, soap, kerosene, candles, axes, and cutlery she uses, and there are possibilities for a large extension of our trade with this important port.

Correspondence.

THE NICKEL PARADOX.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The anti-protection scoffers—jubilant, no doubt, under the influence of British gold—have got a story here to the effect that the millionaire proprietor of our great and only nickel mine, who has preached and written *ad nauseam* to prove the blessings of a tariff on that article high enough to compel all Americans to buy only of him and at his price, has undergone a change of heart. It is said his Pennsylvania monopoly has "petered out," and he is now obliged to get his supply from Canada, and begins to think the time has come when the prohibitory duty may be advantageously removed.

Whether this delightful story be true or not, it may at least serve to remind us of the big mistake made by Providence in giving us a natural deposit of the useful article in question—that is, supposing he intended it for our benefit. As long as we possessed no nickel in our country, we were allowed to buy it wherever we could find it best and cheapest. But no sooner was that accursed Pennsylvania mine discovered and successfully grabbed than the Congressional "fat-fryers" interposed and forbade us, under penalty of heavy duties, to buy even so much as a coffin-plate, except from that particular philanthropist and at his own price.

Let us thank Heaven that a beneficent Deity has seen fit to take back the gift which has been so expensive and disastrous, and let us have prayers said in all the churches that he may deign to take back all similar natural gifts, so that we may peradventure regain the liberty enjoyed even by African savages of buying what we want wherever we wish, and at half the Congressional prices. W.

Philadelphia, March 17, 1890.

"A SIDE LIGHT ON GREEK ART."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I perfectly agree, in the main, with Mr. Stillman, the more so as I was the first to point out in the *Nation* (October 1, 1885) the fraudulent character of the terracotta groups. Since the publication of my two papers in the *Classical Review* (1888, pp. 119-123, 153-155), where I summed up the whole controversy and stated the complete literature of the question, I have come to the conviction that the single terracotta figures sold as Asiatic, Tanagræan, Corinthian, and the like are in very many cases the work of *the same forgers* who make up the now rather discredited large groups. Sitting and reclining females, Victories, and ἀστραγαλίζουσαι are particularly to be suspected. I have quoted some conspicuous forgeries of these types in a late number of the *Revue Archéologique* (July, 1889, p. 128).

Where I *do not* agree with Mr. Stillman is when he says that the large groups are imported from Smyrna. Indeed, I sternly deny this, having published in the *Revue Archéologique* (1886, vol. ii., p. 92) the official record of the seizure to which Mr. Stillman alludes. These groups had been shipped at the Peiræus on board a French steamer going to Marseilles; the cases which contained them were examined and found to originate from the shop of a celebrated Athenian dealer, now deceased. A curious proof of this was that one of the groups was wrapped up in a sheet from a periodical to which the learned dealer in question was the only subscriber in Athens. It has never been possible to retrace the *provenance* of any group further east than Athens, and I am absolutely sure, from private information, that no group of any artistic value has ever been fabricated at Smyrna. Both Hamdi Bey and Baltazzi Bey have repeatedly investigated the matter on the spot and come to the same conclusion as myself.

I have lately received some hints as to the names and nationality of the clever artists who produce that highly interesting series of forgeries. The question may arise: Why does the Greek Government not prosecute them? But the answer to this question is an easy one: The forgers are the best auxiliaries to the stringent but little observed laws which prohibit the exportation of Greek antiquities. It is a real good fortune for the Greeks that, when the law is infringed in the matter of terracottas, nine times out of ten it is but apparently infringed, the smuggled object being no antiquity at all. Every forgery sold to an enthusiastic but ignorant amateur tourist keeps a genuine antique inside the country. I have even been told that forged groups have already been offered at the Hellenic court as diplomatic presents! Be that as it may, some of these groups are so prettily made up that they will certainly maintain a serious value in the market, even when the fraud shall be—as is not yet the case—generally acknowledged.

Yours truly, Salomon Reinach.

Château de St. Germain-en-Laye (Seine-et-Oise), March 8, 1890.

GERMAN UNIVERSITY METHODS AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. George Hempl misinterprets my letter to the *Nation* of February 13 if he believes me moved by a desire to revolutionize the position of instructors in American colleges. My sole aim was to point out the peculiar advantages for special work open to young university teachers in Germany, and the comparative lack of such opportunities for the same class of teachers in this country. Mr. Hempl's objection to my taking Berlin and Munich as specimens of the German system seems to me all the more untenable as I contrasted these two largest German universities with two of the largest American universities. Nor can I admit that the *Lector* rather than the *Privatdocent* corresponds to the American instructor. The functions of the *Lector* are limited to the teaching of practice in modern languages; and of his social position one may form an idea from the fact that in the Catalogue of the University at Kiel he is classified with the fencing and the riding-master. With regard to the omission of seminary work in my comparison of the work done by professors and *Privatdocenten*, having stated that seminaries were conducted by both classes of teachers, I hardly thought that my figures could give rise to misunderstanding on that point.

Kuno Francke.

Harvard University, March 21, 1890.

"MORALE."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The correct French use of (*la*) *morale* being "moral philosophy" or "moral lesson," and of (*le*) *moral* what Shakspere would have called "mind" and we should call "heart" (*e. g.*, *lui remonter le moral*, "to put heart into him"), can any of your readers point out an explanation of our misuse of the word *morale* for "moral tone"? Or is it another blunder that must go the way of *nom de plume*, *Encore!* and *double entendre?* Yours, etc.,

I. H. B. Spiers.

Wm. Penn Charter School, Philadelphia, March 17, 1890.

Notes.

The eighth volume of Horace Howard Furness's 'Variorum Shakspere,' "As You Like It," will be published in the course of another month by J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia.

Charles Scribner's Sons announce 'The Proposed Revision of the Westminster Standards,' by Dr. Shedd; 'The Negro Question,' being Mr. George W. Cable's reply to the late H. W. Grady, in an address before the Massachusetts Club on Washington's Birthday; 'The Wife of the First Consul,' from the French of M. Imbert de Saint-Amand, by T. S. Perry; 'English Lands, Letters, and Kings,' a second volume by Donald G. Mitchell; and the following fiction: 'Little Saint Elizabeth, and Other Stories,' by Mrs. Frances Hodgson Burnett; 'The Lawton Girl,' by Harold Frederic; and 'Expiation,' by Octave Thanet.

A translation of Henryk Sienkiewicz's Polish novel, 'Fire and Sword,' by Jeremiah Curtin, is in the press of Little, Brown & Co.

The Albany Book Company will publish 'The Princess of Montserrat,' a tale of modern adventure in the Caribbean Sea, by William Drysdale, who has a wide acquaintance with the West India Islands.

'The Diaries and Letters of Sir Moses and Lady Montefiore,' in two octavo volumes, are to be issued on this side of the water by Belford-Clarke Co.

Mr. Bryce's chapter on "The Absence of a Capital" in the United States of course notices Washington's deficiency as a literary centre. Naturally, that city's literary productiveness, such as it is, is more or less closely related to the Government departments lodged there, and for this the Public Printer suffices. When Mr. Henry Adams, however, for example, was ready to admit the general reader to his 'History of the United States,' of which the third and fourth volumes have just appeared, Washington, though the fittest imprint in the whole country for such a work, had no publishing-house of national fame and standing. We have always regarded it as a serious drawback to the merited popularity of Mr. James Schouler's 'History of the United States'—a much more compendious work than the foregoing—that it was published at our so-called capital. By a recent change Mr. Schouler has removed the publication to this city, and we have from Dodd, Mead & Co. the four volumes thus far issued, from 1783 to 1847. The plates have, of course, been reëmployed, but the page has a more liberal margin allowed it, and the new binding is a great improvement upon the old. We trust that the work, which awaits a fifth volume for its completion, will now enter the channels of trade with more directness and prestige.

Two years ago we spoke at some length and in praise of the agreeable little work on 'Colo-

nial Times on Buzzard's Bay,' by William Root Bliss (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The popular favor it met with directly has led the author to prepare a new and somewhat enlarged edition, to which we still wish he had seen fit to add an index. As the New Jersey 'Story of an Old Farm,' which we lately noticed, was constructed around the fortunes of the Mellick family (the author's), so Mr. Bliss finds his central core in the archives of the Fearing family (his wife's). The narrative thus gains both in personal interest and in authenticity. The book is very prettily made up.

Dodd, Mead & Co. accompany a reprint of Mr. Frank Stockton's 'The Great War Syndicate' with the same writer's laughable 'Stories of the Three Burglars,' which has already seen the light in the Boston *Transcript*, if our memory serves us. Both illustrate the peculiar quality of Mr. Stockton's humor, and more need not be said.

The latest issues of the "Carisbrooke Library" (Geo. Routledge & Sons) include 'The English Prose Writings of John Milton,' exclusive of his replies to opponents, and 'Early Prose Romances.' The editor, Mr. Henry Morley, contributes to the former an introduction which is in the main a biography, with special reference to the public occasions of these writings. He observes that one reason for the neglect of Milton's prose is that the subjects discussed in them have largely ceased to be questions, since the reforms suggested have been carried out; but this does not make the papers useless, since they deal with great principles in a broad way, independent of their noble eloquence, and it is therefore not without hope of interesting the public that he has included them in this Library in a cheap, well-printed, and convenient form. Such an edition has long been a desideratum. The second volume, 'Early Prose Romances,' comprises in the contents Reynard the Fox, Friar Bacon, Robert the Devil, Guy of Warwick, Virgilius, History of Hamlet, Friar Rush, and a few of the Hundred Merry Tales. The text is from early English editions, and is accompanied by a bibliographical introduction. The English is not modernized, but is not difficult even for the general reader. The collection represents very well the story-telling of the age, and there is a directness in the narrative which is lost in the modern renderings, together with the charm of simplicity.

Mr. Angelo Lewis, who still uses the pen name of "Prof. Hoffmann," has now published yet another work on modern magic—this time on 'Tricks with Cards' (F. Warne & Co.). Mr. Lewis is distinctly the foremost authority on conjuring in our time, and he knows how to impart his information to the ignorant. The "Charlier Chaplet," for example (the workings of which are explained on page 60), enable an adroit performer with imagination and the dramatic faculty to outdo the strangest feats of the spiritualists. This Charlier chaplet is what is most novel in 'Tricks with Cards,' which necessarily contains much that is familiar to all who have studied the art; but it is only fair to say that "Prof. Hoffmann" has given us quite the best book on the subject: clear, comprehensive, and almost complete.

In the last number of Mr. J. H. Hickcox's Monthly Catalogue of United States Government Publications (Washington), we read that the Commissioner of Labor has had printed the results of his investigations on the subject of marriage and divorce in this country, making a volume of more than 1,000 pages. Pending authority from Congress to print an edition for general distribution, the Commissioner can respond only to special requests for this report.

We have received the preliminary announcement of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, whose headquarters are in Philadelphia, and whose president is Prof. E J. James of the University of Pennsylvania, with a general advisory committee, weightily composed, from all sections of the country. This organization dates from December 14, 1889, and the objects intimated in its title will be pursued in such aspects, chiefly, as other societies do not entertain, or else neglect, as sociology, constitutional and administrative law, philosophy of the State, and some portions of the field of politics. Publication is contemplated, regular meetings will be held, a library established, etc. Endowments are called for to supplement annual and life-membership fees. The Corresponding Secretary is R. P. Falkner, Germantown, Pa.; the Treasurer Stuart Wood, No. 400 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.

Funk & Wagnalls have started a weekly eclectic paper called the *Literary Digest*, a sort of American *Review of Reviews*, but with more of condensation and abridgment than of abstracting. Thus the *North American* controversy between Gladstone and Blaine is cut down to two pages and a quarter of the *Digest*. This may be edifying to people who want the kernel, but it of course destroys all intellectual pleasure and profit, to say nothing of the chance of misrepresentation. Other departments are mere imitations of *Public Opinion*, or, as in the case of the "Book Digests," simple reviews conspicuous in the first number for the absence of excerpts. There is a useful index to periodical literature, a record of current publications, and a diary of current events.

The *Portfolio* (Macmillan), having completed in 1889 a course of twenty years, opened with the January number a new series, preserving the same form, but enlarged in the number of pages, with bolder type and a columnless page. Mr. Hamerton gracefully reviews the history of this best of English art journals, bringing to view the editorial collaboration which he, who "never lived in England more than three months at a time," has had from Mr. Richmond Seeley, and renewing the purpose of the *Portfolio* to avoid militant criticism, and to do something "to bring artists and the public nearer together." The January number is remarkable further for the beginning of a series of illustrated articles on the British Seas, of which the text is furnished by that novelist of the main, W. Clark Russell, and for the first of two articles on Walter Crane, by F. G. Stephens, likewise fully illustrated. In the February number Mr. Hamerton's review of Mr. Pennell's sumptuous work on 'Pen Drawing' is an excellent example of his temper and discrimination, and will be gratefully welcomed by the wood-engraving fraternity, who, for the rest, find scant employment in the *Portfolio's* illustrations. Incidentally Mr. Hamerton throws light on the helio-processes of etching — photo-etching they might well be called; and he has also a word for English catholicity in art as opposed to French ignorance of and indifference to art beyond their own frontiers. The etched plates of these three numbers confirm the promise to maintain the *Portfolio's* standard in this particular. We are glad to learn that an index of the twenty volumes is in preparation, and that the American circulation of the *Portfolio* is a significant part of the whole. In the March issue Mr. Hamerton reviews M. E. Müntz's 'Histoire de l'Art pendant la Renaissance.'

L'Art (Macmillan) entered with 1890 upon its sixteenth year, with no change of character or dress, and nothing startling in its prospectus, which promises particular attention to the artistic progress of "the great secular republic of the United States." To the issue for February 15 M. Adolphe Jullien contributes a very agreeable article, illustrated with his peculiar aptness, on Eugène Renduel, the memorable publisher of the Romantic school of French writers, who ended his days as a country gentleman amid his trees and his garden. We have portraits of himself and wife, a view of his château at Beuvron, and vignettes from his publications. "C'était presque une promesse, un brevet de célébrité que d'être édité par lui," says M. Jullien. Would that all publishers had the ambition to win a like epitaph.

Artistic Japan, of which the American edition is published at No. 220 Fifth Avenue, New York, is issued in its tardy monthly fashion, attaining its latest and seventeenth number just now, though it bears date October, 1889. The full-page plates are numerous in this and the preceding numbers, and cover a large part of the field of decorative art in Japan—stuff patterns, flowers, birds, landscape, statuary. In the September number there is a very interesting group of ivory carvings, masterly in execution and humorous without exception. The text is interspersed with designs generally having some pertinency, as in the case of the articles on Hiroshigé (August and September), or Philippe Burty's on Japanese pottery (October). They seem to us, however, rather distracting to the reader.

Vom Fels zum Meer (F. W. Christern) has a department likely to be self-sustaining for some time. It is styled "Physiognomical Correspondence"; and a beginning is made by some good-looking young woman, or her admirers, sending in a photograph to Prof. Isenbeck, who then writes down her character for the benefit of the magazine readers, who, of course, have the portrait for comparison. This disciple of Lavater is unduly susceptible for his office. He even calls for ice-water to check his ardor of expression.

A map of North Britain, one of Eastern Europe—say the scene of the next explosion of the Eastern Question—and another of the Western Balkan peninsula make up part ix. of the new "Stieler's Hand-Atlas" (New York: Westermann). On the second sheet is interpolated a map of the Southern Ural region.

Mr. G. L. Feuardent comes to the rescue of the discredited Tanagra figurines, in the *Studio* of March 15, in opposition both to Mr. Stillman and to Mr. Reinach, whose letter we print in another column.

—The April *Atlantic* opens with the first of two papers upon "Some Popular Objections to Civil-Service Reform," by Oliver T. Morton. It is written with great vigor, and gains in clearness by the division of the subject-matter into well-defined chapters, each of which deals briefly with some special phase of the opposition to the reform. In this way Mr. Morton successfully examines the weight of truth and argument contained in such statements as that the reform is a step backward to the discarded methods of the founders of the Government, that it is undemocratic, that it is an English importation and better harmonizes with English theories of administration, that examination is not a perfect means of selecting the most capable servants, and so forth. The remarks he makes are trenchant and uncompromising, and serve to make more widely known the results of reform thinking upon these branches of the subject; indeed, his article is an excellent summary of that thinking, and shows an advanced stage of the general argument in the public

mind. Prof. Thayer contributes a remarkably forcible example of the way in which prepossessions affect the mind's judgment, even in the region of applied law and under the restrictions of legal procedure; he tells the history of two great cases of trial for witchcraft, viewing them wholly from a legal point of view, and discusses in general the application of the machinery of justice to things supernatural when the verdict is to be given by a jury. The paper is an admirable illustration of what may be called social psychology. A third very striking article is upon the constitution and governmental methods of the Belgians, in which the extraordinary success of that nation, though Catholic, in securing liberty, is well brought out, and the impending crisis by which liberalism, in fulfilling itself by grant of universal suffrage, threatens its own destruction, is foreshadowed. The discussion of the education and ballot laws is especially timely. The remainder of the number is of the usual calibre.

—We mentioned last week Mr. Henry Sargent Codman's zealous and careful essay towards a bibliography of landscape gardening in *Garden and Forest* for March 12. A closer examination of it enables us to point out some curious omissions. The work was "prepared in the library of the British Museum, in the Bibliothèque Nationale, and in other private and public libraries." Yet, singularly enough, it does not include a number of works that are in the Boston Athenæum, only three or four miles from the compiler's dwelling. They are: 1763, Chambers, W., 'Plans of the Gardens at Kew'; 1785, 'Elements of modern Gardening'; [182– ?], Taylor, I., 'Decorations for Parks and Gardens'; 1826, Fosbrooke, T. D., 'The Tourists' Grammar; or, Rules relating to Scenery, including an Epitome of Gilpin's Principles of the Picturesque'; 1842, R. Brown, "Instruction on the Art of Laying Out and Ornamenting Grounds" [in his 'Domestic Architecture']; 1866, Copeland, R. M., 'Supplement to the Fifth Edition of Country Life'; 1869, Lefèvre, A., 'Les Parcs et les Jardins'; 1886, Parey, P., 'Verlagskatalog,' a booksellers' catalogue, *i. e.*, so far as it goes, a bibliography. Probably nearly every one of these is in the British Museum, but as those libraries, like most European libraries, have no subject-catalogue, they were hidden from Mr. Codman. The existence of a subject-catalogue at the Boston Athenæum, however, made it possible to add them to his list in a few minutes. Some twenty years ago, a European professor complained in our columns of the cost of the great subject-catalogue of Harvard College Library, and urged the use of bibliographies in their place. We showed at the time the insufficiency of the substitute for the needs of American libraries, pointing out that there are no bibliographies of a majority of subjects; that those which exist are getting more and more out of date every year, and can only be made to include the latest publications by the very inconvenient device of supplements; that a bibliography at the best is a very clumsy tool, since one must first find out what books there are on a subject, and then enter upon another investigation to ascertain if they are in the library; and now we may add that a bibliography even executed with care is sure to have some gaps. Suppose any one had been dependent upon Mr. Sargent's list to get at the landscape-gardening books in the Boston Athenæum; he would have missed half of them. We have one other criticism to make. Mr. Sargent endeavored to include all articles and reviews except such as appeared in horticultural and agricultural journals. The exception is reasonable and indeed necessary; but it seems to us that a complete bibliography ought at least to give a list of these journals. As it is now, the inquirer has in this bibliography no clue whatever to the existence and whereabouts of the articles and reviews in question.

—The meeting of the Society of Authors was held in Willis's Rooms, London, on February 27. No business of special interest was transacted. The annual report was read, but, though the power as well as the work of the Society seems to be increasing, there was nothing of great note to record. Authors have received advice, MSS. have been read, warnings against dishonest publishers given, and thus the first object of the Society—the maintenance, definition, and defence of literary property—has been in a measure accomplished. But towards the promotion of international copyright, another of its objects, and one in which Americans are much more interested, little has been done. The matter has been left in the hands of a competent committee, composed of eminent lawyers, and a "Bill to amend and to consolidate Domestic Copyright, or to place International Copyright upon a more satisfactory basis, has been for some time in the hands of the Board of Trade." It is worth while calling the attention of American publishers to the fact that the Society has been in communication with the Secretary of State for the Colonies on the open sale of American pirated editions which is said to prevail in many of them. An assurance has been obtained that in one, the Straits Settlement, the law shall be rigorously enforced, and an inquiry is being made as to the state of affairs in all the others so that the necessary action may be taken. The Society has published two of the books it promised last year. One, on 'The Cost of Production,' for private circulation only, contains much useful information about the charges for printing, paper, binding, etc., but it is far from being complete. No particulars are furnished as to the cost of illustrations, though nowadays one-third of the books published are illustrated, and nothing whatever is said about fine editions. The other book is a 'Note on the Société des Gens de Lettres,' giving a sketch of the origin and growth of the French organization, and its rules and regulations.

—Mr. Worthington C. Ford's edition of the Writings of Washington (Putnams) has reached its fifth volume. The fourth deals wholly with the year 1776, and leads from the evacuation of Boston to the loss of New York after the battle of Long Island—and after the Declaration of Independence. In the fifth volume the surprise of Trenton and the subsequent brilliant operations of the commander-in-chief are the surpassing features of Revolutionary progress. Both volumes end gloomily—the one, with the patriot army on the eve of dissolution in consequence of the expiration of enlistments; the other, with the distraction caused by the British expedition against Philadelphia and the approach of Burgoyne from the North. In vol. iv. we remark Washington's incidental testimony to the powerful effect of Paine's 'Common Sense' (April 1, 1776), his familiar allusion to "Old Put," and his desire to call in the aid of the Eastern Indians of Massachusetts (*i. e.*, Maine), as an offset to the acts of the British in making use of foreign mercenaries and in exciting slaves and savages to arm against the Revolutionists. In vol. v. we have a fresh defence of the character of the Eastern troops against "illiberal reflections" prevalent in Virginia. "No people fly to arms readier than they do, or come better equipped, or with more regularity into the field than they." Nor do "any of the States produce better men, or persons capable of making better soldiers." But "they are (generally speaking) most wretchedly officered," since the policy of the States has been to obliterate the distinction between officers and soldiers, and "to level men as much as possible to one standard." Washington also declares the Hessians more merciful than the British, who are rumored to be about to reinforce themselves with Russians, and Washington thinks them quite capable of employing "Russians, or any other barbarians." In another letter, desiring a bodyguard, he prefers "natives" (of New Jersey) to "foreigners" (natives of other States). To Washington we owe, on the advice of Knox, the selection of Springfield, Mass., as the seat of the Government "laboratory and cannon-foundery." By what we must consider an error of judgment, of which the editor himself confesses misgivings, Mr. Ford has incorporated with the genuine letters of Washington the forged letters of 1776. They are, to be sure, printed in smaller type, but they are placed in the body of the work, and inserted chronologically with the genuine letters, as if the dates had an historic value. Mr. Ford has since done what would have been sufficient for these lying productions: he has made them into a monograph which is issued by the Historical Printing Club, 97 Clark Street, Brooklyn.

—"The reason," writes a correspondent from Washington, "why negroes do not read fiction, poetry, and works of humor, is not far to seek. Every one acquainted with their character testifies that they are bent upon improvement. Having learned, amid many difficulties, to read at all, they do not select books for the purpose of passing away the time. As they take a very serious view of life, and consider ecclesiastical or political prominence the most desirable of all things, they naturally seek information on law, on government, on theology. It will be found that everywhere negroes readily buy the 'Library of Universal Knowledge'—a book which, for the money, contains, as they think, more useful information than any other. Those of a little higher type select the writings of the ancients, Plato, Aristotle, and Cicero, because they wish to excite admiration for their elocutional accomplishments and for their sound views on sociological and political matters. The librarian of one of our largest departments in Washington has for many years studied the literary tastes of the colored people who are allowed to use the miscellaneous collection of books under her charge. Her testimony is that their first choice usually is a book relating to the duties of the citizen, the methods of the public speaker, or the problems of ethics. Their next choice is a biographical or historical volume. They never select for their own reading any light or polite literature. In fact, every book drawn by them is meant to equip them as parliamentarians, politicians, or divines. The humor of it is to hear demands made by most ignorant negroes for the ponderous tomes of erudite scholars. One of this class, who rejected with indignation the offer of 'something in the way of biography,' because he was 'tired of all this chography anyhow,' gladly jumped at the 'Life of Wesley.' Another recently demanded the 'Life of Sourcrout.' He was promptly supplied with 'Socrates.' Fiction is under the ban of their churches, for nearly all negroes are either Baptists or Methodists. But this does not account for their apathy towards merely exciting,

amusing, or agreeable literature. The real reason is to be found in the negro's mental disposition and late entrance into the intellectual life. By knowledge he hopes to rise; he therefore wishes his share of it to be solid and extensive. But, above all, he craves that sort which will enable him to dazzle, to persuade, and to control bodies of men. The church rules are really needed only for the women. A few of them, it is said, read novels."

THE FIRST AMERICAN TRANSLATION OF 'WAR AND PEACE.'

War and Peace. By Count Lyof N. Tolstoy. From the Russian by Nathan Haskell Dole. Four vols. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

In noticing these volumes it is not necessary to say anything about the work of Count Tolstoi. That is a subject which has been discussed, as a whole, overmuch, in superfluous prefaces and otherwise, when one takes into consideration that the critics have lacked the fundamental requisites for forming an adequate judgment, namely, acquaintance with Russian life or language, or both.

Up to the present time the English-reading public has been obliged to found its opinion of 'War and Peace' on the mangled and otherwise seriously defective version through the French which was published several years ago, just as they are still obliged to derive their ideas as to the author's other great work, 'Anna Karenin,' from a similar version. The present translation—if such a piebald mixture can fairly be called a translation—is from the Russian, and is distinguished by the same vicious practices for which the translator's work is well known, and which becomes more marked with every fresh attempt of his to render a foreign language into English. In 'Anna Karenin' *nu*, *da*, *akh*, and *okh*, all of which words possess perfect English equivalents, were there sprinkled liberally over the pages, as if for the purpose of proving that the version had been made from the original, whereas the only result was the irritation of readers. In 'War and Peace' this system is exaggerated to the extent of introducing nearly one hundred Russian words, which are never translated at all, or are translated once, after which the unhappy reader is left to flounder on in the dark, if his memory fails him, or if he has not sufficient experience of the translator's methods and sufficient presence of mind to note down a glossary for himself. No one ever presumes to offer such work to the public, under the name of "translation," from the French or German. It would not be tolerated for a moment, although it would be much more excusable (though utterly inexcusable), in view of the larger proportion of persons who have at least a smattering of those tongues wherewith to eke out the translator's ignorance. One infers ignorance in the present instance rather than a desire to add "local color" because of the significant fact that, in every case where "local color," *i. e.*, delicate and characteristic national touches, occurs in the original, the translator has ruined it. In some cases a faithful rendering of the printed words was alone required to bring out the true sense; and the printed words are deliberately ignored, or reversed to conform to what the translator thinks Tolstoi ought to have said. In other cases the ignorance is involuntary, not wilful; but it equally annihilates the meaning.

Another point which deserves severe criticism is the manner in which the French phrases are handled. "For the amusement or gratification of the cultured reader," says the curious preface, "some of the polyglot conversation so characteristic of the story, as it was characteristic of educated Russians *two generations ago* [the italics are ours], has been relegated to footnotes." If this were so, we should have but little to say, except that footnotes are an abomination in anything but a scientific work, or when strictly national localities, viands, and so on, which have no English equivalent, require a word of explanation. Or if every French word except, possibly, *mon cher*, *ma chère*, *au revoir*, and *adieu* had been translated and printed in the text, in italics, the problem of illustrating "characteristic conversation" would have been thoroughly solved. As it is, no settled plan has been pursued, and the average reader will emerge from his struggle with the book with aching head and temper. Sometimes the phrase is repeated in the text in both French and English; sometimes the French is added in a footnote, as per preface, sometimes the English; sometimes one-half of the phrase is translated while the other half is not. To quote only one instance: Julie Karaguin's letter to the Princess Marya, which is pure French in the original, is reproduced in a fantastic and arbitrary mosaic of French and English, of the translator's own devising. The most effective comment on this process is furnished by Count Tolstoi's own action in changing everything into Russian in the latest editions, with the exception of perhaps one French or German word to one hundred thousand Russian.

Before proceeding to illustrate the literary offences above alluded to, and others, by a few examples, another word must be devoted to the footnotes. As we have said, footnotes are a dizzy abomination, only to be pardoned by imperative necessity and vindicated by their accuracy of information, whereas, in these volumes, they are absurd. Why should the wretched reader have his paragraph ruined and his head made to swim by being forced to see in the footnote that "a short jacket" is thus and so in Russian? Who cares which of the half-dozen Russian equivalents has been used by Tolstoi for "my dear fellow," or what the Russian is for "good-bye"? And why is not "my God" as suitable for the text as for a footnote? If the words are properly translated from the French or Russian, a footnote is a superfluous bane. This affectation of scrupulous exactness is ludicrously out of keeping with the more or less glaring errors which adorn the pages in countless number and variety, and the explanatory notes merely render blackness blacker. Nothing, for instance, could be further from the truth than that *kumatch* is "a sort of fustian"; that a *kalatch* is "a sort of pretzel or light loaf"; or that a *klobuk* is a "cowl"; while the comment upon the form of the names *Bezukhoi*, *Bezukhoff*, employed, frankly professes ignorance of a very simple matter. An *ekteniya* is by no means "a liturgical prayer for the Imperial family"; a *likhatch* is not "a good driver of horses"—and so on. The examples which follow may be classified as obscurities, absurdities, mistranslations, omissions, additions ("substituting the curved line of beauty for the straight line of duty," which the translator reprehends in others while arrogating his own right to it—see the preface); American slang, bad grammar, ignorance of words, customs, and idioms; wilful or ignorant spoiling of local color; and mixed cases which belong under more than one of these heads. The reader will be able to fit the few assorted specimens which space permits us to give into one or more of these categories for himself, when not indicated.

Passing lightly over the "diamond-buckled shoes" of chapter i., in the place of "low shoes" or "pumps"—the "buckled" having been derived from the French version, and the "diamond" from the translator's own imagination—let us proceed to "rattled off in a stream of talk" for "began to talk"; "they had disagreed about remedies, one preferring one thing, one another," for "they had tried one thing after another"; "he could not find enough to say in praise of" for "he praised"; "still with a smile on his handsome lips" for "with a smile"; "he was fond of running down pedestrians on the street-crossings"—the added "street-crossings" being an absurdity in winter in Moscow; "realized the new delight which was awaiting him" for "found pleasure in it." A fondness for adjectives, particularly of the boarding-school-girl type, results in such phrases as "how *elegantly* he dances," "an *unnaturally* low tone," "*nice* new uniform," "*silken* dresses," where there are no adjectives in the original, and in "a *lovely* relative," for a *fine* relative, a "*lovely*-looking priest" for *good-looking*, and so on. Among the words left in Russian, presumably through ignorance, are, *flügel-adjutant*, *sarafan*, *kasha*, *vozok*, *shubka*, *denshchik*, *kulebyaka*, *leib-hussar*, *shchi*, *afishki*, *kabak*, and so forth. Among those thrown in for company are: *akh*, *okh*, *papenka*, *mamenka*, *politzeimeister*, *general-marsch*, *kompanyonka*, *guvernantka*, *intrigantka*, *dusha moya* (always wrongly accented), *Avstriak*, *Polyak*, *Prusak* (Mr. Dole seems to have been in doubt whether it meant a Prussian or a cockroach), and many others. By a sacrifice of sense to rhyme, "No love is lost 'Twixt Russia and frost," is furnished as the translation, while the real translation, "Russia and summer have no alliance," is supplied in the note as a "variant"! Making havoc with the most characteristic details, the translator represents sheepskin coats as "buttoned," which they never are, and as "lined" (with nankeen cloth and so on), while Tolstoi correctly describes them as "covered." He treats Prince Vasily's fur-lined coat as trimmed with fur; dresses hussars in "wide, sagging pantaloons," makes *sukhari* "biscuit" and "hardtack," both being equally wide of the mark; makes the "glazed vestibule" "mirror-lined"; makes gentle Princess Marya say "beastly," instead of "inhuman," and makes Pierre throw the bear and policeman into the Moscow River instead of the Moïka Canal—a trifling error of 611 versts! He makes Natasha "gentle," which she never was, instead of "slender," makes her "snicker out loud," instead of "jump up," endows her with an impossible "bang" and "pug," and Sonya with a "switch" (clearly false hair) instead of a "braid." He trims Hélène's dress with smilax instead of ivy; calls her "Ellen," a form unknown in Russian society of the time, and which, if the name be so transliterated from the original, demands that *Pierre* should be rendered as *Piyer*. He persistently employs the Russian feminine of surnames, Rostova, Bolkonskaya, and so on, which no Russian ever uses in English or French. He renders "he had just been entered in the Line and immediately transferred to the Guards" as "he had lived some years waiting to be transferred from the Line." "That look of escape from the ills of life with which wretched people regard their labors" is beautified into "he had been working for dear life, just as wretched people, in their efforts to save themselves from the wretchedness of their lives, take up any occupation that comes to hand."

When Pierre is a prisoner, he is described as having shoes of "goatskin," which the reader will probably regard as too commonplace to

deserve mention, and rightly. What Tolstoi says is, that he had shoes made from the raw bullock's hide from a bale of overland tea. The sledge-driver is said to "wind his whip round a peasant's neck" (instead of striking the peasant), a feat quite impossible of accomplishment. The Virgin's face is represented as "tarnished," which is never the case, instead of "black," which is true of old images, and he has her borne on "carved staves," a pure invention, instead of "with towels," as plainly printed. The hour of the day is mistranslated in every case; the ninth hour, for example, being not "nine," but eight o'clock. *Zal* is neither a ball-room, drawing-room, music-room, nor parlor, as it is rendered in turn, at random. Tolstoi describes the ball-gowns of Natasha and Sonya as being "of a cloudy white material (tulle) over pink silk slips." The translator gives them "pink silk overskirts" and "crêpe" in an impossible combination, and makes Natasha always "chassée" across a ball-room—a most extraordinary performance, for which Count Tolstoi is not responsible. Ignorance of idiom leads to a literal rendering of "to carry these robbers through clean water" and "if a cat were to run between us"; to "Beauty does not make sweetness, but sweetness makes beauty," in place of "You are beautiful because you are dear, not dear because you are beautiful"; and to "Where are the Anferoffs?" instead of "The Anferoffs indeed!"

Natasha is represented as going to another cottage to see Prince Andrei. Even if one be ignorant of the construction of a peasant house, the context shows that this is false. The French are said to have stolen a holy image, whereas they never took anything but the silver or gold settings. The priest is described as officiating "with honeyed unction"—a thing which a Russian priest never does—instead of "the gentle solemnity" which is peculiar to him; while the purple-velvet *skufya* is rendered, "lilac velvet calotte," a very different matter. The deacon is said to have "pressed his cross to his heart," and "crossed himself on the front of his stole," two absurdities only to be surpassed by the rendering of "May the net come upon them without their knowing it, and take them unawares," as " . . . and may the draught of fish which they meant to take surround them on all sides." One feels inclined to inquire what was the outcome of this peculiar position between the surrounding fish and the Lord's "slaves," as "servants" is carelessly given. Another attempt at translating Slavic results in, "Let thy bounty and thy mercy guard us as from everlasting to everlasting," instead of, "Remember thy bounty and thy mercy, which are from everlasting," and so forth.

The two merchants are represented as "setting out on a pilgrimage to the shrine of St. Makarii," instead of to the fair, which is now held at Nizhni-Novgorod, and which is still known as "Makariya," because it was formerly held at a place of that name. One wonders why the *Granovitaya palata* was not rendered "the county jail." It would have been quite as near the truth as "Court of the Exchequer." "You might have had some pity on your children" appears as "you've had a great longing for your children," while *ryabtchik* is stated to be woodcock. Tikhon is said to have "his legs high wrapped in *lapti*" (*lapti* being bast slippers), and as being able, "with absolute certainty, to split a brain with his hatchet at any distance (!), and, taking it by the but [*sic*], cut out dainty ornaments or carved spoons," whereas he really could merely "split a beam with a full swing of his ax, cut pegs," and so on. Pierre is made to say of his wife that "she had never been loved in her whole life for anything but her body," instead of "she had loved nothing but her own body all her life"; and "a batiste shirt evidently but just donned" is "evidently only intended for summer," while "a deep, antiphonal bass" by no means represents the "voice like a protodiakon," and the "black *lepeshki* with buttermilk" of Tolstoi are as different a thing from the "wheat-flour cakes" of the translator as the way in which a Cossack's hair is really cut from the "close-cropped, leaving a tuft," of the improvised English.

Of the various omissions we may allude to divers characteristic epithets referring to Princess Liza, and to a long paragraph in vol. ii., p. 374, which evidently proved too much for the translator. American slang is represented by "That's a great note!" (instead of "Very fine indeed!"); "He took no stock in Zdrzhinsky's story," instead of "He was not pleased with Z's story"; "Training with the cub," instead of "making a turmoil with," and so on. In the question of grammar, we should like to have, among others, the sentences "If it is admitted, as the historians do," and "It makes you dizzy even on a staircase" (vol. i., p. 38), either construed or retranslated.

It will be seen that "local color" would have existed in abundance had more knowledge of language, customs, chronology, more care and more discretion, been used, without resorting to any such devices as the employment of *barin*, *shef-zhendarmof*, *nachalniks*, and so on in the text, and *golubtchik*, the Russian for "a fancy-dress ball," etcetera, in the footnotes. If we do not translate some of the words incorrectly rendered, and quoted above, it is because we do not regard it as our duty to teach the translator Russian any more than we consider it to be his office to force Russian words on the public. In short, owing to these defects and to the false methods for which the translator has already been widely criticised in less offensive cases, these volumes cannot be said to be designed for the *English-reading* public at all, but merely for a few persons who are fairly well acquainted with French and Russian. The position of the person not thus qualified who undertakes the task may be justly compared to that of an unskilled rider who goes to the riding-school for a lesson in equitation in an easy and pleasant ring, and who finds himself suddenly and treacherously launched into a steeplechase course, and left to flounder on helpless and alone. The verdict of the unhappy wight will be apt to assume the form of expression which the present translator applies to the people whom he accuses (and justly) of his own faults: "Here the old law of an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth, repudiated by Count Tolstoi, ought to have a new application!" But the victim will infallibly make the old Scriptural application.

Manual of Ancient Sculpture. By Pierre Paris, late member of the École Française at Athens. Edited and augmented by Jane E. Harrison. With 187 illustrations. 12mo, pp. xvi and 369. London: Grevel; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1890.

M. PARIS'S 'La Sculpture Antique' adds one more treasure to the invaluable "Bibliothèque de l'Enseignement des Beaux Arts." Like its predecessors, it is intended as an introduction, of the most popular kind, to those who know nothing about its subject, and who wish for no more than a general knowledge. The best gift of a teacher of this class is an ability to squeeze the juice out of an enormous mass of material, and administer it in doses that shall be at the same time palatable and nourishing. This gift M. Paris seems to possess to an eminent degree. To compress into the limits of a small duodecimo volume all the salient points in the development of Egyptian, Oriental, Greek, and Roman sculpture, in such a way as to give those entirely unfamiliar with the subject an adequate and unconfused impression, is no small undertaking, yet this M. Paris has accomplished—we will not say completely, as that would be to perform the impossible, but certainly satisfactorily.

It was a fault of Collignon's 'Archéologie Grecque' that it attempted too much. The reader's mind became bewildered among the many new facts and names that it encountered on almost every page, and he was left at the end with a feeling that the subject was too large for the book. This fault M. Paris skilfully avoids. With a style as clear and entertaining as Collignon's, he confines himself to fewer facts, and more generalization from these facts. From each of the epochs he selects only a few of the monuments that best illustrate its characteristics, and, using these as a sort of text, points out the features of the epoch, school, or master to which they belong so clearly that it seems as though his object must be accomplished, even with the most casual reader; while those who read the book carefully will find themselves well equipped for an intelligent visit to any gallery of ancient sculpture. His summary of the characteristics of Egyptian art especially, in the various phases of its development, or rather of its decline, seems to us a masterpiece in its way. The book treats of Egyptian, Oriental, and Greek sculpture, with a final chapter upon sculpture in Etruria and Rome; and though for his materials he has been largely dependent upon the books of Maspero, Babelon, Perrot and Chipiez, and others, he has been admirably successful in getting out of the works mentioned just so much as was needed for his purpose. We know of no short manual of ancient sculpture that can be so confidently recommended to beginners.

Miss Harrison's translation, or "edition," as she calls it, is on the whole well done, and may be used profitably by those unable to read the original, though there are occasional slips in the translation which result in erroneous statements, as, for example, on p. 182, where she speaks of an Apollo of Kalamis "found at the Ceramicus in Athens." No statue of Kalamis has ever been found, and no Apollo has been found in the Ceramicus at Athens. Paris's expression is "qui se trouvait au Céramique," which of course means that the statue formerly stood there.

Much more serious than this, however, are the liberties which Miss Harrison has taken with the original text, and, however trifling these may be in themselves, it would be manifestly unjust to the author to pass them over unnoticed, especially as Miss Harrison herself has done so. An editor or translator has certainly no right to substitute his own opinions for those of his author without giving due and specific notice of the fact, yet this Miss Harrison has done in too many instances to be quoted here, though we may give one or two by way of illustration. Speaking of the *columnæ cœlatæ* at Ephesus, M. Paris says (p. 264):

"Celle que M. Wood a rapportée au Musée Britannique, par l'ingénieux groupement des figures, le modelé délicat des nudités viriles, la richesse et la grâce des draperies féminines, n'est pas indigne du maître, sans qu'on ose affirmer que l'œuvre soit justement la sienne."

This, in the English edition, appears as follows (p. 266):

"The best preserved, which Mr. Wood has taken to the British Museum, is, however, quite unworthy of the master, and, happily, cannot be proved to be his."

Again, speaking of the head of the Hermes of Praxiteles, M. Paris says (p. 281):

"Vue de face, vue de profil, elle ne rappelle en rien ce type de convention qu'on nomme le type grec, fin, distingué, pur de ligne et certainement admirable, mais qui se répète trop, comme un cliché impersonnel et froid."

Miss Harrison, not being quite of this opinion, makes the author say (p. 284):

"Seen from front view or profile, everything in it recalls and yet transcends the conventional type—the so-called Greek profile, delicate, distinguished," etc.

An amusing instance of this perversion of the author's statements occurs in the discussion concerning the so-called Choiseul-Gouffier Apollo, in which M. Paris alludes to the theory advanced by "M. Waldstein," while in Miss Harrison's version "M. Waldstein" becomes multiplied into an impersonal "group of archæologists." In only one instance has she separated her own opinion from that of the author. What he says about the Venus of Melos she has left to himself, though in a footnote she has "felt bound to record" her view, which is that the statue is "not an Aphrodite at all, but a Victory—not to be dated before the second century B. C."

Whether or not Miss Harrison knows more about her subject than M. Paris, or, granting that her opinions may be more valuable than his, it must be none the less exasperating to an author to see his own statements thus rebuked and modified after they have gone beyond his reach; and, as we said above, it is more from a desire to do justice to him than from any feeling that these changes destroy the value of the book that we have called attention to them. To leave the latter impression upon the minds of our readers would be unfair to Miss Harrison. She has violated the rules of literary courtesy, but she has translated, or "edited," a useful book in a way that will make it useful to those who do not care whose opinions they are reading, provided they be of good authority. The bibliography at the beginnings of the chapters gives an added value to the English edition; and the illustrations, to judge from the two copies before us, are much better in this than in the original, notably the archaic head in the Acropolis Museum (figure 59).

Conversations in a Studio. By William Wetmore Story, D.C.L. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890.

Mr. Story's 'Conversations' are just what the title indicates—informal and rambling discourses upon subjects that would naturally interest an artist and a poet who has the field of modern culture within his range. A considerable portion of his material has been collected from writings of earlier years and thrown into the form of conversation; but much of it is fresh and has only recently seen the light. He begins with some remarks upon the large prices paid for great works of art in our generation, and reminds us that even at present rates less is paid for painting and sculpture, and even for pottery, than was lavished by the ancient buyers of Athens and other Greek cities and of Rome upon the works of the masters of the antique. His catalogue of sales is a long and curious one, and sustains his position, while on the other hand he is able to contrast the happy fortune of these first artists with the small fees received by the great masters of the Renaissance. This, which is one of the more interesting chapters, is an excellent example of the subjects he treats of in a half-learned or half-gossiping manner, and of which the number is legion, ranging from Paris costumes to the proper pronunciation of Latin.

Art naturally holds the first place in the mind of the writer, and is discussed both in its historical embodiment in the works of the great, and in its theory, with its relation to the ideal and real, to beauty, nature, and truth. The author is an idealist, and his judgments follow the canon of idealism, but his presentation of his views is remarkably clear in statement, and as well reasoned as it is excellently illustrated. The second leading topic is poetry, of which Mr. Story writes with something of an old-fashioned familiarity with old-fashioned poets, but always with good taste and discrimination. Shakspere naturally comes in for words not a few and praise not small, but room is found for others less illustrious, and in the discussion of melodies and of melodic poems the author has much to say that it is desirable for us to be reminded of in days that forget Byron and Moore; he revives also the reputation of a few American geniuses, and particularly of Robert Treat Paine, though not to do them honor.

The conversations, however, are not all of this literary and artistic sort. The question of magic, the always living subject of centenarians and their distinctions, the equally immortal one of extraordinary powers of memory, are examples of these excursions into the region of mere information which relieve the reader's attention. The examination of the ancient theory of proportion in the human figure and the argument for an Italianated pronunciation of the Latin language are the most serious topics, and in these portions of the volumes the author evidently aims at more than entertainment. In general, however, the talk is not exacting, and flows on pleasantly, without ruffling the mind with vexing questions, or requiring it to lay off a leisure mood and gird itself to any serious matter. Mr. Story's talk is out of the fulness of his cultivation and holds us by its interest, and if he rides his hobbies at times, that is an ancient privilege of the talker and not to be taken with bad grace by the listener. Indeed, the volumes are excellent within the limit set by their familiar and unsystematic character; many things are spoken of with intelligence, sufficient anecdote enlivens the pages, and the subjects introduced are those which belong to the common stock of cultivated minds.

Rules for a Dictionary Catalogue. By Charles A. Cutter. [United States Bureau of Education, Special Report on Public Libraries, Part ii.] Second edition. Washington. 1889 [1890].

This long-expected revision of the "cataloguer's Bible" fills 133 pages, some fifty more than the authorized version of 1876. The largest single addition is an appendix containing, among other things, the American Library Association's reports on book sizes and on transliteration—the latter owing much of its value to the late Michael Heilprin—a long list of abbreviations, and a comparison between the American Association's cataloguing rules, as codified in 1883, and the rules of the Library Association of the United Kingdom, 1881, of the Bodleian Library, 1882, and of Columbia College, 1888. Throughout the text of the book, also, Mr. Cutter has amplified his former discussions and introduced new rules to meet difficulties not previously anticipated. These additions, however, are matters of minor importance; the original rules were at once so complete and so lucid as to leave little opportunity for supplement or explanation. It is by examining the changes, rather than the additions, that we shall discover the merit of this new edition.

Mr. Cutter, to be sure, did not invent the dictionary catalogue, but he systematized what was previously without form and void. Under the circumstances it was not unnatural that a reformer's zeal should make him somewhat rigidly systematic. Nor was his zeal misdirected: to insist on the intrinsic value of method was to teach a lesson much needed at the time. To-day, however, when method is too frequently preferred before sense, a different lesson is needed, and no one is abler or more willing to teach it than is Mr. Cutter. Accordingly he has modified his rules in various significant respects, moving always towards vital usefulness, and frequently away from dead uniformity. Thus he now prefers the entry of British noblemen by their titles instead of their names—an eminently sensible change, supported by this convincing syllogism: "Authors should be put under their names; a name is 'that by which a person or thing is known.' British noblemen are known by their titles, not by their family names." How many Americans, for instance, know the family name of the Marquis of Hartington, or even of the Marquis of Salisbury? A similar change, defensible by the same reasoning, provides for the entry of some authors, *e. g.*, "Gavarni" or "E. Marlitt," under the pseudonyms by which they are known, with references from the real names by which they are not known. A third noticeable change recommends that separately published parts of the Holy Scriptures be scattered throughout the alphabet under their common English names, instead of being grouped, as is the current custom, under the word Bible. Few American libraries, indeed, will ever accumulate, as has the British Museum, 160,000 titles, filling twenty-one folio volumes, under that single rubric. Nevertheless, the entry "Bible" is very complicated even in smaller catalogues, and Mr. Cutter's suggestion for simplifying it ought to meet with hearty approval. Besides these three, there are a number of minor changes of similar intent, and all praiseworthy.

There is, however, one important feature of this new edition which cannot be commended, viz., the elaborate list of abbreviations. No cataloguer can remember 600 abbreviations, the majority of them arbitrary contractions of forenames; certainly no reader can understand them. Abbreviations which do not suggest the word they replace are a nuisance. At least one library catalogue in this city is rendered well-nigh unintelligible by the extent to which the librarian has employed arbitrary abbreviations, using aggravating combinations of initials with colons and double periods and semicolons inverted and semicolons on their backs, in place of the names which authors received from their sponsors in baptism. Fortunately, it is very easy not to use Mr. Cutter's abbreviations. The remainder of his book is as easy to use as any set of cataloguing rules can be, and a good catalogue should result from the intelligent use of it.

Arctic Alaska and Siberia; or, Eight Months with the Arctic Whalemen. By Herbert L. Aldrich. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 1889. 234 pp. 8vo. Illustrations and map.

The sub-title of this book more accurately denotes its scope, since Arctic Alaska and Siberia are treated of only as they could be observed from the whale ships. The author states that he

"found the subject of Arctic or Bowhead whaling untouched by any author except in a most general and meagre manner, though it offers richer material than other kinds of whaling. It is carried on in a region beset with inconceivable dangers and risks, and in a region practically unknown, for no writer has ever visited it, though whalemen had been there every year for forty years. The moment seemed to me ripe to preserve this valuable material, for modern science is fast removing the picturesque excitement of whaling. Therefore I have made the cruise and pictured the subject as comprehensively yet briefly as I could with my pen and camera."

When one remembers the octavos and quartos, the New York *Herald* correspondents, the *Jeannette*, the *Corwin*, the Rodgers, and the grand old Admiral for whom she was named, with his stout sloop the *Vincennes;* the Point Barrow expedition under Ray, to say nothing of Lieut. Stoney and the Revenue Marine on the one hand and Kotzebue, Beechey, Hooper, and Richardson on the other, it is a little difficult to understand what is meant by "practically unknown" and unvisited by "any writer." Besides purely nautical works, there is a fair-sized library of books relating to the region, by dipping into some of which Mr. Aldrich might have learned much that would have enabled him to make his own voyage more fruitful.

But, this little indiscretion of the author apart, his intentions were good, his plan laudable and not badly carried out. Not counting South Sea sperm-whaling, there is not, as far as we know, any book treating of life on a whaler in the North Pacific, and especially the Arctic Ocean north of Bering Strait. Gustave Lambert published something on the subject, which we believe never was Englished, and bore rather on the opportunity for polar discovery than on the daily life he led. Consequently our author had a clear if rather limited field ripe for his harvest. On the whole, taken for what it really is, the description by an untrained observer of the average life on board the whaling fleet during a successful and prosperous season, the book is a good one. Mr. Aldrich sailed from San Francisco in March, 1877, and later transferred himself from one vessel to another, returning the following autumn at the end of the season, after having made the rounds of half-a-dozen of the fleet. We can corroborate the faithfulness and accuracy of his observations as a whole; and if there is no evidence, in point of literary finish, that "any writer" has yet reached those waters, yet his account is straightforward, clear, and with no nonsense about it, which is saying a great deal. We believe that most readers will find it full of interest, while the brief, unvarnished tales of wreck and other "typical experiences" from the annals of the Arctic fleet, appended to the narrative, draw the veil from scenes which might claim Pierre Loti as an appropriate chronicler. How men, cheap, coarse-fibred, ordinary sailor-men, under good leadership, will face death heroically is good to know. It shows that the pith of the race grows from the roots. Even the pitiable weaknesses noted by the impartial record on occasion have their grimly humorous, only too human, side.

In his account of the natives of the two coasts, the author falls into some inaccuracies, due to inexperience, but they are of little moment. His impressions are those which would be gathered by any one under similar conditions. The illustrations due to the camera, though sometimes very good, are on the whole less satisfactory than process-drawings would have been. There is too much detail in almost any "ship-scape" to leave the interesting items clear to the unprofessional eye. There is a tolerable map, but no index. The press-work is unusually poor for an American book, if we may judge by the copy examined.

The Union Theological Seminary of the City of New York: Historical and Biographical Sketches of its First Fifty Years. By George Lewis Prentiss. Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. 1889.

THIS is a tardy publication. The historical address of 87 pp. was prepared for the fiftieth anniversary of the opening of the Seminary, December 7, 1886, and, too long for compiete delivery, was read on that day in an abridged form. That three years have intervened between this publication and that event is accounted for by the sickness of the editor and the difficulty in obtaining the material requisite for the biographical sketches of founders, directors, benefactors, and professors, which occupy nearly twice as many pages as the historical address and in much smaller type. It is remarkable that while Dr. Prentiss gives the heads of his discourse in the table of contents, he has not given the pages of the numerous sketches. There is simply one page reference for the "Founders, Directors, and Benefactors," and another for the "Professors." Since the fiftieth anniversary, President Hitchcock and two of the oldest directors have died, and sketches of their lives are included. Through some excess of modesty the present constitution of the Faculty is left to be worked out from the schedules of study together with the division of work—a tedious business. It would even have been allowable to give some brief account of each member of the present Faculty. The antecedents of Dr. Charles A. Briggs have lately become a matter of wide public interest, and it is possible that the blameless fronts of his coadjutors may conceal like possibilities of seismic theological phenomena.

Dr. Prentiss's story is one of steady growth, of generous benefactions, of wise administration, and faithful personal service. The frontispiece illustration of the present domicile of the Seminary is in pleasant contrast with the picture of its original tenement in University Place. Students matriculated from the beginning number 2,230. Of these more than 91 per cent. were college-bred, and 1,774, as nearly as can be ascertained, are still alive. It is a defect of Dr. Prentiss's address for the general reader that it assumes a knowledge in him of Presbyterian theological development which he does not possess. Thus, at the beginning, where the coincidence of the founding of the Seminary with the trials for heresy of Albert Barnes and Lyman Beecher is spoken of, there is no indication of the quality of their offence. We are told that the Seminary, established two years before the disruption of Old School and New School in 1838, was emphatically on the New School side, "for the simple reason that its Presbyterianism was mainly of the type that had been shaped by Puritan and New England influences"; but these are not distinguished from the Scotch-Irish influences for the benefit of the uninformed. The writer congratulates himself and others on the freedom from theological disturbance which the history of the Seminary had shown during its first half century. But, since his writing, the *entente cordiale* has been considerably disturbed by Dr. Briggs's interrogation, "Whither?" and the debates on creed-revision make it appear very doubtful if the pledge required of the professors, p. 43, will not prove a stone of stumbling and a rock of offence to others before long.

The Seminary has been fortunate in several of its instructors and in many of its benefactors and directors. Drs. Edward Robinson, Henry B. Smith, and Roswell Dwight Hitchcock were men of whose character and attainments the friends of the Seminary may well be proud. The sketches of these and of Albert Barnes and Samuel Hanson Cox are valuable and interesting, but might have been much more so if to bring out and not to smooth away their individuality had been the end in view. There is a hint that Dr. Cox's judgment was not perfect, but how little of his proper self could be inferred from this account by those not otherwise acquainted with his explosive energy! This sentence stands out significantly in the sketch of Albert Barnes: "In his day and generation he ranked, like his illustrious contemporary, Dr. Channing, among the moral instructors of the American people." That is in vivid contrast with Dr. Cox's advice to his Brooklyn people not to have any social relations or business dealings with Unitarians. Dr. Cox's exordium in Exeter Hall, p. 159, hardly merits Dr. Prentiss's degree of admiration. It was as morally dull as it was intellectually bright.

Letters of Philip Dormer, Fourth Earl of Chesterfield, to his Godson and Successor. Now first edited from the originals, with a memoir of Lord Chesterfield. By the Earl of Carnarvon. With portraits and illustrations. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1890.

THESE new letters of Lord Chesterfield were written in his age to his godson, Philip Stanhope, whose education they were meant to form in what constituted a cultivated man of the world. The child was between five and six when the correspondence began, and it was continued for nearly ten years. The relation of the two was one to make this record of it interesting, but, on the whole, the letters do not justify the expectation that might be formed of them. Philip Stanhope was too young to contribute much, and the old Earl had already had his say in writing the series to his son which has become classical in English literature. He repeats in these later letters the same practical advice, and holds up the ideal of the great world as he understood it in much the same way. He writes also of the state of Europe, and the character of princes, and passes criticism on the poets. The substance exhibits the strength of his mind, his wide and intelligent interest in foreign affairs, and the standards of literary taste which belonged to his age; but attention is naturally directed to the social ideal, to the pattern man of the world, with which his literary fame has become associated. What that was, the world knows perfectly well. Lord Carnarvon, in his excellent memoir, says the best possible for the character and defects of Chesterfield, and presents him under the most favorable light; but he acknowledges, practically, that the change of society has had a most damaging effect on the reputation of his client because of his deficiency in the sense of the proprieties of relation between father and son, and also in moral tone. On the other hand, Lord Carnarvon endeavors to see in this new series of letters a more praiseworthy spirit, and makes the most of a few phrases of commonplace religion and morals, which, indeed, may have had a grave and serious meaning to the aged statesman, but are hardly sufficient as counter-evidence to the example and precept of his mature life.

In the new letters passages are frequently to be met with which would at any time have been

widely condemned in an elderly man writing to a child under twelve; and, apart from these, the insistence upon the worldly ideal of how to make a figure in fashionable life is hardly to be regarded as the best instruction for an opening mind. Possibly no harm was done, for when the child came to be a man, he was far from being the man Chesterfield had painted. It is to be said, indeed, that Chesterfield's advice was distinguished by its deterring his godson from many of the gross and foolish vices of youth of the day—from swearing, for example; and there was enough of seriousness in the political and historical information and in the constant strengthening of the taste for industry and the sense of personal honor. Yet with all this there are radical defects in the whole, there is a lowness of tone in the ideal itself, there is what must now be regarded as a false point of view, such that the correspondence cannot give pleasure or receive praise, and must remain a literary curiosity. The one trait which destroys it in modern eyes is its unmanliness, and in an English ideal that is the one thing which cannot be forgiven.

The volume has been published in a beautiful form, with typography and execution of the best character, and makes a handsome appearance; it is illustrated with several admirable portraits and one or two quaint views, and is furnished with an index. Nothing has been spared to make it a triumph of the printer's art. A less expensive and more popular edition has also been issued.

Life of Honoré de Balzac. By Frederick Wedmore. [Great Writers.] London: Walter Scott. 1890.

George Eliot has somewhere said that "of all forms of mistake the most gratuitous is prophecy." Mr. Wedmore might well have borne this aphorism in mind before beginning his sketch of Balzac's life with this sweeping statement: "Among the writers whose successes in pure literature this century allows, five alone must be accounted for ever influential—Goethe, Wordsworth, Balzac, Dickens, Browning." Surely, this list of "immortal shapes of bright aerial spirits" is too exclusive and absolute. Why restrict the number to five? And, further, one feels inclined to ask whether the biographer has heard of a recent French critic whose verdict on Balzac was, "assommant"! Well, if this jaunty decision is what Matthew Arnold used to call a freak or a violence, Mr. Wedmore's first words are open to the same charge in a less degree; and it is not too much to ask that what purports to be a popular critical biography, an ultimatum (up to date), should begin with neither freak nor violence. The dominant note in the whole book is the echo of this sentence; lack of balance shows itself in the failure to estimate correctly the weak side of Balzac's character and work, so that, to get a more vivid picture of the man and a sounder notion of his merit as a moralist (he thought himself one) and a writer, the reader may fairly be advised to turn again to Gautier's 'Portraits Contemporains' and to Mr. Leslie Stephen's admirable essay in the first set of 'Hours in a Library,' rather than to the last issue of the "Great Writers" Series.

The compression of Balzac's life into 140 octavo pages might still have left room for somewhat longer notice of his many fads and whims—his abuse of coffee, his strange hours of work, and other forms of mild vice; his singular domestic arrangements to secure quiet; and, above all, the substratum of humbug which so often deceived himself. Like many literary Frenchmen, he had a strong dash of *blague*, ready to take itself in earnest if any one ventured to question its sincerity. It was this which inspired his code of rules for the literary worker, some of the more stringent of which filled the hot-blooded Gautier with dismay, and which, of course, the author himself never observed. Mr. Wedmore notices fully the humorous phase of this weakness by pointing out that Balzac's fictitious characters finally became real to his imagination; indeed, so much a slave was he to his hallucination that for years he amused his friends with mysterious allusions to loss of untold fortune in speculation, described as *le déficit Kessner*. But to the practical mind these delusions seemed to reach their height when the novelist comes to look on his work as beyond a mere art—as a sacerdocy. Of this mania Balzac, who has since been followed by the brothers Goncourt, Zola, Paul Bourget, and many smaller fry, was, with Victor Hugo, one of the first sufferers. English critics are prone to call it charlatanism, but its large admixture of naïve good faith ought to save it from such severe blame.

Mr. Wedmore accurately estimates the moral worth of Balzac's teaching. It has already been frequently said that his young men are anything but estimable; in fact, few of them are really gentlemen, at least in the English and American sense of the word. Raphael, who hides in Fœdora's bedroom; De Rastignac, and even the courtly De Vaudenesse, give way to impulses of which most well-bred men certainly do not boast, if they can be brought to confess them. And the virtuous women, as Mr. Leslie Stephen remarks, are terribly shaky; so unstable is their virtue that one feels that a little more pressing—a mere trifle—would have brought them to surrender. Consequently, the lesson of "La Comédie Humaine" is on the whole disheartening, for it deals in the main with moral degradation or with mistaken and disappointed virtue; unlike Thackeray, in that it has no Dobbin, no Col. Newcome, and only pale images of the Little Sister, it leaves a bad taste in one's mouth. "La Comédie Humaine" is truly delightful to no one but the consistent pessimist. This is possibly the reason why Mr. Wedmore lays so little stress on "Le Lys dans la Vallée" and "Les Contes Drolatiques," which go some way towards redeeming the too generally sombre pictures of the total work—the one with its inimitable and truly *gaulois* humor, and the other with its exquisite sentiment. For, in truth, the countless figures that play their puppet-parts in the comedy, whose wires are pulled by the most skilful of all hands, seem to us like a huge family of *névrosés;* in almost every one of them there lies somewhere a moral warp, and that generally a mean one. Theirs are not the infirmities of noble minds, but the vices and failings that attend the "struggle-for-life" in old and crowded communities.

French writers are usually treated with much scornful acerbity by their English critics for their frequent mistakes in spelling and their ignorance of English titles; we may therefore expect of the Englishman some scrupulousness in the writing of French names—a precaution omitted by the present biographer, as it was before him by Mr. F. T. Marzials in the 'Victor Hugo' of the same series. Why both these writers write Nôtre Dame passes guessing. Why not Dâme also? It is quite as much a contraction of a Latin word. Then, again, we find the Duchesse d'Abrantès; no regard being paid to the fact that the name has long since been Gallicised into D'Abrantes. Once more, Balzac's sister would naturally have objected to seeing herself described as Madame Surville, without *de*—a magical particle as dear to the French heart as *van* to any true Knickerbocker. We say, of course, Balzac, Lamartine, Musset; but with people not world-famous the *de* should be preserved.

Unquestionably the best part of Mr. Wedmore's book is the biographical. It is accurate in matters of detail, and on the whole judiciously discriminative. Much sound information is given also as to the proportion existing between the material furnished from Balzac's own experience of life in all its forms and what his marvellous power as an analyst of character, a *voyant*, in short, enabled him to infer from mere indications of temperament and conduct in people whom he saw but for a moment. The last chapter, which is a summing up, contains too much controversial questioning of other critics' judgments, and has on the whole too little decisiveness of its own, to be in any sense a pronouncement on Balzac; but, notwithstanding these shortcomings, this 'Life' is written with sufficient ease, grace, and spirit to deserve more than one reading.

Commentaries on the Constitution of the Empire of Japan. By Count Hirobumi Ito. Translated by Miyoji Ito. Tokio. 1889.

Count Ito is one of the ablest living statesmen of Japan. From the position of an humble feudal retainer he has raised himself, by the sheer force of native ability, to the most influential station in the Empire. For seventeen years he has been a member of the Cabinet; once he held the honorable position of the Minister President of State; and, until the recent division in the Cabinet, when he retired from the Government, he occupied the chair of the President of the Privy Council, with a seat in the Cabinet. He was one of the Vice-Ambassadors of the Iwakura Embassy. He once performed an important mission to China, and, what is more to our present purpose, he was commissioned by the Emperor to study the political institutions of Europe, in order to give him material help in the framing of the new Constitution. For this purpose Count Ito stayed two years in Europe. He has had no small share in the framing of the present Constitution. A statesman, an astute diplomatist, and an interesting speaker, he has now proved himself to be a legislator, and an expounder of the new Constitution.

To those who have cast only a hasty glance at the Japanese Constitution it seems like a copy of the German Constitution, or at best a constitutional patchwork. They exclaim: "How surprising is the apish power of the Japanese! How can such a 'subtle organism' as a constitution of a country be thus manufactured in a day?" To such critics the book before us will show that the new Constitution of Japan has an historic basis. The accidental resemblance to the German Constitution results not from mere imitation, but from the common nature of monarchy and feudal institutions in the two countries. Centralized monarchy, with ministers of state at the head of departments of Government, is an ancient polity. The custom of presenting petitions to the Emperor as a means of making known public opinion and of redressing grievances when there was no Parliament, is as old as the reign of the Emperor Kōtoku (645-654 A. D.), in which "a bell and a box were hung out through which the people might make their representations and complaints."

Our author is no admirer of the American system of checks and balances in government. He is, indeed, a strong admirer of German Imperialism. He tells why the complete isolation

of the legislative, executive, and judicial powers from each other is injurious to the state. In such a polity as that of Japan, these powers should be united in and exercised by the sovereign person, with constitutional limitations. He says that the Imperial Diet has, first, the right to receive petitions; second, the right to address the Emperor and to make representations to him; third, the right to put questions to the Government and demand explanations; and fourth, the right to control the management of the finances. He argues that the establishment of the House of Peers is needed not only to make it "a bulwark for the imperial house" and to preserve the conservative elements of the nation, but to maintain the organic existence of the state. As to the duties of the Ministers, the author has to say:

"First, that the Ministers of State are charged with the duty of giving advice to the Emperor, which is their proper function, and that they are not held responsible on his behalf; secondly, that Ministers are directly responsible to the Emperor, and indirectly to the people; thirdly, that it is the sovereign, and not the people, that can decide as to the responsibility of Ministers, because the sovereign possesses the rights of sovereignty of the State; fourthly, that the responsibility of Ministers is a political one, and has no relation to criminal or civil responsibility, nor can it conflict therewith, neither can the one affect the other."

Whether the Cabinet should be responsible to the Emperor or to the Diet is now hotly debated in Japan; but debate is idle until representative government shall have been put into practice. Time and experience alone will solve the question.

Count Ito generally follows the historical method of comment. He rarely enters into the discussion of abstract principles or mere theories of state. But he carries the historical method too far when he says that the theory of the rights and duties of subjects, as mentioned in the second chapter of the Constitution, is to be traced to "ancient documents" and "the customs of the land." It is a simple fact of history that the right of private property, of personal and religious liberty, freedom of speech and of the press, are new things in Nippon, and are now for the first time guaranteed to the Japanese.

While our author is anxious to trace every article of the Constitution to "the ancient documents," and "the customs of the land," while he devotes six pages to the historical evolution of the Government method of granting lands and promulgating ordinances, he has nothing to say concerning the origin and growth of representation in Japan. This is a grave omission. A political biologist might find the germ of representation in Japan in the most original form in the Hiyakushôdai, who represented farmers "in case of their having any petition to present, or any affairs to settle with their superiors." But a more definite prototype of the coming House of Peers is to be found in the Great Council of Kugés and Daimios, which the sudden advent of foreigners, in 1854, called to spasmodic life between that year and 1868, and which was to be transformed first into the Genro-in (Senate), then into the House of Peers. The House of Representatives is foreshadowed in the Kogijo (sometimes called Gi-ji-in) or 'Parliament,' as Sir Harry Parkes translates it, in his despatch to the Earl of Clarendon. The Kogijo was convened in the second year of Meiji (1869). It was composed chiefly of the retainers of Daimios, and has left behind it in the Kogijo Nishi, or Journal of the 'Parliament,' a record of its abortive undertakings.

From the dissolution of the Kigijo to the opening of the House of Representatives this very year, 1890, there intervenes a period of two decades, singularly rich in events which led the way towards the establishment of the constitutional Parliament. Famous among the steps towards the realization of this object are the establishment of the Genro-in, in 1875, and of the local assemblies in 1878. It is a matter of regret that our author, in describing the Imperial Diet, makes no mention of these important historic landmarks.

Count Ito represents the connecting link between the old Chinese school of statesmanship and that of modern Anglo-Japanese statesmanship. He exhibits in his book the conservatism of the old statesman and the liberalism of the new. His translator has appended the Imperial House Law, the Imperial Oath and Speech, and the Laws and Ordinance that were issued at the time of the promulgation of the Constitution. Copies of the book can be had by addressing T. Kenzo, Igirisu-Horitsu Gakko, Tokio, Japan.

A Thousand Miles on an Elephant in the Shan States. By Holt S. Hallet. London: William Blackwood & Sons. 8vo, pp. 484.

SHUT out from the markets of Europe and North America by prohibitory tariffs, and depressed by overproduction, the British manufacturer is ever searching for and developing new markets for his machine-made goods. As the seaboard and navigable rivers of the world give access to only limited areas for commerce, the railway must be built to open the great populous and land-locked interiors of continents. Cheap means of communication must be provided for those areas now shut off by the prohibitive cost of carriage, if commerce is to advance and civilization overspread the earth.

With characteristic British pluck and persistence, Messrs. A. R. Colquhoun and Holt S. Hallet have since 1881 devoted themselves to practising what their British fellow-countrymen so continually preach, and have sought out railway routes between India and China. The *Nation* has already reviewed Mr. Colquhoun's books, 'Across Chrysé' (that is, from Canton, China, to Mandalay in Upper Burmah) and 'Amongst the Shans.' Mr. Holt S. Hallet, like his fellow-traveller, surveyor, and patriotic knight of trade, has long been impressed with the fact that Chrysé, Chersonese, Suvarna-Bumi, or whatever else Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, British, or other authors may call the peninsula between China and India, it is certainly what Mr. Colquhoun names it, "the veritable gold-field of Asia." No wonder that Lady Dufferin, in her book, 'Our Viceregal Life in India,' just fresh from the press, writes that at Mandalay she was tired of gold: "I never conceived such masses of it before, and cannot understand it all at once." To unite the people of India and China, a total population of 700,000,000 souls—one-half of the population of the earth—that is this British engineer's dream. The problem is to bring the British machine-made goods to their doors at a price below that of their hand-made manufactures. "We are a nation of shopkeepers, and it is by trade that we live," is the legend on Mr. Hallet's flag. To get the Maulmain route of iron rails extended into central China, at Chung-King in Sz-chuen province, and into southeastern China at Pak-hoi, and thus to see the railway from the Persian Gulf to the Sea of Japan completed through Chinese, Siamese, and British territory before the French get a chance in the peninsula, is the aim of our author's life. Hence, his work is less a fascinating book of travels and adventure than another campaign document in favor of a stalwart policy of trade with "all the Chinas." Nevertheless, apart from its interest as a bulletin of advancing civilization and a journal full of the element of personal adventure, it comes into notable touch with an American interest. Mr. Hallet's dedication is worth transcribing, especially since his guides, interpreters, and fellow-travellers were American missionaries: "To the American missionaries in Burmah, Siam, and the Shan States, I dedicate this book, as a mark of the high esteem in which I hold the noble work the American Baptist mission and the American Presbyterian mission are accomplishing in civilizing and Christianizing the people of Indo-China."

Having by long practice mastered the difficult art of surveying from an elephant's back, Mr. Hallet started on his journey of a thousand miles or more, on the 23d of January (1885, if we conjecture aright, for year dates are notably scarce), and finished it on June 28 at Bangkok. His trip was from Maulmain to Maingloongee, to Maung Haut, to Kiang Hsen, to Lakon, to Zimme, to Raheng, to Bangkok (we give only the main points), and was full of interesting incident. A voracious seeker for information, a good questioner, having the eye of an engineer, statistician, merchant, and trained traveller, withal of splendid physical powers, and full of kindly sympathy and humor, his book, in its contents, reminds us of a successful hunter's game-bag. It is gorged to repletion with facts, figures, observations, legend, story, incident, and anecdote. One learns the full gamut of an elephant's tricks, though the ways of the supple heathen are somewhat more mysterious. Evidently the author kept the missionary guides busy in answering questions, and putting them for the questioner to the natives. The customs, manners, habits, morals, resources of the people are described in detail. The ruins of old cities, the deserted localities devastated by war, the local mythology and legend, are duly noted, and the history and traditions of each place digested for us. Of the work of the missionaries the author is an appreciative critic. He shows that the Karens and spirit-worshipping tribes are easily converted to Christianity by persevering teaching, but that the Buddhists are intractable. The manufactures and industrial habits of the people were especially studied. They are good metal-workers, and the Shan States may be called the land of gold-leaf, so lavishly is this article laid upon idols, pagodas, and works of art.

In short, the book is an encyclopædia of information about the Shans, with comparative remarks about the Burmese and Siamese. In outward form it is a handsome octavo of nearly five hundred pages, with all the appurtenances of good book-making to recommend it. In the preface we have an historical summary, the table of contents is full, there are seven clearly printed maps detailing the author's route of travel, and one map showing the projected and completed railways between India and China; there are ninety-three illustrations, and there is a good index—all helping to make a most satisfactory book for the student of commercially aggressive civilization.

The Theory of Credit. By Henry Dunning Macleod, M.A. 2 vols. Vol. I. Longmans, Green & Co. 1889.

THE critical examination of Mr. Macleod's theory of credit may properly be deferred until his second volume shall have appeared, but the present occasion seems to call for some observations upon his method. It is unnecessary to say to those familiar with his writings that he is not distinguished for self-effacement. He

does not hesitate to repudiate established doctrines, or to speak disrespectfully of established authorities. He bristles with sharp points, and abounds in apt quotations from writers of all ages and tongues; but the points are not so sharp as they look, and the quotations are sometimes a little warped. His scholarship is certainly extensive, but we do not find it in all respects trustworthy. Upon this matter, however, we prefer to postpone our comments.

Above all things Mr. Macleod's method is distinguished by systematic and apparently scientific definition. A glance at his pages impresses the reader with the idea that everything is demonstrated with mathematical rigor, and yet, to say the truth, the demonstrations are so clever and so brilliantly illustrated as to be really captivating reading. We have found it necessary, however, to be on our guard against this glamour, and a few specimen fallacies will be sufficient to prove that none of his conclusions can be safely accepted without scrutiny.

Thus, in the summary of definitions at page 145, we read that wealth is *anything* which can be exchanged; that wealth, economic, or exchangeable quantities, are of three forms—material things, personal qualities, and abstract rights; that property is not a *thing*, but a *right;* that wealth, exchangeable or economic quantities, consist exclusively of exchangeable *rights;* and that economic quantities are of three species, all of which are property. A little study shows that conclusions of the most contradictory nature may be drawn from these premises. All wealth is property; property is not a thing but a right; wealth is anything that can be exchanged—and so forth.

Perhaps the most vital point in the author's theory is his doctrine of value, and here is the "lemma" with which he refutes those who maintain the doctrine that labor is the sole cause of value: "*If Labor is the sole Cause of Value, then whatsoever thing Labor has been bestowed upon must have Value.*" Casting this into the form of a syllogism, we have:

Whatever is valuable is the product of labor;
This thing is the product of labor;
Therefore, this thing is valuable—

which is as gross a case of the fallacy of "undistributed middle" as we have ever encountered, and which, occurring where it does, is sufficient to throw discredit over the whole of the author's theory.

Das Reichsgesetz über die Erwerbung und den Verlust der Reichs- und Staatsangehörigkeit vom 1 Juni, 1870. Von Dr. Wilhelm Cahn. Berlin: J. Guttentag. 1889.

This edition of the German law regulating the acquiring and loss of citizenship enables the American reader to form a clear idea of the mode in which the relation between Federal citizenship and State citizenship is adjusted in Germany. The fundamental principle of the law as it existed before the statute of 1870 was, that Federal citizenship was not, as in the United States, a primary, independent legal status. It was based on the citizenship in one of the States forming the Federation. The matter was left entirely to the regulation of the various States. In Prussia alone there were eight different statutory regulations of the subject for different parts of the kingdom. The States had full power to impose the same conditions which were demanded of foreigners on citizens of a sister State; and, as a matter of fact, there was generally no distinction made between the two classes.

It became absolutely necessary to change this state of affairs. The law under consideration (which was subsequently adopted for the German Empire) adheres in theory, however, to the existing relation between the States and the Federal Government. It announces in section 1 that "Federal citizenship is acquired by becoming a citizen of one of the Federal States and is lost by the loss of such State citizenship"; but in the subsequent sections it prescribes the exact mode in which the State citizenship shall be acquired and lost, and decides who, for all intents and purposes, shall be considered citizens of the States. The only right left to the States is to impose additional conditions for the naturalization of foreigners. The requirements laid down in the law under review are only a minimum. The States cannot, however, admit any one to citizenship unless all the conditions laid down in the Federal law are satisfied. One of these essential conditions is the ability of the applicant to support himself and his family.

The right to impose additional conditions exists only as against non-Germans. Citizens of one Federal State must, on changing their domicile, be admitted as citizens of the State into which they have removed. This principle was reiterated emphatically in the German Constitution of 1871. Nominally, therefore, Federal citizenship is a mere appendix to State citizenship; but practically the Federal power claims and exercises the right to interfere in the internal affairs of the States in a much greater degree than in the United States. The States appear in the light of provinces, to whom a certain latitude is left, not on the ground of any inherent rights possessed by them, but simply on grounds of convenience.

The book is edited with typical German care and scholarship. Copious extracts are given from the *Motiven—i. e.*, the document explaining the bill which was submitted to the Chambers by the Government—and also so much of the debates as throws any light on the sections of the act. After each section the statutory provisions of foreign countries on the subject are carefully collated and discussed.

Alexander: A History of the Origin and Growth of the Art of War, etc. By Theodore Ayrault Dodge, Bt. Lt.-Col. U. S. A., Retired. [Great Captains.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 8vo, pp. xxv, 693.

In this handsome volume Col. Dodge has accomplished, in regard to Alexander the Great, the purpose indicated in his short sketches of Great Captains which were noticed in these columns some time ago. The outline then given has been filled up to a full narrative of the campaigns of Alexander, and the best ancient and modern authorities have been laid under judicious contribution to make up as complete and intelligible a history of the wars of the great Macedonian as is now possible.

The author has spared no pains in elucidating and illustrating the equipment and the tactics of the ancient Persians and Greeks, copying from the best authorities the defensive and offensive armor in use, the numerous woodcuts being well drawn and well chosen. As to the charts and topographical sketches, Col. Dodge does not claim for them minute authenticity, for the geography of Alexander's wars is by no means settled; much less can it be said that the scenes of all his engagements have been definitively fixed or the fields surveyed. The maps are frankly declared to be constructed from the topographical descriptions contained in the text of ancient writers, rather than from actual surveys; but they serve a good purpose, when this is borne in mind, as diagrams by the aid of which the reader can more easily follow the text.

Original research in the fullest sense of the word is not claimed by the author, who modestly confines his estimate of his own work to that of industrious compiling, editing, and turning into English the facts and theories which his judgment finds to be the most authentic and reliable of all that have come down to our time. The American reader is thus furnished with a convenient and interesting narrative of the earliest campaigns which we know enough about to criticise them intelligently, and which have always impressed the great modern leaders in war as demonstrating the warlike genius of Alexander, and proving that the principles on which he conducted his military enterprises were identical with those of the modern Frederick and Napoleon.

Epitome of the Synthetic Philosophy. By F. Howard Collins. With a preface by Herbert Spencer. D. Appleton & Co. 1889.

A more admirably executed second-hand synopsis of a system of philosophy never was. Considered simply as an index to Spencer's systematic works, this 'Epitome' is invaluable; and to persons who read and reread those thick volumes, not because they believe in them, but only because they want to know what it is that so many others believe, and to whom the writings of the dreariest scholastic doctor are less heartbreakingly tedious, this one volume of 500 pages in place of a library of 5,000 pages is like balm of Gilead. Would it only embraced an introduction boiling the whole thing down to 50 pages! It is printed uniformly with Spencer's works, upon agreeable paper with clear type, and published by the same eminent firm which, by the dissemination of those writings, has contributed so much to the culture and thought of our people.

In Tennyson-Land. Being a brief account of the home and early surroundings of the Poet-Laureate, and an attempt to identify the scenes and trace the influence of Lincolnshire in his works. By John Cuming Walters. With twelve plates. Scribner & Welford. 1890.

This very agreeable narrative of a ramble about Somersby and its neighborhood, with illustrations of Tennyson's poetical landscape as it comes out in his works, is a study, partly in poetry and partly in nature, which any one familiar with the poet's imaginative scenes will enjoy. A slight personal element enters into it, but little more is told us of the family or early life of Tennyson than was already known; the charm consists in seeing these few facts of his boyhood and youth set in relief upon their real background. We learn, however, that his school-days at Louth lasted only from the age of seven and a half years to eleven years, and that he has taken the very least interest in the school since he left it. He entered hardly at all into the general school-life, but kept closely with his brother, with whom, indeed, he seems to have grown up with exclusive intimacy. It appears, also, that the price paid the two brothers for their poems was £20 instead of £10; and the suggestion of the publication is said to have come from a coachman who advised the youths to provide themselves with pocket-money in this way.

The usefulness of the book, however, does not lie in such details, but in the sympathetic rendering of the Lincolnshire landscape as forming the ground, and often the exact nature effects, which Tennyson afterwards made the world of his poetry. Most attention is paid to

the moors and low-lying stretches of country, with their cloud and shadow and damp, to the brook, with its bridge, which has become famous, to Holywell Glen, with its Druidical quality, to the cathedral of the city in the distance, and to the sea as it is at Mablethorpe, where the poet first made its acquaintance and lived beside it in summer months. There is a predominant tone of melancholy and an atmosphere of waste places in the scenes described, except for the rustic life of the small hamlet where Tennyson was bred. The attempt to locate Locksley Hall is unsuccessful, but the "moated grange" seems to be determined. In the last chapter something is said of Jean Ingelow's treatment of the same country. Altogether the volume is one to delight the lovers of the poet, and is unmarred by any lack of taste.

The Makers of Modern Italy. By J. A. R. Marriott, M.A. Macmillan & Co. 1889. Pp. 84.

This little book contains three lectures delivered by the author at Oxford, in which he gives a brief but interesting account of the unification of Italy, by treating the career of Mazzini, Cavour, and Garibaldi. His opinions on these three leaders are, in the main, just. He discriminates, for instance, between Mazzini, the apostle of moral regeneration, and Mazzini, the instigator of futile risings and republican demonstrations. In his former character Mazzini helped immeasurably the Italian cause; in the latter, he harmed it, and the harm might have been irreparable, but for the prudence and vigilance of Cavour. Mr. Marriott likewise separates the beneficial from the mischievous in Garibaldi's exploits, but we think that he hardly states with sufficient emphasis how great an incubus Garibaldi was to the Italian Government from the death of Cavour, in 1861, to the entry of the Italians into Rome in 1870. Indeed, the chief defect of this monograph is that it does not bring out with sufficient force the magnitude of the obstacles which confronted the would-be unifiers of Italy. Difficulties seem smaller in the retrospect, but the business of the historian is to reproduce, as vividly as possible, the menacing and almost disheartening effect which difficulties produced upon contemporaries at a given time. So Mr. Marriott's account of the Revolution of 1848-9 is scarcely adequate; and yet, even with the brevity to which he restricted himself, it would be possible to make more distinct not only the hopeless dissensions among the patriots themselves, but also the cropping out of ancestral jealousies between province and province, the machinations of Mazzini and the sects in Milan and Rome, the backsliding of the Pope, the lukewarmness of the Grand Duke, and the treachery of the King of Naples.

In general, as we have said, the outlines are correct, but in many cases the shading should be altered in order to make a lifelike history. Thus, Mr. Marriott speaks as if the cession of Savoy to France had been determined on only after the campaign of 1859; in fact, however, that was one of the points stipulated by Napoleon in his interview with Cavour in 1858. Again, no mention is made of the measures secretly taken by Cavour to direct the rebellion in the Emilia and Tuscany, or of the fact that Cavour supplied arms to Garibaldi's Thousand. It is not quite true to say that Victor Emanuel regarded Cavour as his "dearest friend." The King admired the statesman and recognized his astonishing sagacity, but he would not have been the true scion of Savoy that he was had he not sometimes chafed at the inflexible minister who imposed his policy on the sovereign as on the Parliament. It is to the King's credit that he usually followed the counsel of his great adviser.

We notice a few errors in Mr. Marriott's text: Léri for Leri (p. 37); Cavour died June 6, not 5, 1861 (p. 52, 83); Forte should be Forlì (p. 54); Uzo for Ugo Bassi (p. 62); Monte Rotundo for Rotondo (p. 73). Mr. Marriott adds a list of books to be recommended to students of this period. Most of the works are excellent, but we miss the titles of many recent Italian publications: of Cavour's letters, edited by Chiala, Bianchi, and Berti; of two important works on Cavour by Bert; of Castelli's Memoirs, of Minghetti's Memoirs, of the histories by Mariani, Poggi, and Bersezio; of the letters of Ricasoli. To these we must go for the best information; but Mr. Marriott recommends, for the most part, only those works which are accessible to one who reads English. He is right in praising Garibaldi's Autobiography, but he ought to have added that Garibaldi's statements are often untrustworthy, for he, like Goethe, mingled fiction very freely with the truth concerning his life.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Besant, W. Captain Cook. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Blake, E. V. The Dalzells of Daisydown. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Bliss, W. R. Colonial Times on Buzzard's Bay. 2d ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Carlisle, J. H. Memoirs of Roger Ascham and Thomas Arnold. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. $1.
Cawein, M. J. Lyrics and Idyls. Louisville, Ky.: J. P. Morton & Co.
Clarke, Col. E. History of the Seventh Regiment of New York, 1806–1889. Vol. II. D. Appleton & Co.
Dana, Prof. J. D. Characteristics of Volcanoes. Dodd, Mead & Co. $5.
Darwin, C. Journal of Researches. New ed., illustrated. D. Appleton & Co. $5.
D'Esterre-Keeling, Elsa. In Thoughtland and in Dreamland. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Ford, W. C. The Spurious Letters Attributed to Washington. 97 Clark St., Brooklyn: Historical Printing Club. $3.
Gibbon. Was Ever Woman in this Humor Wooed? F. F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
God in His World: An Interpretation. Harper & Bros.
Humphrey, Dr. L. Manual of Nursing, Medical and Surgical. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co.
Hunt, Prof. T. W. Studies in Literature and Style. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.
Isaacs, J. María: A South American Romance. Harper & Bros.
Jerome, J. K. Three Men in a Boat. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Jerome, J. K. The Idle Thoughts of an Idle Fellow. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
King, J. E., and Cookson, C. Introduction to the Comparative Grammar of Greek and Latin. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.40.
Larcom, Lucy. Easter Gleams: Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
Lawson, J. D. Rights, Remedies and Practice, at Law, in Equity, and under the Codes. Vol. IV. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.
Linn, Beth. One Little Mustard Seed. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Macaulay, G. C. The History of Herodotus. Translated into English. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $4.50.
Macaulay, T. B. Lays of Ancient Rome. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
Maclure, D. David Todd, the Romance of his Life and Loving. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Macquoid, Katherine. Cosette. F. F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
Merry, Rev. W. W. Aristophanes: The Birds. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Moulton, R. G. The Ancient Classical Drama; A Study in Literary Evolution. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $2.25.
Norris, W. E. Misadventure. F. F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
Norton, C. L. A Handbook of Florida. Part I. Atlantic Coast. Longmans, Green & Co. 50 cents.
Preston, Rev. T. S. Gethsemani. Robert Coddington.
Quigg, L. E. Tin-types taken in the Streets of New York. Cassell Publishing Co. $1.50.
Rankin, Dr. F. H. Hygiene of Childhood. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
Reid, Capt. Mayne. Afloat in the Forest. Worthington Co. 25 cents.
Religious Systems of the World, National, Christian, and Philosophic. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.
Trollope, T. S. What I Remember. Harper & Bros.
Walworth, Jeannette H. A Little Radical. Belford Co.
Wilder, Prof. B. G. Health Notes for Students. 2d ed. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Willard, Frances E. Glimpses of Fifty Years: An Autobiography. Chicago: H. J. Smith & Co.
Wheeler, E. P. The Modern Law of Carriers. Baker, Voorhis & Co.
Williams, H. L. Ruy Blas: An Historical Romance, founded on Victor Hugo's drama. Frederick Warne & Co. 30 cents.
Woodberry, G. E. The North Shore Watch, and Other Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Woodford, C. M. A Naturalist among the Head-Hunters. London: George Philip & Son.
Wratislaw, A. H. Sixty Folk-Tales from Exclusively Slavonic Sources. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.

Fine Arts.

THE BOSTON MUSEUM'S ENLARGEMENT.—I.

From the line of the Boston and Albany Road, as the Springfield train runs into Boston, one sees, at a little distance, a long and low wall, terminating at each end in a sharp-pointed ear. This is the southwest side of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, as it now stands, occupying exactly half of the land reserved for it, the wall that we see being a temporary wall, which will come down whenever the remainder of the structure shall be brought into existence. The trivial architecture of the northeast front faces on Copley Square. The recent additions to the buildings are not in this same very ornate, modern Gothic style; they are of an extremely reserved and undecorated character, as is proper to an institution with but little money to spare. These additions carry the building around one of its two ultimate courts, and on three sides of this court the building is practically double—that is, it has two rooms in its width, one of them lighted from the court and the other from the street. On the fourth side, namely, that towards the temporary wall spoken of above, the building is only a broad corridor on each floor, with staircases, and here the light is taken from the court only.

The great simplicity of the outside of the new buildings is not to be very much regretted; but it is perhaps a pity that there is no attempt at decorative treatment within. Certainly, we should never urge the expenditure of the funds of a museum on ornamentation. The tessellated pavement and the marble-lined wall are poor ways of spending funds that are needed for works of art of historical and educational value; but there is a way of treating an interior in an architectural fashion which is apt to cost a little money, to be sure, but not much in proportion to the comparative agreeableness of such an interior, considered even with regard to its true requirements. The works of art themselves, the collections for which the museum exists, would be more striking, and would impress forcibly more minds, if beauty of proportion and what may be called an artistical treatment of the simple parts of the interior were followed. It is true that American artists have scarcely considered the interiors of their edifices, and that, even of those who are the best known as artistically minded men, but few have thought of a corridor, a stairway, or a gallery with anything like the interest which they take in the exterior. But the Boston Museum is perhaps exceptional in its rudeness, and certainly there is no place about the building where anything agreeable is added by the management of the building itself.

The chance has been taken, now that the space allowed the classical department is much increased, to rearrange this department completely. The old idea that Dartmouth Street would be the principal street, that the main entrance of the Museum would be on this street, has disappeared; and it is evident that the entrance will always be towards Copley Square. Such, at least, is the talk of the Boston papers. Whether for this reason or for other and more valid ones, the curator of the classical department has reversed the order of its galleries, and now, as you enter the building by the main entrance, you find, in the first room on your right, the Egyptian and Assyrian antiquities; in the second room the earliest Greek antiquities—that is to say, those which may be

roughly taken as before the year 500 B. C.; in the third room, which occupies the north corner of the building, the Greek sculpture which may be roughly classed as from 500 to 450 B. C.; in the fourth room, the Greek sculpture of the epoch immediately succeeding the last named, namely, the epoch of Polycleitus; in the fifth room, the casts of small bronzes, both Greek and Roman, in cases in the middle of the room; and, around the walls, Greek and Græco-Roman busts on shelves. In this room, therefore, the chronological order is broken, and the works of many epochs are placed side by side. It is, perhaps, to be regretted that this is so. The old dread lest works of art very different in scale should injure one another seriously has been allowed, as it seems to us, too much weight. The comparison of the large and the small, the minute and the grandiose, may be even claimed as a desirable thing; and, certainly, the overwhelming importance of maintaining the chronological sequence and, even more, the grouping together of objects of the same time, even if they do not succeed one another in the order of their time, would seem to forbid the putting together of works of art in any other arrangement than this, at least until this arrangement also has been made. No one, indeed, could regret the opportunity of comparing the busts with one another and the typical statuettes with one another, as provided in this room; but, first, the most important comparisons are generally of pieces of the same epoch; and, second, the pieces to be compared are, as in the instances before us, so small and so inexpensive that it would not be hard to retain the present arrangement for comparative study in some part of the gallery, and still to provide a strict chronological arrangement. The room that follows this, the Parthenon room, stretches across the whole width of the building from street to court, with windows at each end, and is the only one that is so planned. This form of room and this form of lighting allow of an extraordinarily perfect display of the Parthenon frieze, which can be better studied here than in almost any museum on earth; and in the same room are grouped properly and skilfully a large proportion of the other and larger sculptures of the Parthenon. In view of this, one longs to go back to the room just quitted, and take out of it the Roman busts, which have drawn the mind away from the severity of Greek art. We could wish to approach the Parthenon through the grouped sculptures of Olympia and Ægina, and not to have seen on our way a mass of busts of the first century after Christ.

A large room of Egyptian antiquities has been passed, as we have followed the Greek rooms in their order. It stands on the court, adjoining all the rooms that we have mentioned; that is to say, it is L-shaped, turning one corner of the court, and enveloped in its turn by the rooms that we have described. But to continue the examination of the Greek sculpture, we enter, as we leave the Parthenon room, the great corridor adjoining the blind wall spoken of above, and this corridor, the whole length of the building, is devoted to Greek and Græco-Roman sculpture. Here we lose track of the chronological sequence and the orderly arrangement of styles almost altogether; and, moreover, this corridor leads to a hall, on the opposite side of the building, in which is to be found at one end the gallery of six caryatids from the Erechtheum, and, at the other, more of the sculptures from Pergamon. The hall generally is given up to the Hellenistic sculptures, and the invasion of this subdivision by the pure Greek sculpture and architecture of the caryatid porch was indeed inevitable, as this is the only room high enough in the ceiling to allow of its being put in place; but that very fact makes it more desirable that the other pieces should be kept in their chronological order. If everything else in the Museum were where it belongs, according to the strictest comparison of date and style, it would be easy for a placard, or many placards, to call attention to the banishment of the porch in question to a room where the student would have to seek it; but it is impossible for any system of placards to point out the sequence in which these present arrangements are to be found. The catalogue, of course, when it is ready, will enable the patient and willing student to follow the order, the date, and the differences in schools of art; but all students are not patient and willing, and the catalogue is not ready.

If we insist on this point so strongly, and in despite of the great authority of the scholar and critic who has arranged the casts, it is because we feel the immense importance of facilitating study to our hurried American young people, much too inclined to believe that what cannot be known by the light of nature is not worth knowing. It is not many years since an English journal, capable of better things, sneered at the American disposition to make indexes and books of reference as at an unworthy disposition to facilitate the picking up of scraps of information. Scraps of information are better than no information at all, and it is certain that the teacher of American students has to provide to a large extent for persons who have but little time to give to study. But one object of our competent teachers should be recognized as the facilitating of study by all such means, for nothing grows faster by indulgence than a love of getting knowledge. In the case in point, familiarity with a certain order of the casts in these galleries may do more, either to help or to hinder knowledge of ancient art, than perhaps has been supposed. We dread the false impression which will be given to the student by the recollection of pieces of sculpture of very different styles and of far distant times cheek by jowl in the same gallery. We long for a uniformly logical arrangement in this respect, that the mind may be aided in its effort to realize what the Greek sculpture of any time really was like; and it is worth while to insist upon ideal perfection of order in such a collection as this, which has been made with the most minute and learned consideration of the whole field, and with a thoroughly critical comprehension of what is needed most in a collection of a given size. Nor has the limit of size been too severe; this collection, as indeed the annual report, recently issued, makes clear, is one of the important ones now in existence, ranking, according to the latest trustworthy reports, with the largest in Europe, except the overwhelming one at Berlin. That one, indeed, outnumbers all others in the proportion of five to two; but Boston ranks with the old-established and well-known collections of Bonn and Dresden, and just after that of Strasbourg, which has been newly made at great cost, and far in advance of the much-trumpeted collections at Cambridge and South Kensington. The casts, too, are of unusual excellence. The greatest pains have been taken to provide for getting the best possible first-hand reproduction in every case, and old casts have been laid aside or sold and new ones ordered, with a beautiful sense of the necessity of perfectness in such a matter, whenever the old casts were suspected of any shortcomings. Moreover, one of the great objections to a collection of casts seems to have been overcome; and we are told that the newly invented process and machine which we know by the name of the inventor, Fondechin, have been secured by the Boston Museum to keep its casts white hereafter, or at least of the color which it is desired they should have. They will no longer become grimy with the dust that settles upon them, but retain their color, as marble does, subject only to such very slight alterations as atmospheric influence alone may cause.

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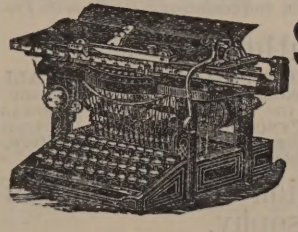

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 3, 1890.

The Week.

ALTHOUGH the Senate passed the Dependent Pension Bill on Monday by a vote of more than three to one, a halt was called on the mad rush for reckless grants from the Treasury which is full of encouragement. The passage of the bill under consideration was inevitable, as the Republican majority were thoroughly committed to it, and many of the Democrats had consented to the passage of a similar measure during the Cleveland Administration. Consequently there has never been a shadow of hope that the nation could escape having this additional charge saddled upon it since it became assured that the Republicans would control both Congress and the Presidency. The important feature of Monday's proceedings was the refusal of the Republican majority to go a step further on the road, and the earnest and successful opposition of two leading representatives of the party, Messrs. Frye and Hawley, to the vastly larger and more dangerous schemes which have stalked behind the Dependent Pension Bill. One of these was brought forward by Mr. Plumb of Kansas, in the shape of an amendment removing the limitation as to arrears of pensions, so as to make pensions on account of wounds, or injuries, or disease commence from the death or discharge of the soldier; and was, of course, heartily supported by Mr. Blair of New Hampshire. A Democratic Senator asking whether any estimate had been made of the cost of removing this limitation, Mr. Plumb calmly replied that the Commissioner of Pensions had stated some weeks ago that the cost would be about $478,000,000, and that the Chairman of the House Committee on Pensions had estimated it at $500,000,000; "it would be somewhere about these figures." Another Democratic Senator declared his conviction that the cost would not be a dollar less than $600,000,000, one-half of which would have to be turned over at the first quarterly payment, and he pointed out that, if the amendment were adopted, there would have to be some means provided for paying that immense amount. But Mr. Blair was not appalled by any such figures as $600,000,000, and cheerfully admitted that he "thought it very likely that the cost of arrears of pensions would reach $600,000,000, and it might reach a billion." However, he said, it was only the payment of a debt, and "it was time to call a halt on such low, selfish, and devilish considerations as were raised against the payment of that debt."

The new tariff bill of the Ways and Means Committee has already caused a schism in the Republican ranks, and this promises to grow wider as the combat goes on. The reimposition of a duty on hides has exasperated the Massachusetts members much more than the first action of the Committee did. The Massachusetts men had been given to understand that this tax had been taken out of the bill, and, in fact, it had been. When this resolution was reconsidered, and the tax put back, it came with redoubled terrors to the New England men, because, in addition to the tax itself, which was quite sufficient to unsettle things politically in several Congressional districts, it showed a state of "wobbling" among the leaders which must prove very demoralizing to the rank and file. The Boston Home-Market Club had passed a resolution stigmatizing the duty on hides as "superlatively unwise," and the Boston *Journal of Commerce* of Saturday said that "if hides should be placed in the tariff among dutiable articles, it would go a long way in throwing the politics of New England into the hands of the Democrats." This was said when it was supposed that hides had been restored to the free list. If it was true then, it is true now, and perhaps truer, since there is now the added conviction among the leathermen that they have been deceived and played with. Why the Committee of Ways and Means reconsidered their action, and put hides again in the dutiable list, is easy enough to see. The West is in an unsettled state on the tariff question generally, and would throw the whole thing over without much compunction. The West has made the duty on hides a sort of test question. There may be some spirit of wantonness in it, but the danger in that quarter is considered greater than the danger in New England. Hence the duty on hides has been put back in the bill. It serves the interests of tariff reform about equally well either way.

Works of art are placed on the free list, and the President has sent a special message to Congress recommending such action. The message is accompanied by a report from Secretary Blaine, who says that the duty on paintings and statuary has been made the subject of repeated representations on the part of foreign Governments. There have been rumors from time to time that negotiations were in progress with the French Government looking to the swapping of pork for pictures; *i. e.*, that we would admit pictures free if France would do the same for our hog products—a fine thing to go down in history: pork for pictures, bacon for water colors, the works of Meissonier for those of "Phil" Armour; two of the leading nations of the world, at the close of the nineteenth century, higgling with each other, one saying, If you will stop taxing our cut meats, we will stop taxing your works of art, and vice versa. But we should be quite ready to accept the end and forego criticism on the means. It happens, however, that simultaneously with this happy negotiation comes the brutal McKinley Administrative Bill, which has so angered the French people that it is doubtful whether any kind of tariff we might adopt on works of art would have any mollifying influence. That pestilent measure, in its consignment clause, virtually says to foreign countries, "You shall not sell to us; whatever we want of you we will go to your shop and buy." It is useless to expect to carry on any negotiations about little things while this big thing stands in the way. If Minister Reid and Secretary Blaine want to promote the killing of pigs for the French market, let them first kill that old hog, the McKinley bill.

The decision of the Supreme Court of the United States, reversing two decisions of the Supreme Court of Minnesota in railway cases, distinctly declares that neither a State Railroad Commission nor a State law can arbitrarily fix rates. On the contrary, such rates must be determined, when any question is raised as to their reasonableness, by a judicial proceeding, not by a mere hearing before executive officers. Anything less than this is depriving persons of their property without due process of law, and is therefore in conflict with the Constitution of the United States. This decision removes the most serious menace to railway property that has ever existed in this country, or in any country, and must be welcomed by all persons who hold such property, or indeed who hold any property of any kind.

Every few years there comes to the surface of things agricultural an organization of one kind or another that proposes to amend the world in the interest of the farmer. Offices are opened, secretaries are hired, stationery is bought, and perhaps some mischievous legislation is adopted which puts the farmer in a worse position than he was before by enabling smart people to rob him to better advantage. When, after the lapse of time, the farmers find out that they have been "fooled again," the organization falls in pieces, and the agricultural classes go on with their farm work, taking their chances with the nation at large until they have forgotten the lesson and start in again under new leaders to fresh disasters. A few years ago it was the Grange, now it is the Alliance. The latter organization is making the most stir in Kansas. At Topeka, after a two days' session, resolutions have been passed setting forth the principles of the Alliance in that quarter. They demand, among other things, that the Legislature should "apportion" the shrinkage of farm values between the mortgageor and the mortgagee—that is, scale down the debts of the former according to some basis that the Legislature in its wisdom shall find just and equitable; in other words, pass a law impairing the obligation of contracts. They demand, also, that Congress shall investigate the original bill for the issue of national bonds to see whether the word "for" was erased and the word "after" substituted, whereby the pay-

ment of the 4 per cents was postponed to the year 1907. Also, that State Railroad Commissioners be elected by the people, and that they be vested with plenary power to fix rates—that is, that all railroad property be vested in "the people." Also, that homesteads be exempted from taxation in whole or in part, and that cumulative taxes be imposed on lands held by speculators, non-residents, and aliens, etc., etc.

The only resolution in the series that has a grain of common sense is the one which opposes the reëlection of Ingalls to the United States Senate; but this is deprived of any force by being mixed up with a "demand" that Senators be elected by a direct vote of the people, in the teeth of a clause of the Constitution of the United States directing that they be elected by the Legislatures of the several States. They might as well "demand" that the President shall be elected by the Supreme Court. If they meant that the Constitution ought to be amended in this sense, any convention not strictly bedlamite in its composition would have said so.

The true meaning of Mr. Blaine's proposal of unlimited reciprocity to the Argentines is, we have excellent reasons for believing, that it was only a move in the game he is playing for what he regards as a far higher stake than any mere matter of commerce. He has set his heart on getting from the Pan-American Congress a grand scheme for obligatory and universal arbitration to be put into force over this entire hemisphere. That he has encountered opposition is clear from the long delay in the Committee's report on that subject; it was promised for March 1, but is not yet forthcoming. It is an open secret that the Argentines have all along refused to acquiesce in some of the anti-European features involved in the plan as drawn up by Mr. Blaine. To secure their adhesion, what more tempting offer could be made than a great free market for their wool? Yet it is evident, from the inspired abuse of them which appears in the *Tribune*, that the offer was not accepted. They simply could not accept it. Under instructions, as they are, to withstand any utterance which might give offence to friendly European Powers, they could not consider even the most positive offer of commercial advantages; and they are altogether too shrewd not to know that Mr. Blaine has no power to give them reciprocity. They know very well the great difference between a proposed treaty and a confirmed treaty in this country. To say, as the *Tribune* does, that they are basely acting in the interest of England, does not help matters very much. They are acting under instructions from their home Government, and it is rather hard to reconcile a delicate regard for England on the part of the Argentine Republic with that hatred of all things European, and willingness to buy American wares at double the foreign price, which, the *Tribune* has assured us, characterize all South Americans.

The glib assertion of our Department of State, in its publications designed for the Pan-American Congress, that we can successfully compete with European manufacturers in the South American market, is left dangling by a long article in the Vienna *Handels-Museum* of January 9. The writer, Oskar A. Droege, first shows by an examination of the statistics of our South American trade that, as Mr. David A. Wells has recently pointed out, our exports have scarcely held their own of late years. Then he submits our exports to a searching analysis, remarking that they are mostly made up of raw materials, and that the machinery we have sold has been of special kinds the demand for which is sure to be less in the future. In the great staples of manufactured goods Europe has the whole market. Our whole yearly export to any of these countries, he says, "of toys, fine leather goods, harness, carpets, metal goods, toilet soap, porcelain, copper wares, etc., would scarcely supply a single warehouse such as those that fill the Rua do Ouvridor in Rio Janeiro, the Plateros in Mexico, and the Portales in Santiago, house after house, all stocked with European goods." He speaks of our pride of isolation, of our sublime contempt for an export trade, and says that it is almost a settled thing in the minds of foreigners that "the North Americans do not manufacture for export, but desire to have foreign buyers regulate their taste by the stray American goods they see in their own lands." His natural conclusion is, that, "without some new tendencies of emigration or some other unforeseen change in existing relations," European exporters have no reason whatever to fear our competition in the markets of Central and South America.

Another phase of the same question is dealt with in an interesting manner in the same paper of February 20, in a long letter from Buenos Ayres. The correspondent refers to the alleged European nervousness lest the Pan-American Congress should result in the establishment of an American Zollverein to the injury of European commercial relations, and says that, "so far as the Argentine Republic is concerned, this fear has not the slightest foundation." He follows this with a recapitulation of the financial and commercial situation of the country in question, and sums it all up by saying: "The Argentine Republic has no sufficient motive for cutting herself off from Europe and entering into an American customs union, and the United States, besides, are not in a position to supplant Europe here in either commercial or financial matters." It remains to be seen how Mr. Blaine proposes to dispose of these difficulties. His note or memorandum on the subject will be extremely interesting.

Gov. Hill's third veto of ballot-reform legislation is the most perfunctory and dispirited document of the series. He is obviously depressed by the knowledge that the number of people who are deceived by his specious excuses is much smaller to-day than ever before. He lays much stress upon his own assumption that the Legislature, in declining to accept his proposal for a joint reference of the question of the bill's constitutionality to the Court of Appeals for an informal opinion, incurred the chief responsibility for the present veto; but the pretence is so transparent that he is unable to give it an aspect of seriousness. If he really wished for the Court's informal opinion, he could have asked for it alone with full as much reasonableness and with full as much hope of success as he could have asked for it in company with the Legislature. His constitutional objections, with a single unimportant addition, are substantially the same as they were in his previous messages, being aimed almost entirely at the exclusive official-ballot provision of the bill. As that is the vital principle of the reform, his continued objection to it, in face of the facts that ten States have adopted laws containing it, and that in two of those States the laws have been put into operation with such complete success as to stifle all opposition within their limits, simply means that he is unalterably opposed to the reform itself, and that his constitutional objections are mere pretexts.

Gov. Hill's selection of Gen. Sickles for Sheriff is a commendable one. The General is and has been for many years a Tammany Democrat, but he showed by the manner in which he administered the office of President of the State Board of Civil-Service Commissioners that his conception of public office was not that which prevails in Tammany Hall. He is a man of much force of character, of large wealth, and of no inclination to use public office for the personal benefit of himself or of "politics." He says of the Sheriff's office:

> "It will be my ambition to run the office to the satisfaction of the bench, the bar, and the people. Whether it can be run on the legal fees or not, I do not know. Only the legal fees will be charged. If they are not large enough, I will call the matter to the attention of the Legislature for the benefit of my successor. I do not have to live on the fees of the office. I am well enough off to be independent of the official recompense. Whatever the legal fee may be, that and that only will be charged. Nothing additional will be accepted. I do not know whether or not I will make any changes in the office; any man guilty of impropriety or overcharging will not be retained. I intend that the office shall be conducted in a manner beyond criticism. If the fees are not sufficient to conduct the office, I will make up the deficiency and call the matter to the attention of the Legislature. No additional charges not authorized by law will be permitted."

If he carries out these pledges, he will accomplish one of the most salutary reforms ever bestowed upon this city. He has only eight months in which to hold the position, but that will be ample time for a man of his ability and energy to sweep out the whole gang of bummers, loafers, petty thieves, and ignorant public plunderers who have held sway there, according to the Grand Jury, for the past twenty years, and to put the office on a permanent basis of

honest and intelligent administration. That will be a reform worthy any man's ambition.

How is it that no attempt has as yet been made to indict Mayor Grant as well as the deputy sheriffs? He is the principal offender. It was he who conducted the Sheriff's office on the corrupt basis which the Grand Jury has exposed. It was he who employed these men. He shared their booty himself and directed or authorized the manner in which it was to be divided with others. Surely there must be evidence which will support an indictment against him also. The Grand Jury, which has spoken out so boldly, is hardly likely to be affected by the account of himself which imposed on so many people when he was made Mayor, and by which he even got into what is called "Society." There has been nothing more curious in the history of imposture and credulity than the manner in which this Tammany Boy, without a solitary advantage except the possession of a small inherited fortune, largely made, we believe, in the liquor business and invested in liquor-stores, has made his way during the past two years in this unfortunate city. He obtained, while wallowing in corruption and fraud in the Sheriff's office, a certificate from 121 members of the bar that he was conducting the office with a purity and efficiency such as is rarely seen in any public office anywhere. On this he was elected Mayor. He then obtained the insertion in a journal of the highest standing, famed for its hostility to Tammany and all its works and ways, of an extravagant eulogy of himself and his chosen friends and counsellors, under the common Tammany title of "the Big Four," accompanied by their portraits. On this he issued a call for a Columbus Fair, and speedily got himself surrounded by all our leading citizens, who listened to him and took suggestions from him with respect not unmixed with admiration. His praise was soon heard at all the dinner-tables. As soon as he became the figure-head of the Fair, "Society" took him up. Mr. W. W. Astor gave a great dinner in his honor, and he even "opened" a Patriarchs' ball as a dancer. We can recall nothing quite like this, except the success of the English butcher boy in persuading considerable numbers of intelligent people that he was a long-lost baronet of ancient lineage. The reign of common sense is, however, now restored, and it is time that justice were done.

Mr. Charles Dudley Warner has been writing an excellent article in the *Forum* on "Newspapers and the Public," but we fear it will get him into much trouble, for he criticises the American press severely. This is something the press will never submit to tamely, and yet nothing is more necessary. A large part of the faults and follies of the newspapers are due to the fact that they expend no criticism on each other. They fight a good deal about comparative circulation, and about the comparative amount of "news" they contain, and about the comparative rascality of their respective editors, but good, sensible criticism on the way in which they discharge their self-imposed duties to the public, from anybody who can make them mind, they rarely hear. A minister or college president occasionally ventures on it, but, instead of receiving it meekly and profiting by it, they proceed to make his life uncomfortable by some sort of irrelevant ridicule or abuse. What they need is criticism from esteemed contemporaries who can answer back, who are not afraid of them, and can follow up offenders *l'épée dans les reins*. It is a good sign to see a kindly person like Mr. Warner doing a little of this most necessary work. Nobody needs criticism as much as the man who passes his life criticising everybody else and everything sacred or profane he can set eyes on or hear of. Mr. Warner has some excellent remarks on the responsibility of the public for the great circulation of "the most vulgar, most sensational, and most chaotically conducted" newspapers. Also, on the notorious fact that the men who most denounce the newspaper press are the most diligent readers of the more scurrilous, silly, and indecent journals. Most of his observations are thrown into the safe interrogative form, and many of the most searching are put into the mouth of the "intelligent foreigner." But Mr. Warner cannot secure impunity in this way. He will catch it, but we advise him to stand to his guns, and, as he has a newspaper of his own, give as good as he gets.

Some of the friends of the common schools in Massachusetts engaged in defending them against Papal aggression are, we fear, about to make themselves and their cause a little ridiculous by proposing the disfranchisement of all Roman Catholics, on the ground that they give their highest allegiance to the Pope, and consequently cannot, any more than the Mormons, be good sectarians and good citizens of the United States. The "Committee of One Hundred," who take this ground, and have issued a pamphlet in support of it, with numerous quotations from Papal documents, do not seem to be aware that they are threshing out once more the oldest, fustiest, and best-beaten straw of religious controversy. All this story was gone over in England immediately after the Vatican Council had issued the decree of infallibility, Cardinal Newman taking a leading part in it. There is nothing new to be said about it. Time makes every word of it every year more and more futile. After you have quoted a hundred Papal bulls, rescripts, encyclicals, and pastoral addresses in support of the contention that every man who goes to mass and calls himself a Catholic considers the Pope his sovereign on earth, and will obey nobody else, sensible men will continue to ask, But is it true in the light of actual experience? Do Catholics, as a matter of fact, obey the Pope in their political action and in their relations to their fellow-citizens of other denominations? Everybody knows they do not—that on most of them the political declamation of their clergy has no effect whatever. And then is there no more practical work to do in this age of the world than advocating the disfranchisement, on religious grounds, of a million voters who belong to the oldest and largest Christian denomination?

The French protectionists are running protection into the ground very much like our own. They have furnished the Lyons silk-manufacturers with a grievance very like that of our own woollen-manufacturers. The Lyons manufacturers consume annually 4,000,000 kilos of raw silk. Of this France herself only furnishes 800,000 kilos, and even if she could furnish the whole 4,000,000 of any kind of raw silk, could not possibly furnish all the varieties needed by the French manufacturer, whose position in this also resembles closely that of our woollen-man who needs coarse wools which cannot be produced here. But the French silk-growers here step in and ask heavy duties on the raw silk, which has roused the Lyons manufacturers to fury, and they have in convention not only protested against the proposed duty on raw silk, but demanded that all raw material which enters in any way into the silk manufacture, whether silk, wool, or cotton, shall be put on the free list. This question of "raw materials" is bothering the high-tariff men a great deal all over the world, and will bother them more and more every year.

The Spanish dissident Liberals are following the example of their political analogues in England and playing into the hands of the Conservatives. Gen. Martinez Campos recently had himself interviewed by a Cadiz newspaper, and prophesied a speedy return of Cánovas to power. He thought that a general election would have to be held in July or thereabouts, and that the Conservatives would be successful. He should cast his influence in their favor, he said, and he intimated pretty broadly that he might be a member of the new Conservative Cabinet. The other disaffected Liberals have not gone as far as this, at least not openly, but keep on giving a great deal of aid and comfort to their ancient enemies. It all results in giving a tone of unaccustomed personality and bitterness to the debates in the Cortes, and forecasts a most hotly contested campaign when once dissolution comes. Sagasta's failure to reconcile the revolting members of his own party has naturally given a more radical slant to his policy. He is evidently going to rely upon the votes of the men to be enfranchised by his suffrage bill, and to accentuate in general the democratic features of his programme. The form in which the economic issue is to figure in the election is not yet clearly apparent, but it seems certain that Sagasta will be driven by the logic of the contest, if not by his own choice, into a pretty pronounced advocacy of free trade. The extensive labor troubles now existing in the manufacturing region of Cataluña will probably help to bring up sharply the question of the national fiscal policy, and it will be strange if so shifty a politician as Sagasta does not find his account in them somehow.

THE TWILIGHT OF THE TARIFF.

SINCE our present high "war" tariff was adopted as a national policy, almost thirty years, or, practically, a generation of time, has passed away. During that long period many special causes have combined both to obscure the high-tariff evil and to postpone the results to which its economic heresies were bound sooner or later to lead. The size of our country with free trade within its borders, the expansion of our railroad systems, and currency questions, have been some of the most forceful of these obscuring and delaying facts—to say nothing of the civil war itself and certain exciting questions not connected with the currency which grew out of it. One by one, however, these national causes, checking the advance of high protection towards its end, have either passed quite away or their influence has been greatly slackened. As a consequence we now see the iniquitous system moving with quickened pace to its downfall. It has in all probability now reached that secondary stage which goes before its final disaster. The present juncture is therefore a very favorable time for reviewing both the general symptoms of the high-tariff disease in afflicted nations, and those secondary and final ones which our own American patient is now manifesting.

Historically, and as an economic development, we shall find a high protective tariff almost always springing from some morbid condition of national life. England had it at its worst during her Continental wars and the outgrowing fiscal problems. Her movement to abolish it, culminating in the repeal of the Corn Laws, came not many years after the return of prosperity and peace. In France we see it as the outcome of the tremendous burdens imposed by the war of 1870. In Germany, under Bismarck, it has been the sequel of his efforts to disguise taxes so as to sustain an abnormal military armament. In Canada, where protection has never run to extremes, its most potent subcause was retaliation against the United States. Thus, as a rule, almost without exception, we shall find protective tariffs born from national emergency or distress, not from the sober national quietudes. In this respect, as in many others, protection is singularly like an inflation of the currency by irredeemable paper money. Both are the product of national troubles; both favor a class, not the mass of the people; both disguise their evils for a time; and both must finally be remedied by the pressure of industrial pain. In fact, to pursue the analogy, we have very likely reached in our country just now with our tariff question one of those "long drags" leading to a final cure which marked the beginning of our currency and financial troubles in 1873. Certainly we have come to the time when, with the "war issues" removed or greatly lessened, economic truths assert themselves with double strength.

The scientific prognosis of the high-tariff disease, with its baleful paradox of creating national wealth by taxation, is always substantially the same in nations, and varies only in its minor symptoms. When adopted as a policy, its first effect is to give a certain semblance of prosperity. Capital pours into new industries under the stimulus of the governmental tax-bounty. To the shallow and thoughtless, these "new industries" thus artificially reared by subtraction of wealth from more healthful ones always seem solid growth and industrial progress. But as time goes on, the error demonstrates itself, soon or late. The prices of manufactured products rise. This checks the exportation of them, and forces the factory to rely on the home market. Exportation goes on only or mostly in the natural products of the country which are "unprotected," and even here the producer of them—like the American farmer—must incur the disadvantage of paying enhanced protective prices for his machinery of production. Meanwhile, in the restricted home market, manufacturing rushes upward. Its first large profits from the national tax-bounty impel into it an undue amount of capital. But, sooner or later, the point is reached where manufacturing begins to be congested and to compete actively with itself. This is the symptom of the breakdown of the system. It is the period when one protected industry begins its outcry against another, seeks a large market, and demands free raw material; when abatement or delay of competition is sought by Trusts or kindred combinations; when the appeal goes out to "hold together" and resist the "entering wedge" which is to rend the protected group; when every attempt to "revise" protection cuts with a two-edged sword; and finally, when the great mass of unprotected consumers of protected products awake to the realities of the topheavy industrial policy and demand a change.

The date of the rivalry of protection with itself, feeding on its own vitals, is the beginning of the end, the twilight of a high tariff. It notes clearly that ultimate stage of high-tariff history which we are witnessing in this country at the present time. After protection, owing to the wiles of demagogues, to tricks of legislation, and to diverting national events, has had everything its own way for almost thirty years, it stands at last brought to bay by the often slow but ever certain working out of economic law. The cries of woe from New England manufacturers, the awakening of the farmers to the causes of their own poverty, the writhings and contortions among the Republican tariff "revisionists" at Washington, have meanings not to be mistaken. It only remains to be seen whether the country is to emerge gradually and by stages from the high-tariff blight, or whether Republican party fatuity is to force reform by whirlwind at the last.

THE MONTANA SENATORIAL CONTEST.

THE decision of the Republican majority of the Senate Committee on Privileges and Elections in favor of seating the two Republican Senators from Montana is a case of "going behind the returns" worthy of an old-time Southern Returning Board. In order to make clear what they have done, it will be necessary to review the facts in the case from the outset, that is, to go back to the first State election of Montana held in March, 1889.

The whole question before the Senate Committee turned on the validity of the official returns from Precinct 34, in Silver Bow County. Previous to the holding of the election, a tunnel was being cut in this county through the mountains at a spot remote from any organized community. One of the contractors, being a Republican and a candidate for the State Legislature, wished to have a voting precinct established near the tunnel, so as to allow the men engaged there to vote at the election. At his request the County Commissioners, who were Republicans, established a precinct, and the Republican County Committee paid the expenses of carrying the men who were working in the tunnel over to the city of Butte to register, and the Republican contractor agreed that the men should be allowed their regular pay for that day's work. Three judges of election were appointed, two Republicans and one Democrat. Pay-day at the tunnel came before election-day, and the men found that the promise of the contractor was not kept, as they did not receive their pay for the day they had been away to be registered. On election day the men took their revenge for this treatment by voting almost unanimously, 171 out of 174, for the Democratic candidates for the Legislature, and for the Democratic ticket generally. The judges of election made up the poll-list in the ordinary form, and forwarded it to the County Canvassing Board. Under the law the County Canvassers were directed to make an abstract of the returns from all election boards, and they prepared such an abstract, putting thereon the returns from the tunnel precinct.

Within twenty-four hours, however, it was known that the vote of the county turned upon the result in this precinct, and that the result in the Legislature, upon which the election of two United States Senators depended, turned upon the result in Silver Bow County. Telegrams began to pour in from the leading politicians of the Territory, and on Sunday following the election "visiting statesmen" arrived from Helena, and on Monday morning it was found that the abstract which the County Canvassing Board had already prepared was altered by a red line drawn through the returns from the tunnel precinct. This being known, the Democrats at once obtained a writ of mandamus from the Territorial Judge, commanding them to include Precinct No. 34 in the count and abstract, and thereupon the County Canvassing Board prepared a new abstract containing returns from the tunnel precinct, and this was the only document forwarded by the County Canvassing Board to the State Canvassing Board under the requirements of the law. The State Canvassing Board, however, on receipt of this return, made up its State returns; and although its authority under the wording of the statute was simply to canvass the returns received from the County Canvassing Boards and declare the result, it disregarded the tunnel precinct, and

assumed the authority to issue certificates of election to five of the Republican candidates for the Legislature from Silver Bow County. That county was entitled to ten members of the Legislature; four of the Democratic candidates were elected beyond question; and the other five Democratic candidates would be elected if the tunnel precinct was counted, and one Republican also. The State Canvassing Board sent certificates of election to the five Republicans, but did not send certificates to the four Democrats who were elected beyond question.

The Constitution of the State adopted by the people at this election provides expressly that all laws of the Territory in force at the time of the election, and not expressly or by necessary implication repealed by the Constitution or the ordinances adopted by the Constitutional Convention, were to remain in full force and effect. The laws of the Territory in force before this election prescribed that the election returns should be canvassed by a board consisting of the Chairman of the Board of County Commissioners, the Probate Judge, and another official, or any two of them, and the Clerk of the County Commissioners was to issue certificates to the members of the Territorial Legislature, which certificates were to be prima-facie evidence of the right to join in the organization of the Legislature. Now the ordinance known as No 2 took from the County Canvassing Board the right to make the final canvass, and directed them, in place of making such canvass, to make an abstract of the returns of the judges of election, which abstract was to be sent to the Secretary of State, and he, together with the Governor of the State and the Chief Justice, was to canvass the votes and declare the results.

In another paragraph of the ordinance the same trio are instructed to canvass the votes cast for the Constitution, and the Governor is then authorized and directed to certify to the President the result. But in the case of the votes cast for officers the expression used is that they are to canvass the votes and declare the result. The Territorial laws had very particularly expressed the duties of the officer whose business it was to issue certificates of election to members of the Legislature-elect, and had expressly made these certificates prima-facie evidence of the right to take part in the organization of the Legislature; and it is to be noted that, under the Territorial law, the persons whose duty it was to issue the certificates formed no part of the Canvassing Board.

The Governor by proclamation appointed a day for the meeting of the Legislature, and by a second proclamation designated the Court-house, the place where the Territorial Legislature had met in times past, as the place of meeting. The Democrats of the House met according to the two proclamations, and the five Silver Bow Democrats presented their certificates from the County Clerk; they were duly recognized by the Committee on Credentials, they took part in the organization of the House, and they remained from that time on with the Legislature, or what is known as the "Court-house Legislature." The Republican members met at Iron Hall, the five Republicans from Silver Bow being present with certificates from the State Canvassing Board, and organized a rival house. Neither house had a quorum without the members in dispute. The State Senate was also evenly divided—eight Republicans and eight Democrats. The Lieutenant-Governor, who by law presided and had the casting vote, was a Republican. All the formalities usual in the election of United States Senators were observed. The Governor of the State recognized the Democratic joint convention, and issued certificates of election to the Democratic Senators, but the Secretary of State, who was a Republican, refused to attest the Governor's signature or to affix the seal of the State thereto. He, on the contrary, issued certificates to the Senators elected by the Republican joint convention, signing the certificates himself.

The questions presented to the Senate Committee were, first, the question of fact as to which of the rival Legislatures was the legal one, the answer to this question depending upon their decision as to which certificate was the legal one, and this question could not be considered doubtful. The law requires that the County Clerk shall issue the certificate, and that such certificates are the prima-facie evidence of right to organize the Legislature. If, however, the Committee decided to go behind this and go back to the question of which men were duly elected members of the Legislature, they must decide that the Democrats were duly elected, whether they decided to go back of the returns of the Election Board at the tunnel precinct or not, unless they decided that the State Canvassing Board had the authority to throw out the returns of a precinct without having any evidence before them whatever to justify such action, and when the only legal evidence that could come before them was the abstract made by the County Canvassing Board, which contained returns from this precinct. They took the latter course.

To reach their decision the Republican majority of the Committee were forced to disregard the fact that the question of the regularity of the election at Precinct 34 had been passed upon by a court of competent jurisdiction in Montana, aided by a jury from the locality, which decided that the election was free from fraud and conducted in substantial compliance with the terms of the law. They were forced to disregard also the direct evidence of the affidavits of the judges of the election, two Republican and one Democratic, that the election was free, fair, and legally conducted, and the votes returned as cast. Their decision, under such conditions, makes election by the people a farce, and election by Canvassing Boards the only one recognized as valid by the Republicans of the United States Senate. This is restoring at Washington, under Harrison, in 1890, the condition of affairs which existed in the Southern States under the carpet-baggers of 1876-'7. It remains to be seen if the Republican majority in the Senate are capable of such extreme partisanship as the majority of the Committee have shown; but there is small reason for hoping anything better of them. When a Republican President confers office and honors and patronage upon the most discredited members of the old carpet-bag gang of the South, why should not the Republican Senate revive for the party's use the Returning-Board methods of the same gang?

A FIELD DAY IN THE SENATE.

THE debate in the Senate on Wednesday, March 26, was really one of the sort of things that ought not to be allowed to pass into oblivion. Some of the smartest and most experienced Senators of the period took an active part in the exercises. The bill under consideration was Senator Sherman's Anti-Trust Bill, and the amendment of Senator Ingalls of Kansas was the particular subject of attention. This amendment proposed that dealers in "futures," when bargaining for grain, cotton, or provisions, shall pay a license tax of $1,000, and a further tax of so much per pound on the articles bought or sold. In order to make the bill effective it was necessary, of course, to define futures. This was neatly done by the Kansas Senator. Futures were defined to be "any contract or agreement whereby a party agrees to sell and deliver at a future time to another any of the articles mentioned, when at the time of making such contract or agreement the party so agreeing to make such a delivery, or the party for whom he acts as agent, broker, or employee in making such contract or agreement, is not, at the time of making the same, the owner or the lawful agent of such owner of the article so contracted and agreed to be delivered."

There was such happy unanimity among Senators as to the desirableness of this amendment that when the vote was taken on it, the day previous to the field day we are now considering, there was no division. Mr. Sherman did object that it was not germane to the subject of Trusts. One or two Senators said that, since it was a bill imposing taxes, it would be unconstitutional if it were to originate in the Senate. Mr. Ingalls disposed of this objection by showing that although it was a tax bill, still it was not the *intention* to "raise revenue" by it, and therefore it was not obnoxious to clause 1, section 7, article i. of the Constitution. How a court, being asked to pass upon the bill (as the courts surely would be asked), would ascertain the *intention* of all the Senators, besides Ingalls, and all the Representatives in voting for it, and of the President of the United States in signing it, was not made clear by the Hon. Senator from Kansas; but neither the constitutional question nor the parliamentary question (as to its being germane or not) was deemed of sufficient consequence to justify a call for the yeas and nays. The amendment was adopted on Tuesday *nem con.* Entire harmony, so far as appeared on the surface, existed as to the merits of the measure, even such good business men as Senators Allison and Sherman giving it their approval in principle, although objecting somewhat as to time, place, and form.

When the Senate met on Wednesday, after

some desultory talk about legal construction, Senator Eustis of Louisiana remarked that the Ingalls amendment would prevent a man from selling any cotton for future delivery unless he happened to own it at the time. Senator Pugh denied that it could have any such effect. Senator Butler said that he understood it the same way that Senator Eustis did. Then Senator Pugh appealed to Senator Ingalls to know whether he (Pugh) had interpreted the bill rightly. Ingalls thereupon stated that Pugh understood the clause rightly, adding that it was not the intention to prevent anybody from selling anything "of which the parties may be possessed, or of which they may be the producers, or which they intend actually to deliver, *provided they are the owners of it*"—that being precisely the contrary of what Pugh did understand. Then Ingalls made a fine speech against speculators and in favor of the Farmers' Alliance, winding up with a few appropriate remarks about the war and the rebel brigadiers.

The latter observation called up Senator Vest, and served to switch the debate off upon another line for a while. But Senator Blair drew it back to the right place by saying that, as he read it, the bill would prevent a New Hampshire cotton-spinner from buying cotton for future delivery, unless he could find a seller who actually owned it at the time; and since usually the sellers did not own it at the time, but expected to get it after the crop was gathered, the bill would, if executed, close most of the mills in New England. Then Senator Mitchell of Oregon discovered that the Ingalls amendment would prevent a farmer from selling his own wheat crop before it was matured, since he could not be said actually to own wheat while it was still in the nature of green grass. Senator Allison kindly came to Mr. Mitchell's assistance by suggesting as an amendment that the word "producer" be added after the word "owner," so that producers might sell for future delivery although not actual owners. This amendment was accepted by Ingalls. Then Senator Sherman made the fatherly suggestion that he supposed the intention of the Kansas Senator was to prohibit contracts when the parties had *no intention* of delivering the property, but only to pay differences. Senator Hoar, who had hitherto taken no part in the debate, here suggested a form of words to meet the Sherman idea, adding that of course the onus of proving the intent would be on the Government, just as in other criminal proceedings; to which Senator Allison replied that the intent would necessarily be the intent at the time of making the contract, and not at the time of executing it. A man's intentions might be ever so good to deliver a thousand bales of cotton, yet when the time came he might not be able to do so. Mr. Allison went on to tell why "our people" want the Ingalls amendment to pass. They want it because they think that dealing in futures "has a tendency to greatly depress the price of agricultural produce." Mr. Allison prudently abstained from saying whether he agreed with "our people" in that opinion. Probably he does not. Probably he sees that just as much wheat has to be bought as is sold, whether in futures or otherwise, and that since the two balance each other the effect is, upon the whole, *nil*.

The end of this field day was that Ingalls himself offered an amendment to his own amendment, providing that the bill should "not apply to bona-fide contracts for the actual delivery of the property contracted for." This was adopted, as the other had been, without a division. Therefore anybody who deals in futures bona-fide, as all good people do, can continue to deal in them without paying any license fee or tax whatever.

THE BAR AND THE SHERIFF.

THE statement of the Grand Jury, in its late presentment, that the Sheriff's office had been given up to corruption and disorder during the last twenty years, suggests inevitably to the most intelligent men the question why the bar has never called attention to the matter or initiated any process of purification. In all the treatises on the office of advocate, in most commencement addresses to graduating lawyers, and in responses to after-dinner toasts on behalf of the legal profession, the bar is treated as the special guardian of the machinery of justice. The courts are supposed to know nothing of its working except what the lawyers bring to their notice. The judges rely on the advocates and attorneys, as officers of the court (which they are in the eye of the law), to let them know when any minister of justice has failed in his duty, has been guilty of any act of fraud or oppression, has abused the process of the court or failed to execute it, or has in any manner deprived any litigant of his just legal rights. In fact, the bar may fairly be called the inspector of the judicial procedure. This inspectorship is as much a part of their duty as is the proper presentation of cases in court. Lawyers undertake it, when admitted to practice, as part of the consideration which they pay for the legal monopoly which they enjoy. They are the eyes and ears of Justice. Justice simply sits aloft, waiting for people to come and complain; but the lawyers run about and make themselves acquainted with everything that is going on out of doors.

This being the case—and we do not think any one will dispute it—how comes it that Grant and Flack and their predecessors have been able to turn the Sheriff's office for twenty long years into a den of thieves, without, so far as we know, one word of public remonstrance or exposure or denunciation from any members of our bar? It appears from the evidence taken both by the Fassett Committee and by the Grand Jury, not only that there has been no professional interference with the Sheriff's methods, but that the bar have all this time been paying him the enormous sums in blackmail which made the office "a plum," and which naturally came ultimately out of their clients' pockets. Of course this has constituted a heavy tax on the administration of justice, and a tax which was not paid into the public treasury either, but turned over to bands of ruffians to be spent, probably, largely in vulgar debauchery. Most of those who "go to law" do so most reluctantly. In almost every case one or other of the parties is poor, or in very moderate circumstances, and finds any law-costs a burden hard to bear. But in this city, whether he won or lost, he has had, for a long while back, in addition to his ordinary legal expenses, to contribute more or less heavily to keep the unclean gang of ruffians whom Grant and Flack gathered around them supplied with money, drink, and jewelry, and make a small fortune for the Sheriff himself. We do not need to explain this in detail. The particulars have been set out before with great minuteness in the evidence before the Fassett Committee.

Of course, we know very well what the lawyer's excuse is. If he did not submit to the Sheriff's extortions in one case, his clients in other subsequent cases would be exposed to some sort of wrong in the execution of the process of the Court. The execution would be delayed or postponed until it became worthless, or until some other got in ahead of it; so no scruple is felt in charging the client for greater certainty and expedition in the satisfaction of his legal claims. But the answer to this plea is, that it would excuse the purchase of justice from corrupt judges, and really was used to excuse the purchase of justice in Barnard's day. If a lawyer once admits the necessity of buying his client's rights from any officer of the law who is willing to be bribed, there is no reason why he should not begin with the judge on the bench. It would be more scandalous to pay a judge of the Supreme Court for giving a judgment in your favor, or for giving an early judgment, than to pay extra compensation to the Sheriff for doing his simple duty, but it would not differ from it in principle. Both acts are connivance at a species of fraud on the community, and are a contribution to that rising tide of corruption which is threatening to overwhelm nearly every institution in the State. A client is just as much entitled to protection from the Sheriff at his lawyer's hands as from every other wrong-doer. It is not an advocate's business to buy immunity from malefactors for people who give him briefs. It may be in Sicily or Macedonia, but not in the United States.

We believe the leading legal firms suffered much less from the Sheriff's extortions than the smaller and younger ones, and that this accounts in some degree for the equanimity with which the former have looked on while Grant and Flack fleeced the latter. But surely the bar is, as we are often told, a professional corporation, each member of which is charged with the interests and dignity of the whole, and concerned equally with every other in the proper and efficient administration of justice. If a judge is corrupt, or the Sheriff is a rogue, every lawyer, and not only the lawyers who have actually suffered from it, is bound to take the matter to heart. In truth, in no calling is responsibility to the public so much increased by prominence as the bar. In that, above all places, is the man whose words are weightiest most called on for speech, and

the man whose character stands highest most bound to make it felt in putting a stop to fraud and oppression. There is no class in the community on whose courage and independence American institutions are so dependent to-day for safety and preservation as the lawyers. But if the watchmen will not watch, who will save the city?

SOME CURIOSITIES OF BRITISH STATISTICS.

DUBLIN, March 4, 1890.

THE dying out of superstition and the spread of enlightenment are shown by hardly anything more than the alteration in the character of the almanacs circulating among the masses in these countries. It is not much more than one hundred years since the Stationers' Company had returned on their hands an issue of almost the only almanac then published, because they had tried the experiment of omitting the columns of "the moon's influence on the parts of the human body." In 1833 Charles Knight could only hope that before long the "quantity and tone of such objectionable parts will disappear entirely." In 'Old Moore's' and such other literary corners they still linger—more, doubtless, from habit, and as ministering to that hankering after the occult that remains almost a part of our nature, than because of any real belief in their predictions and astrological jargon. Almanacs are more plentiful than ever. But while they have thrown off their original absurdities, they have widely diverged from the definition given by Webster: "A book or table, containing a calendar of days, weeks, or months, to which astronomical data and various statistics are often added, such as the times of the rising and setting of the sun and moon, changes of the moon, eclipses," etc. If Johnson were living, we can imagine his now defining an almanac as "a menstruum put forward annually by persons and associations to advance their own interests or opinions." One of Webster's derivations is peculiarly apposite to the number of almanacs now given away about Christmas, "Arabic, *manaha*, to give as a present."

For many years I have taken the *Financial Reform Almanack*. The almanac proper figures on only one of its 200 pages. It is about the best shilling's worth I know of to persons seeking information as to the financial condition of the United Kingdom and the aims of British reformers. The Financial Reform Association was established in 1848, to advocate direct taxation, with economy in the public service, and the completion of the free-trade principles of Cobden, and to "insist upon a revision of the land laws and a readjustment of the land tax." It numbers among its Vice-Presidents Mr. Labouchere, Mr. Morley, Mr. Story, Prof. Thorold Rogers, and other well-known Liberals. The Association appears to be locally represented in 117 principal towns and cities in the United Kingdom; in Ireland only in Belfast, a striking indication of how little intelligent interest is, in the present condition of affairs, felt here in the concerns of the United Kingdom. Its offices are in Liverpool. It publishes a monthly journal and this almanac, which, although apparently consisting of dry tables, is full of the most pithy reading. The matter varies somewhat from year to year; a complete file would be a veritable *vade-mecum* for any politician having concerns beyond and above those of party. I cannot do more than note some of the topics exhaustively set forth and discussed in the present number.

The advantages of free trade are expounded in an analysis of the Trade Returns of the Kingdom. The increase of British shipping is striking—from 3,096,000 tons in 1849 to 7,352,000 tons in 1888. The men employed have in the same interval increased from 153,000 only to 224,000, showing with how much greater economy of hands per ton vessels are now navigated. Of vessels entered and cleared in the United Kingdom in 1860, 56.3 per cent. of the tonnage was British; in 1887, 73.6 per cent. You, under your navigation laws, do not appear to have fared so well; according to this almanac, the proportion of your own tonnage in your own ports in 1860 was 70.8 per cent.; in 1877, 21.0 per cent. These estimates do not, I presume, include the tonnage employed in the coasting trade. The wrecks and casualties to British shipping have fallen from a tonnage of 297,000 in 1881 to 198,000 in 1887; the losses of life in the same years from 3,165 to 1,888.

The perusal of an exhaustive article on "Sugar Bounties" leaves the conviction that we have upon the whole gained by the mistaken policy of our neighbors in this respect. The consumption and use of sugar in manufacture per head of our population has increased from 15 20 pounds in 1840 to 73 20 in 1887. An enormous impetus has been given to the manufacture of sweets and confectionery, not only for home consumption, but also for export. "In London alone an annual consumption of 34,000 tons of sugar by certain leading firms engaged in confectionery and jams is accounted for, and the hands employed by these firms number 6,000." The number of sugar-refiners in the United Kingdom has, through changes in the mode of manufacture, diminished; their output has increased from 424,000 tons in 1864 to 739,000 in 1888. With regard to the supposed ruin of our colonies through free trade, we are told that "at no period has there been anything but an increase in the growth of British cane sugar."

The late discussions regarding royal grants have naturally turned attention expressly to the cost of royalty, and we have full tables on this subject. Since the accession of her Majesty in 1837, her relatives living at that date have received £9,050,000. In addition, the Cambridge family have received £910,000, besides special packets, rent-free residences, and exemption from rates and taxes. Prince Albert during his lifetime, and the Queen's descendants up till the present, have received £4,961,000, besides special packets, etc. It would be impossible to estimate the Queen's realized property, which is believed to be very great. She receives £385,000 per annum for her ordinary expenses. Out of certain departments for which this is allocated she is acknowledged to have saved £824,025; but an account of the moneys on other heads is denied the public. Besides this amount the royal yachts (which cost £273,000 to build) demand an outlay of £23,000 per annum, military escort and aides-de-camp £61,000 per annum; royal parks, palaces, and pleasure grounds, excluding such as are virtually set apart for public enjoyment, £36,000. With four yachts kept up at such expense, it shows a want of spirit to saddle the country with some £700 per annum for special packets for members of the royal family. Regarding these accounts generally, we are told they are made out "as if purposely designed to blindfold criticism and delude all inquiries. . . . We contend, therefore for a real and not a piecemeal Civil List."

If we sometimes sigh for the republican economy which leads the United States to pay its President only £10,000 a year, France £24,000, and Switzerland £600, we can at least console ourselves that we are in this respect better off than Austria, whose Emperor receives £775,000, Italy, whose King is allowed £614,000, or Turkey, whose Sultan draws from £1,000,000 to £2,000,000 per annum.

The House of Lords upon the whole manages to feather its nest pretty well at the public expense. Besides a rental from land of £12,838,000 per annum, its members draw as pay in the public service and otherwise £750,000 per annum; 334 out of 474 peers are in one way or other in the receipt of public emoluments, and besides these 6,821 of their relatives, including 12 wives and daughters, 30 mothers and sisters, 109 great-uncles, 32 aunts and great-aunts, 3 grandmothers, 841 cousins, 676 half and second-cousins, and 10 third-cousins. The influence which this golden harvest gives royalty and the nobility is one great impediment to reform, and to a fairer division of such offices as it would be for the benefit of the public to maintain.

The land tax, upon which the burden of the State originally rested, has been all but extinguished. Many fiscal arrangements are twisted to the benefit of the upper ten thousand. This is especially remarkable in the valuation of houses and the incidence of house taxation. The castles, halls, and courts of the land are valued not in proportion to their cost of erection, but to their supposed letting value, and, in assessing letting value, is taken into account the fewness of persons likely to require such expensive accommodation. There are many single offices, shops, and warehouses in Liverpool, Manchester, and London, where the assessment to poor's rate is higher than that on four of the principal noblemen's residences put together. The same applies to demesnes, which are often assessed at only two-thirds or half of the rate per acre of what adjacent farms have to pay.

There are interesting tables regarding the composition of the House of Lords and the composition and occupations of the House of Commons. Of the 474 peerages, 128 were existent before the time of George III., 173 were created from his accession till that of Victoria; 173 during the present reign. The Conservative influence of the House of Lords is shown by 35 Liberal peers having within recent years become Tories, while only 4 Tories became Liberal. The possessions, occupations, and relations of the House of Commons are singularly illustrative of the parties into which it is divided, from the well-endowed 306 Conservatives, through the less aristocratic 75 dissentient Liberals, the 199 more generally middle-class Liberals, and the somewhat Bohemian 84 Irish Nationalists.

The Queen is empowered to grant annually £1,200 additional pensions on a list instituted to reward special services which could not be otherwise recognized, or to assist struggling merit. We are given a list of those at present in receipt of this bounty, amounting to £25,121 per annum. The *Almanack* complains of the extent to which, for many years, in violation of the spirit of the grant, large sums have been apportioned out of this fund "to the relatives of those who had for many years filled well-paid posts in the military or civil services, and who had thus had ample means of providing for their families." A glance over the list of some 300 recipients calls up many associations. Military service appears best recognized. Absolutely fair apportionment would perhaps be almost impossible. Dr. Chalmers's three surviving daughters receive £25 each annually, the daughter of Nelson's adopted daughter, £300; the daughter of poor Fourdrinier, inventor of the paper-making

machine, £100; four daughters of Dr. Kitto, £25 each; Mary Ann DeFoe and Jane Amelia De Foe, lineal descendants of the author of 'Robinson Crusoe,' £75 each; three sisters of Frank Power, in consideration of his services at the siege of Khartum, £50 each; Prince Lucien Louis Bonaparte, for "services to literature and learning," £250; and so on. Upon the whole, Irish merit, where it has not run into distinctly "National" channels, seems fairly recognized.

Ample tables are given regarding the national debt, which has been reduced from £808,000,000 in 1856 to £694,000,000 at present. If no expensive wars intervene, some persons now living may see its extinction.

The licensing statistics are sadly illustrative of the extent to which drinking customs are more prevalent in Ireland than in Great Britain. Here 44 per cent. of the licensed houses are under £10 annual value, while in Great Britain the same class of houses is but 3.3 per cent. of the whole. Nor are our poor-law statistics encouraging; while we continue less pauperized than England and Scotland, we are retrograding and they are advancing. The percentage ratio of paupers to population in 1860–4 was: England, 4.7; Scotland, 4.2; Ireland, 0.9. 1880–4: England, 3.0; Scotland, 2.7; Ireland, 2.1.

The 9 pages of tables devoted to the results of the Crofters' Commission are interesting. Upon a rental of £11,882 their rents have been reduced £3,502, or 29.4 per cent., while 68.3 per cent. of arrears have been cancelled. The total result of the Irish Land Acts up till the present has been, on a rental of £4,582,000, to make a reduction of £932,000, or 20.3 per cent. Inability to wipe off arrears here has been a fertile cause of continued agitation.

I think I have written enough to show that the *Financial Reform Almanack* contains much that is worthy the consideration of politicians on both sides of the Atlantic. D. B.

ZENOBIA, PALMYRA, AND THE ARABS.

NIFFER, January 13, 1890.

IN a former letter to the *Nation* I described the ruins of Halebiyeh, on the right bank of the Euphrates, a day and a half above Deir, with a view to ascertaining whether the site had been identified, since Sachau, in his 'Reise in Syrien und Mesopotamien,' spoke of it as a place unknown. I remarked outside the walls of the city tombs of the Palmyrene type. The walls were excellently preserved, but inside there were almost no remains of buildings, but a blank space. On the northern slope of the acropolis, partly within and partly without the wall, were the ruins of a palace, serai, or Government building, with dome constructions of a Byzantine character.

In Constantinople I found a Procopius, and almost the first passage which met my eye (vol. ii., 8) was an account of Zenobia, built by the famous Queen of Palmyra, and rebuilt or repaired by Justinian as a bulwark against the Persians. The description of the city, in a narrow gorge where the Euphrates breaks through a transverse mountain chain, left no doubt as to the identity of Halebiyeh and Zenobia, and the Palmyrene tombs and Byzantine dome were accounted for by Zenobia and Justinian respectively. But, having been at much pains to identify the site, I now find that it was already identified. Chesney, in his 'Expedition to the Euphrates and Tigris,' mentions "Halebi" as the ancient Zenobia, and says:

"In the town are the remains of a temple, and an extensive palace containing many ornamented apartments; also numerous well-constructed private dwellings, supported by arches; and in general the buildings are so well preserved that the mind can scarcely be brought to feel that all have so long been unoccupied."

He also describes the necropolis as occupying a prominent situation in the valley and along the declivity westward, and as remarkable for a number of square towers like those at Palmyra. In one of these Capt. Lynch found a female mummy, with the face covered by a thin mask of the finest gold, while in another Mr. Ainsworth found a Greek inscription. It seems almost incredible that ruins, such as Chesney describes, of a palace and well-preserved private dwellings supported by arches, should have disappeared within fifty-five years, leaving absolutely no trace behind them, at the same time that the walls remain untouched.

My course from the seacoast to Baghdad this year lay through the capital of the Palmyrene Queen itself. The road from Damascus to Palmyra was declared to be unsafe on account of robber tribes in the mountains, and the local authorities at first refused us permission to go. At last we obtained an unwilling consent to go at our own risk, without escort. On the road we learned that, a short time before, a party which had attempted to pass had been stopped by the police and sent back to Damascus. We saw no robbers and no signs of their existence, which is not a proof that none exist. Our course was slightly erratic, our first station being Domeir. On Kiepert's large map this is located some distance out in the desert, and the non-existent town of Obair is put in its place. There are here the remains of a Græco-Roman building, apparently a temple. The natives have built against this temple, which they call a citadel, and the better part of a Greek inscription has thus been covered over. The stone is the same as that used at Palmyra, and the architecture seemed to me similar. At a later date the temple became an Arab fortress. The great eastern and western gates were walled up, and on one of the stones in the latter is visible a badly effaced Arabic inscription.

Turning northward from Domeir, we soon entered a narrow plain, which continued, almost like a very broad road, to the gates of Palmyra itself, a five days' journey for our camel caravan. Most of the time we were obliged to carry water, for wells are few and far between. Kiepert's map proved incorrect, for it must be remembered that very little of the Turkish Empire has ever been surveyed. So, for instance, his map gives a small range of hills to the north of Kurietain, whereas in fact there is no elevation whatever. From Damascus to Palmyra, and from Palmyra to Deir or Meyadin on the Euphrates, there is a natural carriage road.

About eight hours from Kurietain is the ruin of Kasr el-Haïr. This was a road station on the caravan route from Damascus to Palmyra in the time of the glory of the latter city. Baedeker's guide-book mentions the massive tower, which still forms a landmark for a whole day's journey, but omits to mention the richly carved gateway of a large building, perhaps a khan, the reservoir, and the aqueduct to bring the water from the springs of 'Ain el-Berdi in the mountains, two or three hours away. He mentions the supposed finding of a Maltese cross on the tower, which would assign the ruins to the crusaders. There is no such ornament to be found at present, but there is, on one of the stones on the northeast corner, a conspicuous ornament resembling a sun disk. The place was unmistakably an outpost of the magnificent Palmyra of Zenobia's time.

Palmyra has already been so well and often described and pictured that it seemed to me almost like a place that I had seen and known before. The Turks strictly forbid the removal of antiquities, but illicit digging continues, and almost every traveller buys and removes a few busts or mortuary inscriptions, and the natives themselves use the latter for their own graves. There are ruins of the times of Zenobia, Diocletian, Justinian, and the Caliphate. There is also on a high hill, to the west of the city, a castle in an excellent state of preservation, which Baedeker, the only authority I had with me, ascribes to the Arabic, or possibly even to the Turkish period. The Arabs fortified the old temple of Baal, using again the fallen stones and columns of the ancient building. The Holy Place, the closed building in the centre of the temple courts, became and still remains a Moslem mosque, around which, in the temple enclosure, is contained the greater portion of the miserable modern town of Tadmor.

The castle on the hill is quite unlike any other Arabic or Turkish construction at Palmyra or elsewhere in that region. Both in its situation and architecture it strikingly resembles the castles of mediæval Europe. It is surrounded by a deep dry moat, cut in the rock, and the whole of the island thus formed is occupied by the massive keeps and dungeons of the still towering fortress. The drawbridge is broken, and access to the interior can be obtained with difficulty only by scrambling up the precipitous sides of the moat to a hole in the south-eastern corner of the castle wall. The outer walls are of stone, but the interior work is chiefly in brick. The method of construction is condensed, much space being obtained within a small exterior circuit. Battlement rises above battlement, three tiers of defences in all, while vaults and dungeons have been cut down into the solid rock. I believe there is some tradition that it was built by a powerful Druse chief, but there are no inscriptions or marks to determine either date or origin. If the Crusaders had ever reached this point, the architecture of the castle could readily be explained; but it is difficult to connect it with anything else that I have seen in the country. I suppose it is scarcely probable that the Crusaders ever built a fortress here, and yet their great stronghold at Tripoli is not far distant, and the road from the mountains is easy.

The snow-capped mountain of Tripoli, Fem el-Mizab, is visible almost from the gates of Palmyra, and at the season of our visit a bitterly cold west wind reminds one unpleasantly of its proximity. Among other coins found at Palmyra or in the vicinity, I saw two silver coins, discovered at Erek or Rakka, about eighteen miles further desertward, the one a coin of Charles VIII. of France, and the other of Maurice of Saxony. It seemed a strange place to find European coins of such a date.

At Damascus, by the way, I had been told vaguely that there were in the Hauran, and also out in the desert, men who had been Christians since the time of the Crusades. It turned out that the desert Christians referred to were the Sleib or Sallabi Arabs. I have not yet had the good fortune to meet any of these strange people, but everywhere I have diligently questioned the Arabs among whom they live, and native merchants who have travelled with or among them, eliciting the following information, which I give for what it is worth. Their name means *cross;* they are not Moslems, and seem to have no religion; when questioned as to their race, they say that they are descended from Europeans, and that the Franks are their "uncles." In appearance they are said to be fairer than ordinary Arabs, with fuller beards,

and, occasionally, blue eyes. They are few in number, but scattered from Mosul to the Nejd. They are despised by other Arabs, but it is regarded as a shame to injure them, and they may wander at will among warring tribes. No Arabs every intermarry with them. Among themselves they are said to recognize ownership in the land, but, of course, this ownership is not recognized by others. Unlike the ordinary Arab, who is anything but a sportsman, they are famous hunters, especially of the gazelle. They are reputed to be the best guides in the desert, and it is they who clean out and keep in some sort of repair the few miserable wells that exist.

Between Kurietain and Palmyra I had noticed a few uninscribed milestones. Three hours, or about nine miles, beyond Palmyra I found a similar stone, but inscribed. Part of the inscription read:

STRATA
DIOCLETIANA
PALMYRA
ARRAKKA
VIII.

Near this lay another large mile-stone of a different sort, also inscribed, but I was unable to read the inscription. It was badly defaced, and I was alone, a mile behind my caravan, with a wild horse. Both of these stones were noticed, I believe, by the Wolfe expedition five years ago. Rakka, or Erek, the modern representative of the ancient Arrakka, is a miserable mud hamlet, a Turkish station on the caravan route from Damascus to Deir. Between this and Sukhne, the next station, I found another inscribed mile-stone, not of Diocletian, which proved to be illegible. There are also the remains of two or three forts, built to guard the road against the Bedouin, I should judge, in the Roman and Arabic periods respectively. At Sukhne, where there are warm springs, foundations of buildings of considerable extent are still visible. The last point to which I was able to trace the ancient road was Kabakik, sixteen hours beyond Sukhne and eleven hours from Deir. Here I found the remains of an aqueduct and reservoir.

Whether the road originally reached the Euphrates at Deir or Meyadin, or even at Salahiyeh, I could not determine; all three routes would have been practicable, and the two former are still used by caravans. Deir is near the upper end of a large plain dotted with ruins. The older part of the town is built on an accumulation of débris, twenty to thirty feet in height, testifying to long occupancy. The name Deir, 'monastery,' very common through the whole Turkish Empire, shows that it was the seat of a monastic foundation in the Christian ages. It is at present the most important Government station on the Euphrates north of Hillah. Meyadin is situated in the same plain, one day's journey southward, not far below the mouth of the Khabour and the Roman frontier fortress of Circesium. The direct road from Kabakik to Meyadin would save one day, and near the point at which the caravan road now descends from the plateau to the plain stand the imposing ruins of a strong Arabic castle, called Rehaba. One day's journey below Meyadin are the ruins of a large and very strongly fortified Roman city, now called Salahiyeh. (In a former letter I gave to this place the Turkish name of Kan Kalessi, Bloody Castle. This was an heirloom from the Wolfe Expedition, and rested on the information of a Turkish *zaptiyeh*. On careful inquiry I find that the only name known among the Arabs of the neighborhood is Salahiyeh.) This evidently once guarded something of importance, but what, it is difficult to determine, unless the Euphrates has slightly shifted its bed, as it often does, and this were once the southern limit of the large ruin-studded plain on which Deir and Meyadin now stand; or, unless it were the point at which a caravan road reached the Euphrates. The desert journey from Kabakik to this point would be, it is true, longer than those to Deir or Meyadin, some twenty hours against eleven and thirteen respectively, but it would shorten the road, and the maps represent a well as existing on this route.

The country between Palmyra and Deir is very inaccurately given on Kiepert's map. A narrow valley or wadi is there represented as almost connecting those places, thus forming a natural caravan road. For about five hours from Palmyra the road runs parallel with a low range of hills, as represented on that map. Then it passes through hilly or heavily undulating ground, as far as Sukhne, or a little beyond. To the left runs a range of hills, but there is no corresponding range to the south. On the slopes of those hills, a couple of hours beyond Rakka, one sees a few *Butum*-nut trees —remains, I presume, of the forests which the Assyrian annals describe as once existing in this region. To the north of Sukhne, not to the south, as Kiepert has it, is a glaring white marlhill, called Jebel Abyad, or White Mountain. Beyond this to the Euphrates the country, as far as the eye can reach, is almost as level as it can be made. Kiepert's errors seem to be chiefly copied from Chesney's map of this region, which rested neither on survey nor actual travel, but on such information as could be gathered from Arabs.

At the time of my journey the country was in a dangerous condition. Drought had driven the wild Arabs towards the Euphrates, in our very route. Such water as we found had been polluted by their filthy uses, and tasted so strongly of sheep, Arabs, and camels that we only drank out of dire necessity. Even tea could not conceal the taste. At Sukhne we found ourselves encamped among Anazeh Arabs just returned from the successful and bloodless repulse of a Shammar *ghazu*. The Azeli sheikh with whom I was travelling made me dress in an *abbah* and *kefiyeh*, and tried to pass me off as a Turkish official. But the Arabs observed that we had no escort, and demanded blackmail. This I declined to pay unless I had to, and tried to obtain an escort from the Turkish guard of four *zaptiyehs* stationed at Suhkne. It was refused, and we spent rather an uneasy night. The following morning I made a peremptory demand for an escort, and, by a combination of bullying and something else (the latter done by a faithful servant behind my back), I obtained one horseman, and we proceeded on our way, having in tow two other small caravans, a few stray travellers, and a couple of Shammar, the débris of the unsuccessful raid, all trusting for protection to us and our own *zaptiyeh*. Suddenly ten Arabs appeared, as it were out of the ground, and came riding down on us, brandishing their long spears gracefully as they came, while a much larger force merely showed itself on the opposite side. Had we been entirely disinterested spectators, the sight would have been charmingly picturesque and romantic. Finding that we were officially under police protection, after some parley they professed that they had only come out Shammar hunting, and allowed us to pass unmolested. I am afraid that if we had not obtained that *zaptiyeh*, they would have mistaken us for Shammar, and I must confess that we were all surprised at their ready recognition of Turkish authority.

I had intended to make an exploring tour, either northward from Sukhne, by what appears to have been a former caravan route through Resafa to the Euphrates above Halebiyeh, or eastward from Kabakik to Meyadin or Salahiyeh, but, as the Anazeh were on both routes in large numbers, and my escort could only accompany me to Deir, I was compelled to renounce my good intentions and proceed by the common road to Deir.

JOHN P. PETERS.

Correspondence.

THE TARIFF IN THE WEST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Western farmer is sorely distressed financially. The cause is not ascribable to poor soil, or bad climate, or his mismanagement, but it is due to the fact that it costs him nowadays the market price of grain to produce it; and cattle, hogs, and sheep are worth no more after a winter's feeding than the fall before. The farming industry of the West has been steadily drifting into bankruptcy during the past ten or fifteen years, and certainly better times cannot be expected unless a different economic policy is adopted. The prohibition panacea has not prevented the "hard times" of the Western agriculturist from becoming chronic, and the hope of good prices that a general European war would bring is too long deferred. Anti-railroad legislation has not proved an adequate remedy; for, after the severe overhauling of transportation rates and the sweeping away of traffic discriminations against rural towns and communities, the situation of the farmer is more critical than ever.

The question is, What will he do next? The political issue before the country in 1892 will be the tariff—not monopolies and trusts. Will this crisis of the Western farmers force them to abandon their war traditions and their affiliations with the Republican party, and make them vote for such an effective reduction and readjustment of the tariff as will bring them needed relief? It would be an insult to their intelligence to imagine their reasoning far different from this: We have always supported the tariff faithfully because we believed it would build up American manufactories, keep up the price of labor, and provide a reliable, ample, and, above all, friendly home market for us. Whatever else it may be accomplishing, it is not affording us a good market—in fact, prices have been gradually going down for years until there is now no sale for farm produce. We have had ample anti-railroad legislation. We are coining plenty of silver every month and we have had liberal pensions. Everything has been done that we have wished, and we are, nevertheless, in a most sorry plight. To what else, then, can this be due but to protection? How does the tariff help the farmer when it permits him to become ruined? We have always been told that if the tariff were materially lowered or abolished, the country would be deluged with cheap foreign goods. It is certain that the tariff makes us pay more for what we buy than we otherwise would, and yet furnishes no market for what we have to sell. "Free trade" cannot possibly make the present market worse, and will obviously make what we buy cheaper.

But the zealous Republican leader says: The Western farmer will never vote against Republican principles. He fought through the

war, and his hatred for Democrats and Democratic principles is too deep-seated. He may complain and find fault, but when the campaign year comes, the waving of the flag, the drum-corps processions, the war songs, and rousing Republican speeches will keep him in the party ranks.

With a view to ascertaining whether or not this will probably be true, the writer recently asked the editors of the twenty-six agricultural papers in Illinois, Iowa, Minnesota, Nebraska, Kansas, and Colorado, these questions:

"(1.) Do you think the present tariff imposes an undue burden on the Western farmer?

"(2.) If so, how would you amend it in his interest?"

It will be borne in mind that these six agricultural States are the backbone of the Republican party, and the farmers there have supported protection with almost fanatical zeal and enthusiasm. Thirteen replies have been received. Of these, eight state in strong terms that the present tariff is an unjust burden on the farmer. Of the eleven replies as to question 2, three urge a radical reduction of the tariff, three insist on "free trade," two desire that all things which the farmer must purchase and which cannot be grown in this country be placed on the free list; one thinks the present necessity demands free refined sugar; one would increase the tariff on agricultural and animal products; and one recommends no change at all.

These replies cannot but be regarded as remarkably significant. It is only fair to suppose that most, if not all, of these editors are Republicans—at least they are writing for the stanchest Republican communities in the land. That they represent without question the sentiments of their readers, the present constant and determined efforts of the Western farmers to form extensive leagues, combinations, and alliances for self-protection—organizations designed to be offensive as well as defensive—are abundant proof. When eight out of thirteen of the agricultural editors of the six great Western Republican farm States assert that protection has placed an unfair burden—a load indeed—on the farmer, the day is at hand when he will insist on and obtain cheaper goods and a larger market. H. O.

THE DAKOTA TIN DEPOSITS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: At this time, when one hears so much, in Congress and out, of the existence of vast deposits of tin in the Black Hills of South Dakota and of the advisability of developing the tin-mines there by levying contributions upon the rest of us who are not interested therein, it may be a part of one's duty to caution the public as to the *facts* in the case, let alone the policy of the measure. One would think "protection" hardly necessary if the ore exists in such vast and luxurious profusion as has been claimed, and at that distance from the seaboard. But thus far, strangely enough, it does not seem to have occurred to any one to question the statements of the tin-mine men as to this existence of their ore. At the December meeting, however, of the Minnesota Academy of Sciences, in this city, Prof. C. W. Hall, Professor of Geology in the University of Minnesota, and a careful as well as an eminently fair-minded observer, read a paper embodying the results of his own and those of a fellow-geologist's examinations in the Black Hills region, whither they went, so far as tin-mines are concerned, under the pay of no one and with no possible bias one way or the other. I cannot do better than quote Prof. Hall's own conclusion

"that the tin-ore of the granitic area [*i. e.*, that portion of the Black Hills containing tin at all] would never be found to occur in paying quantities save in occasional 'placers' into which the ore of removed areas of granite has been collected, or in occasional lumps of granite having a larger quantity of ore than the average of the granitic mass; this fact [of non-existence in paying quantities] being due to the igneous origin of these rocks and the non-segregated condition of the ore in vast masses of the carrying rock."

Would it not be well, before proceeding further, for Congress to ascertain more of the facts touching the possibilities of this industry, and from other sources as well as from the owners and manipulators of the mines themselves? Edward C. Gale.

Minneapolis, March 27, 1890.

VACATION STUDY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an admirable little circular sent to parents of pupils in a prominent Northern school, a request is made that those children who do not do regular work during the summer holidays may be allowed to read books indicated by their teachers. The suggestion is so sensible and practical that one would like to see it adopted by schools all over the country.

Every one interested in school work, either as teacher or director, knows the increasing difficulty of making the school course, with its natural and necessary limitations of time, cover the ground it is expected to. People in general, no less than educators themselves, are insisting more and more strongly on a single standard for schools, that of the entrance requirements of colleges of high standing, while colleges on their side are raising the standard of proficiency in subjects presented for examination. The schools must keep pace with the colleges, and must besides include in their curricula several subjects not formerly taught, such as the elements of natural science and drawing. Physical culture must also receive a due share of attention.

If courses of systematic reading were marked out, and pursued in the long vacation—always tending to grow longer by reason of the greater length of time which families are spending in the country—much could be done towards relieving the pressure of the school year. History could be read to great advantage by following the scheme pursued by the teacher. Younger children might be directed to read such fascinating books as Kingsley's 'Greek Heroes,' Hawthorne's 'Wonder Book,' or Church's 'Stories from Homer,' and in the following term the teacher might satisfy herself or himself that the reading had been thorough by taking the themes for composition from the book selected. Older pupils could be required to study the two or three short classics and plays of Shakspere set by the colleges as subjects for examination in English. In this way pupils might gain, under judicious direction, an amount of general culture which it is difficult to combine with the severer mental drill of algebra and geometry, Xenophon and Cæsar. Or it might be that a teacher would prefer to have pupils backward in certain subjects bring themselves up to the level of their class by their summer studies.

From two to three hours daily would not be a large amount of time to take from open-air sports. The change from a studious occupation ought properly to give an added zest to active amusements, while the habits of study formed during the winter would be kept up, and the next year's work much more easily accomplished in consequence. G. A.

CLERICAL JESTING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your editorial on "Clerical Jesting" in No. 1290 seems to me to be correct in a great measure, yet I fear the statement that "nothing is commoner in a church nowadays than the subdued and decorous ripple of laughter" needs some qualification. If you meant to draw the distinction which some of my co-religionists would draw between "*a* church" and "*the* church," I have nothing to say; but certainly in the Episcopal Church, and in liturgical churches generally, a ripple of laughter is the rarest of rare things. Where a church service approximates to a lecture, and where the sermon is regarded as most important, both in the time given to it and the value placed upon it, in contrast to the other parts of the service by a congregation, there the tendency towards the entertainment of the listeners and the "decorous ripple" is undoubtedly greater. There are seasons for all things, and I cannot see why a clergyman may not be a right good fellow in social intercourse, and at the same time leave jesting behind him in his pulpit ministration. W. A. M.

Miami University.

HALF QUOTED AND MISQUOTED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the article "English and Americans," recently published in the *Fortnightly Review*, occurs an error in a quotation—an error which is frequently made, and which, to my mind, gives a different force to the passage quoted. The writer holds forth as follows:

"But the Prayer-book offers a most convenient code to fall back upon as a means for the wholesale instruction of children and the lower classes. In England, surely, it is decidedly in the interests of the upper classes and the public weal to be able authoritatively to enjoin upon servants the ordering of themselves 'lowly and reverently' to all their betters, and the necessity of their 'doing their duty in that state of life into which it has pleased God to call them.'"

One would think that a writer for the *Fortnightly* would either know his catechism better or at least have one on hand. The exact words are: "To do my duty in that state of life *unto which it shall please God to call me.*" The writer did not seem to remember the sentence immediately preceding this, which might quite as fairly or unfairly be used as follows:

"But the Prayer-book offers a most convenient code to fall back upon as a means for the wholesale instruction of children and the upper classes. In England surely it is decidedly in the interests of the lower classes and the public weal to be able authoritatively to enjoin upon the upper classes that they should 'learn and labor truly to get their own living.'"

Respectfully yours, J. H. Dillard.

St. Louis, March 20, 1890.

AN INCIDENT OF THE NEW SOUTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: During a late visit to Richmond, an incident was brought to my attention which may interest your readers as it did me. The field of Seven Pines is seven miles east of the city. The surroundings being somewhat picturesque, and the distance convenient, a railroad station has been established there, and an effort is made to make it a popular resort for pleasure parties. The most interesting object in the vicinity is a National Cemetery containing the remains of 1,350 "Wearers of

the Blue." The place is a model of neatness, and the keeper, Mr. Barrett, is a true gentleman. After showing our party about the grounds, he told this anecdote:

During the summer the inmates of the Confederate Home at Richmond visited the place, and, as a part of their day of pleasure, wished to have their pictures taken in the cemetery. Mr. Barrett consented if they would sit in front of the flag. This they cheerfully did, and when everything was ready they called for him, saying they wanted one Yankee in the group. The picture, with the scarred and crippled Confederates in the foreground, the Yankee in the back, and the Stars and Stripes over all, is in the office at the cemetery, and was to me a prophecy of the good time when there shall be no North and no South in these "reunited" States. D. P. NICHOLSON.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY, March 22, 1890.

THE ARRANGEMENT OF THE BOSTON MUSEUM OF FINE ARTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In reply to the rather severe censure of your critic, published in this week's *Nation*, will you allow me to quote the following from my last annual report, issued the week before he visited us?

"With regard to the arrangement of the classical department, I wish to anticipate one criticism which may be made when the public is admitted to the Museum. The basis of this arrangement is that which is now universally admitted to be the correct one—the chronological. It will be found, however, that this plan has not been carried out to the letter. For example, objection may be made to the fact that the Porch of the Maidens from the Erechtheion and the selection from the reliefs of the Great Altar at Pergamon are brought into the same room, and this the last room in the classical series, or that the selections from the Monument of Lysikrates are surrounded by works of the Roman period. A number of such chronological errors have been committed, but in no case without especial reason, and in no case, I trust, so as to deceive or confuse the intelligent visitor.

"As regards the first instance quoted above, the reason is simple, and will be readily understood by those who see the building, though the combination may look strangely in the catalogue. This is the only room in the classical department high enough to admit the Erechtheion porch. Being the last room in the section, it should theoretically be devoted to Roman art, but this would have necessitated placing the spirited works of the Hellenistic epoch in the darkest and narrowest portion of the long corridor that connects the two wings, and the inferior works of the Roman period in one of the finest and best-lighted rooms in the building. In these circumstances, and inasmuch as the larger part of the Roman works are Hellenistic in type and feeling, a reversal of the natural order has been considered justifiable, and has therefore been adopted. If it is asked why the building was not constructed so as to make the correct arrangement possible, the reply is, that in the division of space there are other departments requiring consideration as well as the classical, and the satisfaction of all required mutual concessions. This is especially true as regards the situation of the Bust room. In an ideal scheme the room illustrating the art of Pheidias would have followed directly upon those filled with works of the period of transition; but the construction and arrangement of the building as a whole required the introduction of a small room at this point, and as the sculptures of the Parthenon could not be compressed into the space thus afforded, the historical sequence has been interrupted abruptly by the adoption of this as the room of the casts from busts of all epochs of Greek and Roman art, and also from small bronzes. The visitor will thus see at a glance that this has nothing to do with the chronological order of the rooms, and can take up the thread again in passing from it into the Parthenon room."

If it is true that in passing from the Parthenon room to the corridor "we lose track of the chronological sequence and the orderly arrangement almost together," the fault is due to ignorance on my part, not to carelessness; for, in all but the end referred to above, I used the same care in grouping styles and subjects that met Mr. Sturgis's approval in the first rooms. Very respectfully yours,

EDWARD ROBINSON.

BOSTON, March 28, 1890.

Notes.

A VERSATILE writer, Mr. Theodore Child, has prepared a work for the palate, 'Delicate Feasting,' which will be published by Harper & Bros.

A third volume by Jerome K. Jerome, the English humorous writer, 'Stage-Land: Curious Habits and Customs of its Inhabitants,' is announced by Henry Holt & Co.

The Messrs. Longman will issue the only authorized edition of Mr. William O'Brien's new Irish novel, 'When We Were Boys,' together with 'The Seat of Authority in Religion,' by Dr. James Martineau, and 'Old Friends,' by Andrew Lang.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will shortly publish 'The Master of the Magicians,' by Elizabeth Stuart Phelps and the Rev. Herbert D. Ward; 'A Waif of the Plains,' by Bret Harte; 'The Mistress of Beech Knoll,' by Mrs. Clara Louise Burnham; and 'Robert Browning: Personalia,' by Edmund Gosse.

'Notes on American Schools and Training Colleges,' by Dr. J. G. Fitch, and 'The Growth of Intellectual Faculty,' lectures to the Teachers' Training Syndicate in Cambridge, England, by Dr. Francis Warner, are in the press of Macmillan & Co.

Thomas Whittaker announces Prebendary Ross's 'Christian Theism,' a popular survey of the evidences and objections.

From Ginn & Co. we are to have Sidney's 'Defence of Poesy,' edited by Prof. Albert S. Cook of Yale; 'A History of the Veto Power in the United States,' by Edward Campbell Mason, and 'An Introduction to the Study of Federal Governments,' by Prof. A. B. Hart, being the first two of the projected series of Harvard Historical Monographs.

'A Short History of Mexico,' by the Rev. Arthur H. Noll; 'A Winter Holiday in Summer Lands,' namely, Cuba and Mexico, by a lady; and Lamartine's 'Raphael; or, Pages of the Book of Life at Twenty,' are among the latest announcements of A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati, ask subscriptions to a limited edition of the 'Life and Times of Ephraim Cutler,' prepared from his journals and correspondence by Julia P. Cutler, his daughter, and the granddaughter, therefore, of the Rev. Manasseh Cutler. Ephraim Cutler took a leading part in the Ohio Constitutional Convention of 1802, and was otherwise an eminent citizen.

B. Westermann & Co., New York, will publish for the United States, in connection with Weidmann, Berlin, 'T. Macci Plauti Fabularum Reliquiæ Ambrosianæ,' edited by Studemund, long favorably known as a Plautus scholar. A Latin prospectus is to be issued shortly reviewing the editor's work, which cannot fail to be welcome to the many Plautus students and college libraries in this country. The price will exceed $20, including the interest our paternal Government takes in the Old Roman, and will be about $17.50 for public and college libraries.

The third volume of Sybel's 'Begründung des Deutschen Reiches durch Wilhelm I.,' which has just appeared (Westermann), is devoted entirely to the history of the Schleswig-Holstein question. The author begins with an account of the old Constitution of Schleswig-Holstein and the dynastic complications originating in the election of the King of Denmark as "Lord of the Duchies" in 1460. Repeated attempts were made by energetic and ambitious monarchs to convert this purely personal union into a territorial union, and to reduce the duchies to Danish provinces. This aggression was resented and resisted by Germany, which defended the independence of Holstein as "deutsches Reichsland," and thus incidentally extended its protection also over Schleswig. Out of these relations grew the German-Danish war, or rather succession of wars, which led to the separation of the duchies from Denmark and their final incorporation into the German Empire. In the minds of most foreigners Schleswig-Holstein does not excite a very lively interest; nevertheless it has played an exceedingly important part in the political evolution and consolidation of Germany. Its history is a snarled skein not easy to untangle, and no reader can help admiring the skill with which Sybel has unravelled and spooled it.

Still another portrait of De Quincey accompanies the fifth volume of Prof. Masson's new edition of his Collected Writings (Macmillan). The contents are very miscellaneous—on Dr. Parr, Coleridge and Opium-Eating, Charles Lamb, Wellesley, and Charlemagne; and as entertaining.

The Progressive Publishing Co., London, sends us a 'Biographical Dictionary of Freethinkers, of All Ages and Nations,' by J. M. Wheeler. It is an odd collection, in which one hardly knows whether to be more surprised at meeting Gautama or Asa Gray, Lincoln or Chaucer. Theodore Parker is included, but Bishop Colenso ignored. The title suffices for Col. Ingersoll and Shakspere, for Darwin and Rousseau, for Fanny Wright and George Eliot and Harriet Martineau. The compiler contemplates a 'History of Free Thought in England.'

Tourists and readers of foreign languages will find a generally trusty convenience in the four little volumes of Ignatius Em. Wessely's 'Practical Pocket Dictionary' (G. P. Putnam's Sons). Each vocabulary in turn gives equivalents in English, French, German, and Italian. The condensation is remarkable, and has been effected without obscurity. The print is all that could be expected as regards size or clearness of impression, and the typographical accuracy is also noticeable. Sometimes the English is a little old-fashioned or unidiomatic, but it is seldom one meets with even so much of a slip as (under *lasciare* in the Italian volume), "It is all *what* one could wish"; or a freak like inserting the adverb (*abjectly*) and omitting the adjective. The set is neatly bound in red cloth, the English volume being somewhat the bulkiest.

Parallel with this last, by the way, is vol. i. of 'Baedeker's Conversation Dictionary in Four Languages, English, French, German, Italian' (New York: B. Westermann), of which the form is larger, with a gain in flatness, but the print is neither larger nor better. The pronunciation is rather less well attended to by Baedeker than by Wessely, who in copiousness is again decidedly superior. For instance, the former not only omits *abase*, which is perhaps seldom likely to be used by the tourist, but *abatement*, whereas Wessely gives "no abatement made! *prix fixes*," etc.—the very thing for shopping. Under *ability*, Baedeker

gives no phrases, but Wessely, "to the best of one's ability," etc. Baedeker simply has the four synonyms for *railway*, but Wessely gives railway guard and speed. Now one, now the other of these dictionaries may seem to choose the best equivalents. It is fair to say that Baedeker is put forth tentatively and with apology for shortcomings.

We hesitate to rank Mr. David Salmon's 'School Composition' (Longmans) as high in its class as the same author's 'English Grammar.' It deserves, however, the attention of teachers, especially such as are already using the latter work, and its direct, sensible method is to be praised almost without reserve. The notes for teachers at the end of the book are excellent in conception and as practical instructions. In the higher or second part, Mr. Salmon's "personal equation" is too visible, and will confirm pedagogic narrowness in the handling of the English language. He refers to prejudice and to etymology for his authority much oftener than to the best usage, and does not teach the child that usage should rule, and where it must be sought. Nor is his attitude towards neologisms what it ought to be, for it practically denounces growth and enlargement of the vocabulary—a futile proceeding. The section on *shall* and *will* is too summary for our American aberration. Something might be said, too, as to the quality of the selections; and several carelessnesses or liberties with the text may be noticed, as in Cowper's "Pity for Poor Africans" and Wordsworth's "Fidelity." The punctuation of extracts, when metrical, has not been properly looked after.

The Rev. Mr. Fausset of Fettes College, Edinburgh, whose recent edition of Cicero's 'Pro Cluentio' will lead classical students to watch his work with interest, has conceived the idea of presenting, as a nucleus about which the young learner may group his gains of knowledge of Roman literary and political life, a biographical picture of that life at the most interesting period of Roman history. His choice, by its conditions, was fixed upon Cicero; and he found material ready to his hand in Dr. Munk's treatment of that author in his 'Geschichte der römischen Literatur,' which, translated into true and fluent English, with free omissions and a few additions in the form of notes, Mr. Fausset has published under the title of 'A Student's Biography' (London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.). The view taken of Cicero's character is that to which it seems probable that the world will easily return when it has had time to recover from the spell of Mommsen's genius. The book may be confidently commended, but to one detail serious exception must be taken: the frontispiece, an exquisite reproduction of a photograph of the so-called Cicero bust in the Uffizi, probably represents Corbulo (see Bernouilli, 'Römische Ikonographie,' i., 275), and at any rate does not represent Cicero.

The revision of Boise's 'First Lessons in Greek' (Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.) gives us substantially the old work. Little is changed in the presentation of the subject, and less, of importance, in other ways. The character of the old edition, indeed, precluded much change by the new editor. The whole seventy-one lessons do not give a single instance of connected discourse to be translated from Greek into English or vice versa. There is a certain mechanical method about the book that some teachers think a necessity. The new editor still keeps such words as λεώς, ἤπειρος, and γάλα in the early lessons, although the student will seldom use them, and not at all for some time after his first year's work. The use of marks of quantity is carried to an unnecessary extent, and has caused indistinct accent marks over them to appear in many cases.

Prof. W. G. Frost's 'Greek Primer' (Boston: Allyn & Bacon) marks a decided advance towards a rational treatment of Greek for beginners. The author has dared to compose some easy Greek in connected discourse in the ninth lesson, has inserted an epitaph in the seventeenth, and an ode of Anacreon in the twenty-seventh; and un-Attic words are sometimes employed. This will never do—for the "machine." The method is inductive, but not to illustrate the conceivable possibilities of induction. Engravings of interesting objects are used. In general, the book indicates some respect for a pupil's reason, and some recognition of the fact that first steps in Greek may safely be made similar to those in use for modern languages. A plunge into Attic Greek, merely because it is Attic and Greek, has no pedagogical sense in it, any more than the insane practice Comenius overthrew by writing notes to classic texts in German. It may be questioned whether the presentation of the verb could not be more effectively made by a more gradual development of it, and whether metres could not safely be omitted from a primer. Both this and Boise's 'Lessons' are beautifully got up.

One of the evils of allowing the "libraries" of fiction to be entered as periodicals, and hence to take advantage of the cent-a-pound rate for second-class matter, is that not only adults are cheaply supplied with trash, but our youth with the most deleterious literature, sufficiently indicated by such titles as 'The Mysterious Marauder, or the Boy Burglar's Long Trail,' 'Gold-Trigger the Sport, or the Girl Avenger,' etc. An effort is making to reduce these pseudo-periodicals—the very regularity of whose appearance is the most alarming feature of them, and finds a premium in the present law—from second-class to third-class (eight cents a pound), where honest books are found. A bill is now pending in the House of Representatives (No. 7558), and it is desired that letters should be freely sent to members of the Senate and House Post-office Committees urging the passage of the measure. The chairmen are (Senate) Philetus Sawyer of Wisconsin, (House) H. H. Bingham of Pennsylvania. To write to the district's Representative is also an efficient mode.

The report of the Commissioners of Emigration of New York State, for the year 1889, is largely taken up with the details of the controversy with the representatives of the general Government over the return of immigrants. We fear that this controversy is really between two groups of politicians, and that the interests of the public and of the immigrants are not the controlling considerations. The result is likely to be the disuse of Castle Garden as a receiving station, and the establishment, at much expense to the United States, of another post. This should eventually relieve the State of New York of a considerable burden. There seem to be good reasons why the matter should be controlled by the general Government. The number of alien passengers arriving at this port during 1889 was about 350,000, a decrease of about 70,000 from the previous year.

The wills of William Penn and his kinsmen, beginning with that of William Penne of Myntie, in the County of Gloucester, Yeoman, proved April 21, 1592, are the leading feature of Mr. H. F. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings in England" in the April number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*. These are succeeded by addenda to what has been already published concerning the Washington pedigree. The fifth volume of the Memorial Biographies of deceased members of the Historic Genealogical Society is reported to be in preparation.

Nature for February 27 presents a uniform system of transliteration from the Russian, which has been accepted and will be employed by many of the foremost English and American scientists and librarians, including the publications of the Royal Society, the Zoölogical and Geological Records, the Annals of Botany, etc.

The most important of the four papers on African explorations in the March Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society is Mr. D. J. Rankin's on the Zambesi Delta. After showing the unsuitableness of Quillimane as the port for the river commerce, two transshipments and a land carriage being required, he proceeds to describe in detail the various mouths of the river, having especial reference to the Chinde. This, the northernmost mouth, is apparently the natural way of communication with the interior, both on account of the greater depth of water and the superior healthfulness of the surrounding country. He gives a graphic description of a storm and a night canoe-ride on the Zambesi, an exploit attended with great danger on account of the hippopotami. Mr. F. C. Selous contributes a map of his recent journey in Mashona Land, accompanied by geographical notes of present interest as bearing upon the claims of Portugal to this country. Mr. A. Sharpe describes the country between the Shiré and a branch of the Zambesi, and Mr. J. R. W. Pigott gives an account of an exploration of the upper Tana River, made for the British East Africa Company, which is chiefly noteworthy as testifying to the rapid depopulation of this part of Africa through the constant inter-tribal wars. The German expedition of Dr. Peters appears to have followed pretty closely the route taken by Mr. Pigott. An interesting account, with diagram and pictures, of the new volcanic Falcon Island in the Tonga Group, is given by Mr. J. J. Lister of H. M. S. *Egeria*, as well as a translation of the last letters from the Russian expedition to Central Asia.

Within a few months has been discovered the Spanish original of the 'Epistola Christophori Colom cui etas nostra multum debet.' It is a two-leaved small folio, and is clearly the edition from which was copied the quarto reprint now in the Ambrosian Library in Milan. This is inferred from certain orthographic changes (*magestat* to *magestad*, *venit* to *venid*, *qualls* to *quales*, *temporals* to *temporales*) made in the Ambrosian edition, as well as from the un-Spanish typography of the latter. The newfound letter is now in Mr. Quaritch's possession, and he supposes it to have been struck off at Barcelona in April, 1493, during Columbus's visit to the court.

Sun and Shade is issued by the Photo-Gravure Co. from their new quarters at No. 137 West Twenty-third Street, New York. The February number has two conspicuously fine plates from nature, a leafless woody scene by a brookside, and a winter effect of snow-covered elms.

News has been received of the death of the Danish artist Carl Bloch. Born May 23, 1834, Bloch passed almost the whole of his life in Copenhagen, being at the time of his death professor at the Art Academy of that city. For many years his works were the centre of interest at the local exhibitions, and this popularity is to be attributed not merely to their great excellence, but also to the distinctive nationality of the artist. Bloch excelled in historical and religious subjects, the most con-

spicuous examples of the former being "Christian II. in Prison" (1871) and "Prince Christian at the Death-bed of Chancellor Kaas" (1880); of the latter, the series of pictures illustrating the life of Christ, executed between 1866 and 1880. Bloch was also very happy in genre painting, the subjects being taken from Danish and Italian life.

Our readers will have noticed last week a confusion of names in the note on Mr. H. S. Codman's bibliography of landscape-gardening.

— The April *Harper's* is an excellent stock-number. The principal paper, entitled "A Suit of Clothes," being the ninth of the Great American Industries series, is full and exhaustive, and, like the others that have preceded it, is a marvel of compact detailed statement of a large mass of facts. Similar to it is the paper upon the New York Maritime Exchange, which need not be further described. A third article, even more encyclopædic in character, is upon American Literary Comedians, in which some hundreds of writers, since the dawn of letters upon this continent, are mentioned and properly classified to the bewilderment of the mind. The richness of American humor in the multitude of its servants could receive no better illustration, nor the briefness of their literary fame be more forcibly brought home, than in these catalogues of the purveyors of laughter, which read like voting lists. Dr. Thomas Young, whose scientific labors deserved more popular fame than has ever been his portion, is the subject of a thorough monograph, in which his personal character is not forgotten and the list of his talents and of their increase in his stewardship is long drawn out, but not unduly. The inventor of the undulatory theory of light and the deciphering of hieroglyphics found many provinces of learning and knowledge between those two extremes, and it is a pleasure to notice that foreign nations have been more appreciative of him than his own people. Gen. Merritt writes a spirited and educating article upon recent Indian wars, taking pains to bring out the peculiar conditions and the terrible incidents of such fighting in the uninhabited country, while he does justice to the remarkable qualities of the Indians as evinced in their retreats. The leading paper is Mr. Lang's comment upon the "Merchant of Venice," which deals more instructively with Mr. Abbey's accompanying drawings than with Shakspere, and in respect to them we can cordially subscribe to the prognostication that tastes are likely to differ; not so far as they are drawings, be it remarked, but so far as they imagine *Shylock*, *Portia*, *Antonio*, and the rest.

—The April *Scribner's* has its usual variety of travel, fiction, and solid serial papers. The Electric Railway is fully described, and the extraordinary rapidity and variety of invention in developing it are brought out with so little remark as to furnish a striking example of the marvellous progress of our time in its special direction. The series upon the Rights of the Citizen is opened by Mr. F. W. Whitridge with an orderly account of the rights of the householder, with particular attention to the rights of the citizen of this city. The limitations upon his liberty in the construction of his house are enumerated, and the obligation of the various departments to secure proper conditions about the house and in the street is defined. At the end the paper becomes practically a criticism of the working of municipal government in regard to the safety of life and property and the sanitary welfare of the community. The author takes a sanguine view of the future, and points out that the conveniences which are now least certainly obtained under city rule are those which not long ago were everywhere regarded as refinements of civilization. The gossipy paper upon Charles Lamb, devoted to his personal characteristics and biography as read in his charming letters, is concluded, and it is aided by some interesting illustrations of places associated with the gentle humorist of many failings. Miss Jewett's story is, as usual, the most notable contribution to fiction. The discussions in the "Point of View" continue to be remarkably weak in critical value: the opening passage upon Mr. Pater, in particular, is eccentric and individual in matter, and exhibits a narrowness of view unusual in our better anonymous criticism. Such criticism, however sincere, is to be regretted.

—A remainder from last year upon our shelves is the latest volume of the Archives of Maryland as printed by the State under the admirable editorship of Mr. Wm. Hand Browne. It embodies the proceedings and acts of the General Assembly from October, 1678, to November, 1683. The original records for this period are a good deal mutilated in parts, and frequent gaps occur. The general tenor of colonial affairs was peaceful, but the Indians were still a source of concern, and bounties had to be offered for the killing of wolves and loose stallions. Capt. John Goode of the Lower House was very obnoxious to the Upper, of which he expressed his contempt in coarse and vulgar idiom; but they in vain urged his unseating pending trial. Dr. Edward Husbands, on the other hand, the Assembly would fain, in 1678, have put an end to on suspicion of his having attempted to poison the entire body, with the Governor thrown in, but took away his practice "as a Phisitian or Chirurgeon," and, "for the Crime of Threatning menaceing & Curseing this Assembly," ordered him twenty lashes on the bare back at the hands of the common hangman. This case served as a "good President" in 1683, when Jacob Young was impeached for (among other things) taking an unpopular view of the peaceable disposition of the "Susquehanoughs." The evidence was insufficient to convict, but it was made convenient for him to leave the colony. The sheriff's fees greatly exceeded his estate, amounting to 13,640 pounds of tobacco. The use of this article, by the way, as currency is well illustrated by the phrase in which the Upper House complains of "haveing Spent soe much time and Tobacco." There are numerous naturalization petitions, and a recurring petition for the relief of Jacob Leslier or Leister, merchant of New York, who, we think, must be the patriot Leisler—but this identification is missed in the index. Several acts assessing the public charges contain long lists of inhabitants. There is an act for keeping holy the Lord's day, which, contrary to Puritan usage, "is hereby Judged and deemed to be and begin according to primitive and Christian vsage from twelve of the Clock on Saturday night to twelve of the Clock att night ensueing." "The bodily Exercise or occupacõn of fishing" on Sunday was especially aimed at in this act of 1678. An act to regulate the militia provided for "pressemasters" to make forced levies on goods and commodities to meet the cost of war, and also for prizes in Indian wars, with this remarkable engagement, "That the free Booty Prize Pillage and Plunder *or any Indian* seized or Taken Prisoner shall by the Comander be *equally distributed & divided* amongst the Soldiers," etc. The economic acts are fairly numerous. Some were to encourage the woollen and flax industries; some to prevent the fraudulent packing of tobacco by the putting of "Rotten frostbitten, Ground Leaves, or Seconds or worse Trash in the Middle or any part of the hogshead"; some to forbid the exportation of wool, old iron, leather, and raw hides—these last "for the encouragement of Tanners and shoemakers." As is known to the experience of the present day in the practical working of protection, "the Advantage and abuse made thereof by the Insolency of the Tanners of this Province," raised an outcry against the act.

— Slavery makes but little show in this volume. Negroes and slaves are exempted, along with "preists deligates Majestrates & Constables," from military training and service. Another act confirms the slavery of existing or imported bondmen, and seeks to prevent intermarriage by a fine of 10,000 pounds of tobacco, by master or mistress permitting, or minister performing, the ceremony. Yet a premium on a white woman's uniting herself with a black slave was contained in that part of the owner's penalty which manumitted her and her offspring. In an act forbidding the sale of negroes or other slaves by administrators for the payment of debts, we have the baldest expression of the condition of chattels personal:

"That all Negroes & other Slaues after the Transmitting of the estate to the County Court as aforesaid shall bee appraised to the Gaurdians or Trustees & bee preserved by them & bee Imployed to the said Gaurdians or Trustees vse & benefitt, & the Like number of Slaues & of Like ability of body Retourned to the said orphans out of theire Increase, (if any bee) att theire full age by this Law Limited, & if any of the said Slaues bee growne aged or otherwise Impotent or bee Lamed, & that the Increase will not make the originall Stocke good as to number & ability of body that then they shall againe bee Appraised," etc.

— The Superintendent of the Eleventh Census issues a preliminary report, descriptive principally of the manner in which he proposes to execute his duties. It is big with promise, but as the reputation of this officer rests upon his success in manufacturing statistics for political purposes and in editing a rabidly protectionist campaign newspaper, we cannot feel assured that this promise will be satisfactorily realized. It was not very encouraging that he should begin his labors with an appeal to the farmers of the country to keep books showing the products of their farms, for the purpose of facilitating his operations. Doubtless it would be a good thing if farmers kept systematic accounts; but to suppose that some ten or twelve millions of most conservative people would revolutionize their business habits in response to a request from this quarter, is almost a sign of a lack of common sense. Certainly no competent statistician would seriously make such a request as this, and we venture to suggest that a table showing the number of farmers that have complied with it would not be the least interesting of those that are to be published. The Superintendent insists with great force that if the publication of the returns of the census is not to be most injuriously delayed, it must be taken out of the hands of the Government Printing-office. This would result in a vast saving not only of time but of money; and when we consider that a single new requirement of the census law will involve the publication of eight quarto volumes of a thousand pages each, it seems indispensable. It is gratifying to learn that the services of Dr. John S. Billings and of Mr. Frederick H. Wines have been secured in their respective departments. In a number of respects improvement upon the methods and results of the Tenth Census is promised, and such improvement is eminently desirable.

—M. Jules Simon announces, in the *Temps* of March 2, that he has quitted the *Matin*, and that henceforth he will print from day to day a "Little Journal" of his own. The separation is not due, he says, to any unkind feeling on either side, but to an intense desire on his part for absolute independence. One who knows none of the secrets of the *Matin* office might well think that its writers have very wide liberty as it is. It is a journal which professes no political creed, and takes no side in politics. From day to day it publishes leading articles, each duly announced the day before, by writers who sound the whole gamut of political opinion from Divine Right to radicalism. Among these writers the chief have been MM. John Lemoinne, J. Cornély, J. Simon, Emmanuel Arène, Jules Delafosse, and Ranc. From this happy family M. Jules Simon has withdrawn, and he sets up his independent journal, not as a separate venture, but in the columns of the *Temps*. He occupies daily a certain space, more or less, in which he gives free expression to his opinions on many subjects under the heading "Mon Petit Journal." The *Temps*, he says, gives to him as an old journalistic hand a place without responsibility incurred on either side, just as workmen might give free bench-room in a shop to a veteran who liked to be among them and busy. M. Jules Simon's articles so far have touched a number of very diverse subjects—political, biographical, and social—and it may be that this width of range has been one of the attractions that have drawn him away from the *Matin*, where his work was for the most part political. He treats his present subjects with varying degrees of minuteness and care, but always in an interesting way.

A METHODIST EDUCATOR.

Wilbur Fisk. By George Prentice, D.D., Professor in Wesleyan University. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890.

THERE is a sharp contrast between this book and its forerunner, 'Jonathan Edwards,' the first volume of a series of "American Religious Leaders." It suggests the query whether it would not have been better to find for each subject a sympathetic biographer of some other sect. Dr. Allen's 'Edwards' kept his sectarian opinions so completely in abeyance that they did not ruffle the surface of the book, while Dr. Prentice's stir up the sand from the bottom at almost every page. He never tires of celebrating the growth of Methodism and the expansion of its educational system. Within certain limits, such a course was perfectly legitimate, especially with reference to the educational expansion; but it is very greatly overdone. The tone is that of an anniversary glorification. In general the book is not well written. The syntax is often faulty, so that something else is said than what is meant. The style smacks of the local editorial more than of scholar's work. It is needlessly polemical. In the third chapter there is a violent and protracted assault upon Matthew Arnold for certain ill-advised observations on American Methodism. It is lugged in, and the chapter reads like a belated article for the *Methodist Quarterly Review*, stuck here to give the volume more pretentious bulk. It is evident that Dr. Prentice did not find his subject a prolific one. He would have been much happier writing a life of Dr. Whedon, to whose theological statements he continually recurs with an enthusiasm to which his praise of Dr. Fisk does not attain. If he had set out to write down the latter, the effect could not have been much more damaging. An impression of intellectual and personal thinness is not to be escaped. The deathbed scenery of the concluding chapter is long drawn out, as if Dr. Prentice had aimed to write a narrative which might some time make an edifying tract.

Chapter iii. concludes with such a generous endorsement of Dr. A. V. G. Allen's 'Continuity of Christian Thought' as "incomparably the best exposition of that theology of the early Eastern Church" in which Dr. Prentice seeks the goal of Wesley and Whedon, that we are haunted by a grave suspicion that the object of the series is to exalt that theology at the expense of the Western type. In his 'Idea of God,' Mr. John Fiske, who is to have a volume in the series, was greatly taken with Dr. Allen's book. He would probably not find it difficult to hitch the pantheistic theology of Parker to that of Origen and Clement. That all the subjects of the series can be construed in this way is hardly possible. Perhaps before it is concluded we may have a theologian, as subject or biographer, who finds the Eastern theology which is germinal in the Fourth Gospel as little satisfactory as the Western theology which is germinal in the Pauline Epistles, and the doctrine of the synoptic Gospels the simplest and the best of all.

It may be that the brevity of Dr. Fisk's life accounts partly for the lack of weight and substance which it would seem that every one must feel in Dr. Prentice's biography. He was born in 1792 and died in 1839. He had but three years' schooling before he was sixteen. His striking out for a college education at a time when such education was generally considered among Methodists injurious to Christian character, and especially to the preacher's fitness for his work, implied no early break with the tradition, for his first idea was to study law. His college course began at the University of Vermont, where it was interrupted by the war of 1812, and continued at Brown University, and was not in any way remarkable. Signs of consumption were already evident and increased at Baltimore, where he went as private tutor. Returning to his friends in Vermont, he found a revival in full swing, and "before he had any chance to confess his back-slidings he recovered the favor of God," and resolved to enter the ministry; whether as Congregationalist Episcopalian, or Methodist, he was at first undecided. He finally joined the Methodist Conference in 1818.

His ministry was of but three years' duration, one in Vermont and two in Charlestown, Mass., where his health again broke down under the weight of his constitutional tendency, aggravated by ascetic foolishness and overwork. Whether the raptures of his piety were related to his physical condition as cause or effect is an interesting question. At the Wellfleet camp-meeting his attainment of "a clean heart," or "perfection," was accompanied by great physical prostration; but such "bodily exercises" were common to the weak and strong. His marriage was unhappy; entirely, we are assured, through the wife's fault. Dr. Prentice makes much of the kindness of her husband's friends and the Wesleyan University Faculty to her after his death. His own treatment of her is a sad exception to the rule. He pursues her with relentless pertinacity, and, by leaving everything vague, is more damaging to her reputation than if he had been more explicit; for it does not appear that anything worse could be charged upon her than a lachrymose and fretful disposition. As compared with Wesley's termagant, she must have been a model wife.

"When Wilbur Fisk was invited to become principal of the Wesleyan Academy at Wilbraham, Mass. [in 1826], his pious mother urged him, for the sake of his own soul, not to accept the new work." She appealed to his own experience in such matters. Had he not declined in his interest in religious truth and spirituality of life while he was a student in Peacham Academy, and continued in a back-slidden condition during all his successive connections with the University of Vermont and Brown University? This was a characteristic note, and Dr. Prentice brings together a good many facts to show how little religious were the colleges in the fore-part of the century. To argue from the Unitarianism of Harvard "how powerful were the influences of unbelief" may seem a little strange to some who know the spiritual quality of Channing, and equally the assertion—Dr. Fisk's—that the Unitarian theory of religion was that it consists "chiefly in external performances." Not only the irreligion of the colleges scared the Methodists, but also their Calvinism. It was the distinction and glory of Wilbur Fisk's short life to stem the tide of this feeling against education and turn it quite the other way.

Wilbraham Academy was the first Methodist academy in New England. There are now seven of like character, with 1,715 students, and property valued at $1,000,000. "But one school has a debt of $12,500," says Dr. Prentice; the halting grammar meaning that only one has any debt, and that one a debt of $12,500. Wilbur Fisk was only two years at Wilbraham. It was the day of small things, but not on that account to be despised. Probably it took much more force and genius to make a beginning in the teeth of various opposition, and with financial resources that seem ridiculously small, than it does to carry on the booming enterprises of the present time. Mr. Fisk's salary was that of an itinerant preacher, the student's board was $1.25 a week, and the principal never intrusted the office of corporal punishment to another's hands. He was never false to his idea that education and religion can be joined together. At Wilbraham, and later at Middletown, Conn., he was not more interested in the intellectual than in the spiritual welfare of the youth under his charge; and a revival of religion was his measure of the success attending his endeavors. When the first Methodist college in the country was established, it was largely in response to his appeals, and it was only natural that he should be made its president. His wisdom was never better shown than in his refusal to subject the instructors of the college to a sectarian test. It may be said he made a virtue of necessity, for, otherwise, he must have taken them all from three Methodist academies. His connection with the Wesleyan University began in 1828 and continued for ten years, ending only with his life.

Dr. Fisk had great influence in the Methodist Conference. He used it for the establishment of an Indian mission. He also used it to allay the fierceness of the anti-Masonic rage. So we are told, but with infinite vagueness as to the character of his mediation. In temperance matters, also, he took a vigorous and leading part. "In the main," says Dr. Prentice, "the causes which enlisted Dr. Fisk's interest, in Church and State, are causes which have made signal advances in the world since his death." The grand exception was the anti-slavery cause. Wilbur Fisk's opposition to this has been for fifty years the best assurance of his fame. Dr. Prentice devotes a chapter to his relation to the anti-slavery movement. It is a damaging apology. What it amounts to is, that Dr. Fisk was not a pro-slavery opponent

of the abolitionists, but a colonizationist, who preferred the indefinite continuance of slavery to any disturbance of the peace and unity of the Methodist Church, and who contended for the good and regular standing of slaveholders in that Church on Scriptural and moral grounds. It must be confessed that Dr. Prentice does not disguise the force of the "Appeal" made by the Rev. George Storrs and others to the New England Methodists. Nor does he disguise the feeble casuistry of the "Counter Appeal," which, though signed by many, was unmistakably the work of Dr. Fisk. In general the strength of Garrison's Scriptural argument was in its appeal to what was highest in Old Testament and New. It was often wasted upon those to whom every part of the Bible was of equal weight—an incident of the history as authoritative as the voice of Jesus or the prophets. But it was Dr. Fisk's contention that the continuance of slavery was justified and anti-slavery agitation was condemned by the Golden Rule, "All things whatsoever ye would that men should do unto you, do ye even so to them." We agree with Dr. Prentice that "One may fairly doubt the feasibility of the plan of action in reference to slavery proposed by Dr. Fisk and his associates," seeing that it was to destroy slavery through the softening influence of Christian love in the slaveholders' hearts while they were being steadily assured that slaveholding was not denied to Christian men. It baffles the imagination to conceive of the remoteness of the end attained by means so contradictory as these. Dr. Fisk's anti-slavery position was of a kind that the slaveholders would have had indefinitely extended. The more of it the better for their trade.

Dr. Prentice devotes two chapters of his book to theological matters. It is evident from these that Dr. Fisk was a theological disputant of no mean abilities. His defence of the Arminian doctrine against Calvinism was marked by rigorous common sense. It is made more probable that he was, at least relatively, sound in his opinions by the tendency of Congregationalism in America, and Presbyterianism, first in Scotland and now in America, to abandon the positions he assailed. But his educational work is his best title to the admiration of his sect and the community at large.

A WRETCHED REFERENCE-BOOK.

Fact, Fancy, and Fable: A New Handbook for ready reference on subjects commonly omitted from cyclopædias. Compiled by Henry Frederic Reddall. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1889.

Mr. Reddall's book, while it includes some matter not found in other compilations, as a rule follows them, even in their errors, and displays an inexplicable want of enterprise in the compiler in trying collateral sources of information. It contains only half as much matter as Brewer's 'Reader's Handbook,' while, owing to the inclusion of several hundred abbreviations which may be found in the appendix to any "unabridged" dictionary, and of an equal number of real and alleged pseudonyms—mostly of obscure writers in still more obscure journals—as well as by the omission of the names of buildings, streets, works of art, etc., the treatment of which distinguishes Wheeler's 'Familiar Allusions,' the average interest of its pages is inferior to that of either of the works named.

We think pseudonyms, stage-names, etc., should be excluded from a work of this kind, both because those who need to know about them are provided with works which treat them more fully and carefully than is here possible, and because they occupy valuable space. But even if this is not the correct view, Mr. Reddall's treatment of this class of entries is little short of ridiculous. Not only does he swell his list by giving, as a pseudonym, the maiden name of all married women known in literature, but he gives many a name of no value to any one but the owner, if, indeed, to him. The most pedantic cataloguer can hardly care to know that "Broadaxe" was the pseudonym of Martin Knapp in the Rockland County *Press*. Besides these superfluities, Mr. Reddall is guilty of many inconsistencies and errors. On page 92 he gives "Brooke (pseud.), Miss E. Nesbit in *Good Words*," and on page 188, "E. Nesbit. The pen-name of Mrs. Edith Bland." Under "Langel" we read: "Pseud. The Comte de Paris, who furnished a series of papers on the United States to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, Paris, 1865." The work of Mr. Auguste Laugel is too familiar to readers of the *Nation* for an explanation of this to be necessary. "Competition Waller" (Wallah) is here said to be a pseudonym of G. O. Trevelyan, "b. 1831." For 1831 read 1838. "Iron Tooth" Mr. Reddall identifies with "Frederick II., elector of Brandenburg, 1657–1713." Frederick II. was called "The Iron," but died in 1471, the dates given belonging to King Frederick I. of Prussia. Malakoff is given as a pseudonym of Dr. Johnson—an odd anachronism even for Mr. Reddall.

What may be termed general errors are found on every page, except where the compiler wastes two or three pages at once ("Junius" absorbs eight) on topics so threadbare as Caspar Hauser, Junius, and the Iron Mask. "December 6, 1745," we are told, was "the day on which the news arrived in England that the Pretender had landed." He landed in July, 1745, and at the date given was in the heart of England. The overthrow of the Directory in France by Bonaparte, Mr. Reddall thinks, was a "popular uprising." "During the Irish rebellion," he says, "a man was run over by a passenger *train*." We are in doubt as to whether the compiler supposed that the Irish "car" implied a train, or whether he thought railways existed in that country in 1798. Corn, it seems, "in England means wheat," so that the repeal of the Corn Laws benefited the consumers of only one kind of grain!

The compiler has not only not taken the trouble to revise his extracts, but not even to compare them. On p. 264 we read: "Hotel Disease—A disease which broke out among the guests of the National Hotel, in Washington, in 1856"; but on p. 370: "National Hotel Poisoning—A mysterious disease which affected the guests of the National Hotel, Washington, in January and March, 1857"—the true date, as is shown by the commentary. *Feuilleton* (p. 206) is "a small leaf; a *supplement* to a newspaper, a pamphlet," but on page 305 it is more correctly (though still incompletely) defined as "that part of the paper . . . devoted to current literature and musical and dramatic criticism." On page 447 we are told that the Baltic provinces are called the Russian Ireland "because they were for many years the scene of agrarian agitation and disaffection," a gross misstatement, as appears from a paragraph on p. 55, where, under "Baltic Question," we read: "A controversy of long standing between the Baltic Provinces and the Russian Government concerning the rights and privileges confirmed to their inhabitants by Alexander II., February, 1856," the chief grievance being the enforced "russification" in respect to religion and language.

James II. (page 483) did not abdicate, in 1688 or afterwards. Cicero (page 201) was not named Father of his Country *by* the Senate, nor was "Veni, vidi, vici" (page 512), Cæsar's "despatch to the Senate, announcing his conquest of Britain," but his message to a friend, to announce his victory over Pharnaces. Bismarck did not become Chancellor in 1862 (page 299); the office was not created till after the establishment of the Empire. "La Vendée" was not the name of a party (page 315), but of a province. Mr. Reddall has not heard of the death of the Count of Chambord, and so styles him (page 319) "the present representative of the Legitimists." But of all Mr. Reddall's aberrations in European history, perhaps the oddest is his supposition that the phrase "Man on Horseback," which goes back to 1789, was coined in honor of Boulanger, "so called from the fact that he is seldom seen in public except mounted on his favorite black charger."

There is one particular in which Mr. Reddall's book, in so far as it carries out the promise of the preface, has a decided advantage over its predecessors, viz., in the inclusion of American catch-words, political and other—a department which generally receives but small attention. Unfortunately, the compiler's ignorance is here even more obvious than elsewhere. Few indeed are the American topics on which he does not make a more or less serious blunder. He begins with Albany Regency, which, he says, was "a term given to the cliques *both Whig* and Democratic," etc. The American party "swept the country like a tornado, carrying nearly every State." It never elected officers in more than eight States. The Liberty party is said to have "contained such men as W. L. Garrison, Wendell Phillips, Lewis Tappan," etc. Of "Machine" we are told: "A coterie of politicians, or *an entire party*, receives this name when the wishes of individual members succumb to the crack of the party whip." This is worse than inadequate, it is false. "Upon the axiom, 'To the victors belong the spoils,'" says Mr. Reddall, "the Government of the United States had *always* been conducted until the appearance of the 'Civil-Service Reform' agitation." But the list of errors is endless, and we have not touched upon the omissions.

It may seem that we have given more space to this book than it deserves, but it is to be remembered that such works, though sometimes not inaptly termed repositories of useless knowledge, are widely used, and that, unless the contrary is clearly and even sharply shown, the one latest in date is, naturally enough, taken to be better than its predecessors as regards accuracy, completeness, and the discretion with which the topics treated are chosen.

Studies in Literature and Style. By Theodore W. Hunt, Ph.D. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1890.

We have had occasion previously to remark upon Prof. Hunt's excellent writings in the department of school Rhetoric, in which he deals with advanced subjects with unusual breadth of view and freedom from the stiff pedagogy which generally monopolizes the manuals of instruction in style. The present volume is a continuation of his former studies, and is characterized by similar system in statement and absence of technicality. He classifies style as intellectual, literary, impassioned, poetical, etc., analyzes each division, and gives illustrations usually from standard authors. He winds up with a criticism of Arnold's and Emerson's style which, while without brilliancy or novelty, is both clear and just. The fact that he has the courage to name the defects in

both is significant, and in so doing he affords an example of that independence which he advocates at the end.

We observe with surprise some strange statements, as, for example, that Shelley wrote no prose—the fact being that Shelley is as good an instance as could be selected of the noble style which belongs to the poet. Shelley's "Defence of Poetry," to say nothing of other minor papers and the translations, reaches the dignity of a classic. The author also fails in discrimination occasionally, especially in speaking of American critics. James T. Fields, for example, is not to be regarded as a writer of literary rank, nor Whipple to be coupled with Lowell. This lack of perspective is the principal defect of an otherwise excellent treatise.

Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773-1783. Vol. III. London: B. F. Stevens.

THE third volume of Stevens's Facsimiles comes with praiseworthy promptness. The documents now given belong to the same series with those which made up the greater part of the first and second volumes, being the correspondence of the spies employed by the English Government in Paris, and some intercepted letters for the year 1777. We see still more plainly than before under what disadvantages Franklin and Deane did their work in Paris. Dr. Bancroft, their trusted secretary, was a spy, in constant correspondence with the half-trusted Paul Wentworth. Arthur Lee, as has long been known, was so conceited and suspicious as never to work heartily with his colleagues. He had arranged in his own mind, and communicated to his brother in the American Congress, a plan for the reorganization of the diplomatic service. Dr. Franklin was to be sent to Vienna, as the first place and the most respectable and quiet. Indeed, Franklin's quietness, which was not the least of his eminent diplomatic gifts, was a great annoyance to the hot-headed Lee, as it was at a later period to the equally hot-headed but far more sensible John Adams. Silas Deane was to go to Holland and Alderman Lee to Prussia, as the commercial appointments. Edmund Jennings was assigned to Madrid. "France remains," says the self-sufficient Arthur Lee, "the centre of political activity, where, therefore, I should choose to be employed"—a modest request in the Commissioner who was certainly the least acceptable of the three at the Court which it was the especial wish of Congress to conciliate (269).

The atmosphere of treachery in which all these people moved is disgusting. Yet it is curious to observe how men may delude themselves about their moral position. Wentworth, while stealing seals and visiting-cards from the tables of his acquaintance in order to facilitate the violation of their correspondence in the mails, speaks of himself to his employer as "a man who aims at honor and reputation" (321). Even Captain Jo. Hynson, who turns despatches intrusted to him over to the enemy, heartily despises the character of a spy (316).

Mr. Stevens promises ten volumes a year. We look forward to them with interest. No attempt on this scale has ever before been made to give historical scholars the material they need, in the most trustworthy form. We hope that this undertaking will be but the first of a line. There are several collections of correspondence in the world to which this method might well be applied. Perhaps the continual questions as to what Washington actually did write can be satisfactorily settled only by publishing his correspondence in facsimile. A process which excludes all possibility of tampering or editing (except by notes) is indeed a boon to the scholar.

In Thought-Land and in Dream-Land. By Elsa D'Esterre-Keeling. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 1890.

THIS interesting collection of very short sketches by an Irishwoman has unusual individuality, and although most of the stories will best serve for children, older readers will enjoy the bright fancy, the sharp landscape drawing, the touch of pathos, and here and there a remarkable mere prettiness hard to describe. The sketches are so brief, rapid, and full as to remind us rather of the best French models in this sort of writing than of anything English; and, trifles though they seem, they often bear a world of meaning in their suggestiveness or the implied moral. Many are plainly from the life, and in these a certain tenderness is discernible. The author's sympathies are most excited by the life of children, or else by the poor, narrow lives of servants and street-characters. The range is through England, Scotland, and Germany, and also Ireland, of course, where the author seems at home. A little essay on the differences in the use of small words and phrases in England and Ireland shows how thoroughly the English misunderstand their neighbors, as a more ambitious article might fail to do. There are bits of poetry here and there, one of which is so fresh that we copy it. The title is "Love-making in Paddy-Land":

I. UNDER KITTY'S WINDOW.

"Ah, then; who is that there talkin'?"
"Sure, it's only me, ye know.
I was thinkin' we'd go walkin' ——"
"Wor ye raly *thinkin'* so?"
"Och, ye need'n' be so cruel,
An' me thrudged this siven mile——"
"Is it cruel, Michael, jewel,
Sure I'm dressin' all the while!"

II. BEFORE MICHAEL'S COTTAGE.

"There, now, that's me cottage, Kitty."
"Is it, Mike?"
"Yis; an' isn't it pretty?"
"Hm!—lonesome like."
"Lonesome!" (Now's y'r minute! Michael, strike!)
"Sure, if *you* wor in it——"
"Arrah, Mike!"

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611 Hints and Points to Sportsmen. Compiled by Seneca. *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co.

THIS is a most excellent series of short apothegms on questions of moment to sportsmen, and indeed to most others who are much in the open air and observant of the different aspects and products of Nature. As the title indicates, there are 611 of these, but their subdivisions and amplifications make up a book of 250 pages, useful alike to those who shoot, angle, camp, trap, go yachting or naturalizing. Half-a-dozen pages are devoted to "Health Hints and Remedies," and, in fact, there is scarcely anything connected with life in the woods or on the waters on which useful information is not conveyed. A few of the subdivisions of the book are "Guns and Shooting," "The Rifle," "Game Hunting and Trapping"—the advice on wing shooting being most excellent—"Fish and Fishing," "Camping and Outing," etc. No such good handbook on field sports has lately appeared; the compiler having made his selections with capital judgment and a knowledge of just what was needed.

Selected Poems of Matthew Prior. With an Introduction and Notes by Austin Dobson. [The Parchment Library.] Scribner & Welford.

MR. AUSTIN DOBSON, besides as usual giving pleasure by what he writes, has done a great service in making the really delightful poems of Prior accessible to all classes of readers; for the complete editions of Prior's works contain, as is the case with all the Restoration poets, so much that was written for the coarser readers of that time that few to-day have the patience to sift out for themselves the pint of wheat from the bushel of chaff. This is what Mr. Dobson has done. He has selected all that is gracefullest and wittiest from the writings of one of the most cultivated of all court poets, and omitted from them not only all that is bad (which is a great deal), but all that is dull (which is a volume in itself), and he has taken the pardonable liberty of occasionally substituting a proper for an improper line, where he would otherwise have had to sacrifice the whole poem. When we add that he has given us probably the best short biography and critical sketch of Prior yet written, and very laborious and careful notes, it can be seen what a new debt lovers of English verse owe him. The book contains a fine etching of Prior's strong face, and, like all others of the series, is handsomely printed.

In a Club Corner: The Monologue of a Man who might have been Sociable. Overheard by A. P. Russell. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890.

THIS volume is an abundant collection of anecdotes about literary and other famous men, strung together with considerable skill upon commonplace titles, such as Reading Aloud, The Philosopher's Stone, Youth and Age, Content, Heroism, etc. The author has gleaned in many fields, and he gives a kind of appositeness to each story or quotation which relieves the book of the wearisome piecemeal character usually so depressing in collections of the sort. There is no reason why he should not have continued through another volume, and he intimates as much by closing with a long list of subjects for similar essays, with hints of how to develop them in his own manner. In general the collection is somewhat fresher than might be expected and shows a wide and excellent range of reading. Occasionally the series is broken by a short anecdotical essay, as, for instance, upon Sheridan and Garrick. Altogether the task set has been cleverly done.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, Prof. W. F. Short History of the Roman People. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.
Allen, W. B. In the Morning. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.50.
Calvo, J. B. The Republic of Costa Rica. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Cooper, T. Biographical Dictionary. New ed. 2 vols. Scribner & Welford. $4.
Dana, Prof. J. D. Corals and Coral Islands. 3d ed. Dodd, Mead & Co. $5.
Elliott, J. R. American Farms: their Condition and Future. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Furness, H. H. New Variorum Edition of Shakespeare. Vol. 8. As You Like It. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $4.
Hogg, James. The Uncollected Writings of Thomas De Quincey. 2 vols. Scribner & Welford. $3.50.
In Her Earliest Youth: A Novel. F. F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
Macvane, Prof. S. M. The Working Principles of Political Economy. New York: Effingham Maynard & Co.
Masson, Prof. D. The Collected Writings of Thomas De Quincey. Vol. V. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Moore, Rev. E. Dante and his Early Biographers. London: Rivingtons.
Moyle, J. B. The Institutes of Justinian Translated into English. Oxford: Clarendon Press: New York: Macmillan.
Remsen, D. S. Interstate Succession in the State of New York. 2d ed. Baker, Voorhis & Co. $1.50.
Rogers, A. Goethe's Reineke Fox, West-Eastern Divan, and Achilleid. Scribner & Welford. $1.40.
Russell, A. P. In a Club Corner. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Sachs, Prof. J. von. History of Botany, 1530-1860. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
Salmon, D. Longman's School Composition. Longmans, Green & Co. 80 cents.
Salter, W. M. Moralische Reden. Leipzig: W. Friedrich.
Schouler, J. History of the United States of America. Vols. I—IV. Dodd, Mead & Co. $9.
St. Aubyn. Trollope's Dilemma. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Volney, C. F. The Ruins. Peter Eckler. 75 cents.
Wagner, Prof. M. Die Entstehung der Arten durch räumliche Sonderung. Basel: Benno Schwabe; New York: Westermann.

Fine Arts.

THE BOSTON MUSEUM'S ENLARGEMENT.—II.

THE Parthenon room is well worthy of another mention. The arrangement of the frieze is good, and there are one or two unexpected and delightful additions to the Parthenon collections, such as that metope of the centaur and warrior to which Dr. Waldstein's acuteness has added the hero's head—or say restored, as the head belongs to one museum and the slab to another; but the union is entirely practicable in the cast. Also, Boston has what no other museum except Berlin has, a cast of that important metope which still remains in place at the southwest angle of the Acropolis. The statues of the pediments are placed on a large stylobate in the middle of the room, and the more important are made to rotate upon this, so that they may be seen from different points of view at pleasure. The few metopes are high on the wall, as, in fact, they ought to be.

In the Olympia room important additions have been made, not so much of new pieces as of additions to the pieces which have been previously in place. The casts of the sculptures from the Temple of Zeus at Olympia were purchased at a time not very long after the discovery of those sculptures, and no purchases have been made since that time; but during these years much has been found and learned. Pieces of the sculpture have been brought together in Berlin and at Olympia and found to correspond perfectly, and many a statue has been proved to be far more nearly capable of completion than had been supposed. Thus, the standing figure of Zeus is almost a complete statue now, instead of a torso with head, only; the seated bearded man and the very perfect group of the centaur seizing a maiden have received important additions; and all these changes are preserved in these casts. Mr. Robinson has shown excellent judgment in backing the shattered metopes with a sort of secondary background of plaster.

The casts of the Italian Renaissance are numerous now, and the large room is beginning to be well filled with works of art of this important epoch. Both the Michael Angelo tombs from the new sacristy of San Lorenzo are now in place, raised at a height above the floor about (perhaps exactly) equal to that of the originals, and they look well. It is to be desired that certain altar-tombs should be made to look like what they really are; an effigy, life-size and in high relief, as of a statue lying upon a flat surface, looks badly, if this surface seems to be a mere slab. It is not, to be sure, necessary that the whole of the monument of Ilaria del Carretto be given, for the sarcophagus itself is of minor importance; but in some way it is desirable that this appearance of a mere thin slab, with a figure upon it, should be avoided, and no doubt this will be seen to in due time.

In the room devoted to French and German Renaissance there are few pieces as yet, but among them is a real treasure—the statue of King Arthur from the Innsbruck tomb—a figure which it seems has never been cast before, and of which four copies only have been made—one for Boston, one for Chicago, one for the old Corcoran Gallery at Washington, and none, alas! for New York. It would be well if this and all other casts of bronze statues could be colored like bronze, and, if any one doubts this, let him look at the cast of the so-called "Praying Boy of Berlin," which although not of the same color as the original, yet gives an idea of the bronze statue, and is in giving it far better than if it were white.

The collection of Gothic and Moorish casts is hardly worth mention at present. It is a pity, too, that there should be any attempt to class them together, even by putting them in the same room. There is too much willingness, perhaps, to consider these styles as in some way correlative, and the vastly too great importance allowed nowadays to Moorish art is made possible by such a distribution.

The L-shaped room on this side, corresponding to the Egyptian room on the other side, is filled with Greek, Roman, and Etruscan antiquities, some of which are really of importance, as, for instance, the pieces brought from Assos, and a collection of Etruscan pieces of the well-known black ware which for beauty and completeness can hardly be surpassed, although the number of pieces is not very great. With this we complete the examination of the ground floor, looking back upon it only to feel how admirable a nucleus for a museum of sculpture is here, and how admirable already is the provision made for real instruction for persons desiring to study art or history in art.

On the grand staircase is the "Victory" from Samothrace, set high on its pedestal, from the front of which, as it projects over the well of the staircase, sticks out a beak, to represent the prow of the ship upon which the Victory is supposed to have alighted. It is not the original beak, or a reproduction of it, but a suggestion that in this part of the work was the marble original. The staircase leads through a hall in which are a few pieces of modern sculpture in the original marble or bronze, not important, but having among them the hideous "Diana" of Falguière, an artist whose well-deserved reputation as a sculptor is curiously at odds with this unqualifiable production.

To the west open out some rooms which have not been much changed in their disposition. Thus the gallery of textiles is very familiar, and the adjoining rooms, with wood-carving, weapons, wrought-iron, and Italian cassoni, while they contain some new and valuable works of art, are the old rooms still. The splendid display of original dresses in the large cases in the textile gallery shows changes only for the better. One of these cases is devoted wholly to Chinese costumes, both of men and women, belonging to several different owners, of whom it appears that Miss Scidmore is one of the most favored by fortune, for it must be a real delight to own such magnificent pieces of textile work and embroidery. The second case, and the wall cases for nearly one-half of their extent, are filled with splendid Japanese costumes, belonging altogether, we believe, to Mr. Bigelow. Some of the new ones here are as splendid as those that have been here in former years, and although it seems that one or two of the old friends are gone, it is probable that they are to be found in another room where a minute examination would detect them. The third standing case is occupied, as it has long been, and worthily, with the European and American costumes of the last century, loaned chiefly by the Misses Ware of Milton. To the student of American history, no case could be more interesting than this. In one of the smaller rooms it is gratifying to see the collection of casts from armor, sword-hilts, and the like; probably the only instance, except that of the Slater Museum in Norwich, where these wonderful productions of Kreitmeyer of Munich have been brought to this country in any number. It should have been said above that it is to Kreitmeyer that we owe also the King Arthur. It struck Mr. Robinson that the man who was accustomed to make casts of weapons and ivory carvings and metal reliefs would be the right person to charge with the taking of such a cast as the King Arthur, with its varied detail of surface, its under-cutting and elaboration; and the result proves the wisdom of his choice of a workman.

The great corner room is devoted wholly to pottery, porcelain, and glass, for the cases of lacquers have been taken away. It is now most worthily filled with collections of Oriental and European wares of great beauty, and, if there is no serious attempt to cover the whole field and to lead the student of ceramics or of glassware from one epoch to another, this is not to be expected. Only the expenditure of very large sums of money and an effort continued very many years could in any way suffice to represent this important but too much neglected subject. There is one exception to the uniform filling of this room with the industrial arts which give it its name, and this is in the display of Oriental enamels; although, indeed, it might be urged that cloisonné enamels are in a sense glassware. The case devoted to these enamels is really a splendid display, and is worthy of the long journey to Boston to study. Three or four of the beautiful pieces which once belonged to Mr. Cunningham, and are now the property of Mr. Ames, remain with the loans of other gentlemen in the collection.

Opening out of the pottery room is a small square room which is put down on the plan as a "Metal Room," and which has glass cases along one wall with interesting specimens of bronze and other metal, not as yet in a final arrangement. But in the middle of this room is a case containing the challenge cups won by Gen. Paine with his three famous yachts. It is an extraordinary sight, this collection! In the first place, when it is remembered that no one of these prizes represents a victory in the famous races for the *America's* cup, it becomes evident how remarkable has been the achievement of the three great sloops identified with Mr. Paine. There is one large tray presented to him in general recognition of the services done to the country by winning the races which saved the *America's* cup; but all the rest are for outside and less widely known contests. And in the second place, it is extraordinary that so many and such costly pieces of silverware could be brought together and give no pleasure to the spectator. Obviously the best talent of the country, as employed in the production of decorative plate, has been given to the making of these pieces, and yet there is not one which a man of taste would consent to have as a part of the furniture of his rooms. How this can be, it would take a long time to explain. That so it is must, we think, be evident to the spectator who knows what artistic silverware really is.

The coin room, adjoining this, contains as yet only a few cases—of reproductions—but it is to be said at once, and insisted on strongly, that numismatic reproductions are altogether desirable, and that they have this great advantage over originals: that (1) the most important, the rarest, and the most perfect specimens can be brought together as no collections of originals could hope to bring them together, and (2) that they can be arranged with the obverse and reverse side by side. Nor must it be forgotten that reproductions of this kind can be made indistinguishable from the originals. Even experts may be deceived, and often are. The only way in which the museums that furnish these duplicates can avoid causing infinite confusion and error is by putting a mark in some unobtrusive but perfectly well-known

place. It follows that when the walls of this room and cases in the middle of it are filled with reproductions of coins, as carefully chosen for their artistical value as are the collections on the floor below, there will be all that a general museum can be expected to give in the way of numismatology.

The Japanese room is above the Parthenon room, which we have described as going through from court to street with windows at each end. This room, arranged in the same way, connects immediately with the long corridor of this upper story, and the two are devoted to the most extraordinary collection of Japanese art which is to be found in any public museum in the world. It is mainly a loan collection, but the objects are left for an indefinite period; and, indeed, no private owner could find room in his dwelling for any large proportion of the immense display made here by any one of several contributors. In the Japanese room, so called, are the glass cases of splendid lacquers, beautiful swords, long and short, ivory carvings, sword-guards, and other pieces of artistical metal work and larger pieces of bronze and of carved wood. In the corridor are, first, the whole of the Morse collection of Japanese pottery, so well known to collectors and students of Japanese art, at least by fame, but so little seen hitherto, being now for the first time brought to a place more accessible and more commonly visited than the little town of Salem. Here it is in a series of immense cases, admirably lighted, and arranged, to all appearance, according to the refined and scholarly taste of the proprietor, and it challenges examination. Upon the cases and overhead are large carved panels of wood, of which the immense collection belonging to Mr. Bigelow decorates this corridor and the room we have just left. Along the walls of the corridor, behind the glass, but not injured by the glass, is a small part of the prodigious collection of Kakemonos belonging to Dr. Charles G. Weld, a large part of which at least was bought from Mr. Fenelosa, who had made the collection in Japan. It is not known that another so large or so representative a collection exists. Similar paintings, mounted on screens, are set above the glass cases which hold the Kakemonos, and in some cases are as important as the latter. The whole makes a gallery of Japanese paintings such as probably does not exist in Japan, where it has never been the custom to show an overpowering mass of works of art—where the possessions even of a great collector are shown only one at a time. As for what collections of Japanese paintings may be in private hands, perhaps the number now visible in the Boston Museum may be surpassed; but the whole collection is enormous, and will allow of frequent changes.

And so we are brought to the picture galleries, and of these we can speak but briefly. They are increased in number, so that there are now five rooms devoted to paintings, one to water-colors, and three to prints. The galleries of paintings make a worthy show of good art of many schools, and there are some pictures in the collection of very high rank indeed. The water-color room is bare as yet, with most of its wall space unoccupied. And one is left wondering why the reopening was made the occasion of a special display of Mr. Platt's etchings, to the exclusion of a selected exhibition of many living artists.

RUSSELL STURGIS.

HENRY HOLT & CO.,

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 10, 1890.

The Week.

THE most important business which Congress is transacting nowadays is the construction of new States. During the past month the House of Representatives has passed bills providing for the admission of Wyoming and Idaho, and it seems a foregone conclusion that the Senate will concur as soon as the question comes up in that body. Practically, therefore, it is already settled that the Union will soon have two new members, the House two more members, the Senate four additional members, and the electoral college six more votes. There is not the slightest excuse for the admission of either of these Territories at the present time. The total vote of Wyoming in 1888 was only about 18,000, as against about 7,500 in 1880, when the whole population was 20,789; and there is no good reason to suppose that the number of inhabitants to-day exceeds 60,000. Idaho had 32,610 people in 1880, and the growth of her vote between 1880 and 1888 does not indicate a population of more than 100,000 now. There are, of course, all sorts of wild estimates and claims as to a much larger population in each Territory, but there is nothing substantial upon which to base them, and at best nobody supposes that the number of inhabitants in either Wyoming or Idaho comes anywhere near 151,912, which is the number of people required to secure one Representative in the House by the last apportionment.

Experience has given more than one warning against haste in this matter. Nevada was hurried into the Union as a State just before the Presidential election of 1864, upon claims as to the size of its population which proved gross exaggerations when the next census was taken. Its vote has fallen off a full third since 1880, when the whole number of people, including more than 5,000 Chinamen and Indians, was but 62,226; and it is doubtful whether there are to-day over 35,000 white people in the State. Yet these 35,000 have one Representative in the House, two Senators in the upper branch, and three votes in the Electoral College of 401 members. A year ago North Dakota was admitted as a State. It had been for years filling up with a population which was supposed to be remarkable for general intelligence and political morality. Yet the Legislature of this new State at its very first session was restrained with the utmost difficulty from passing an act under which the Louisiana-lottery swindle would have been guaranteed a new lease of life, now that its existence in Louisiana is almost ended. Except for the fact that the Governor of the State chanced to be an opponent of the scheme, the job would in all probability have been carried through, and North Dakota would have rewarded the old States for admitting her to their circle by offering an asylum to swindlers whom they will no longer harbor. Finally, the Idaho and Wyoming bills are pushed as Republican party measures. But, even from this point of view, it may be doubted whether admission would be good policy. The former gave only 1,747 Republican majority in 1888, and Wyoming but 2,894. Either one of them is liable to become a Democratic State within a few years, as each has been a Democratic Territory within a few years.

It requires close study of such a measure as the Ways and Means Tariff Bill to understand all its absurdities. For instance, one of the articles which appear on the dutiable list under the heading "Farm Products," is sugar of milk. This article in the present tariff is on the free list. Almost its sole use is in the form of the pellets used in the dispensation of homœopathic medicines, and as an excipient in such medicines as lacto-peptine, pepsine, etc. For these purposes from 200 to 250 tons are used annually in the United States. Almost the whole of this comes from Europe, the whey from Swiss cows yielding nearly twice as much sugar as that from cows in this country. But a few years ago a New Jersey milkman learned from a Swiss the process of making milk sugar, and began it on a small scale. Being also something of a politician, he "knew the ropes," and, going to Washington, he secured a "hearing," and the result is a proposal to tax the whole people of this country who use homœopathic medicines 10 cents a pound on the sugar used in these medicines, all for the benefit of a New Jersey milkman. The quinine tax was howled down even by protectionists because of its apparent burden on the many to enrich the few, but when we consider the number of persons who will make the profit out of this tax on a "dairy product," the quinine tax seems quite as justifiable. We do not, however, say that it is inconsistent with the rest of the bill. McKinley says his aim is to apply the protection principle. Sugar of milk gives him a fair opportunity.

The "staff correspondent" of the Philadelphia *Press* at Washington confirms the statement made by the *Evening Post* some time since that Secretary Blaine would propose reciprocity treaties with all the countries of Central and South America which might choose to join. "The suggestion," says this writer, "is, in effect, that the President shall, by proclamation, declare the ports of the United States free to all the products of any independent country on the American hemisphere on which no export duties are levied, so long as such nations admit free of all taxes breadstuffs, provisions, preserved meats, fish, vegetables, fruits, and in fact all articles of food, lumber, refined petroleum, and such other products of the United States as may be agreed upon; provided, however, that this concession shall apply only to merchandise transported in vessels of the United States or of other American countries entering into the agreement. Such is, in very nearly its exact terms, the suggestion informally made to the Ways and Means Committee, and likely to be put into writing within a few days." It is stated, also, that the Argentine Republic and Chili have withheld their assent to the proposition because they are convinced that the Congress of the United States will not consent to admit wool free of duty, and that they will not vote for a plan of reciprocity which manifestly cannot be carried into effect. The staff correspondent, on the other hand, thinks that there is a fair prospect that free wool from South America may be incorporated into the Ways and Means Tariff Bill before it is reported. We think it would be safer to wait until David Harpster and Judge Lawrence are heard from.

If the proposed duty on hides is due, as alleged, to Mr. Blaine's wonderful shrewdness in getting together the materials for chaffering with the Argentines, its reception by the latter will be rather painful to him. They have publicly declared that the imposition of such a duty would make trade with their country so impossible that they shall at once advise their Government to withdraw from the agreement to subsidize a line of steamers between the United States and Buenos Ayres, on the basis of a pro-rata payment by the several nations interested. It would appear, then, that they do not altogether relish the idea of this elaborate manœuvring right under their noses, for the sake of getting up some obstacles to Argentine exports that may be graciously waived for an equivalent favor shown to this country. At any rate, it will be a solemn warning to the band of faithful protectionists and subsidizers that they must all stand or fall together; the moment such a baleful thing as a reciprocity treaty is schemed for, away go the subsidies. We should not be much surprised, in fact, if this and other aspects of the Pan-American Congress should deepen and embitter their traditional hatred for everything foreign, and lead them to abandon for ever such entangling trade alliances, with a virtuous resolve to do their own taxing and bounty-giving independent of all the rest of the world.

The *Iron World* of Pittsburgh takes exception to a recent article of ours, in which the statement was made that if there had never been any duty on pig-iron in this country, there would probably have been "such a rapid development of the product of iron in Great Britain as to have led, many years ago, to the exhaustion of the fine ores and the coking coals which is now creating such alarm on that side of the water." The *Iron World* thinks that if this should meet the eye of the iron and coal-producers of Great Britain, they would be vastly amused, be-

cause "the idea that the demand for iron in the past, or any demand that would have been possible under conditions that were at all probable, would have been sufficient to have exhausted the deposits of ores and coking coals in Great Britain, is too absurd for serious thought." The only thing that would amuse the iron and coal-producers of Great Britain more than our article would be an official report made by Joseph D. Weeks of Pittsburgh to the United States Geological Survey, on the Durham coal mines, the chief dependence of England for coke. This report was made in 1886. It pointed out the increasingly distressing conditions of coke production which must soon lead to an excessive cost of that indispensable article. Only four years have passed since Mr. Weeks made his report. And what do we find now? According to the *Iron World* of March 7, the present cost of the coke needed to make one ton of pig-iron in England is $9.31, against $3.24 in Pittsburgh. Whether Mr. Weeks was the editor of the *Iron World* in 1886 or not, we do not know, but we understand that he holds that chair at the present time. As to the rapid exhaustion of fine ores in Great Britain, the last report of the British Iron and Steel Institute contains ample evidence to sustain all that we said on the subject. The *Iron World* discovers that by a slip of the pen we spoke of the cost of pig-iron at the "mines" instead of at the furnaces, and it supplies the information that pig-iron is not dug out of the earth. That is valuable instruction, and we shall hope to profit by it.

Mr. Clarence A. Seward has prepared an opinion on the long-and-short-haul clause and the anti-pooling clause of the Inter-State Commerce Act, holding both to be unconstitutional. It will be remembered that it was by his advice that the Illinois Central refused to join the Inter-State Association a year ago, the ground being that a company could not legally delegate its rate-making powers to an association. Presumably upon request of the same railroad company, Mr. Seward has prepared the present opinion. In its broad features the principle advocated by Mr. Seward is the one laid down by the United States Supreme Court in the Minnesota cases, rendered after the opinion was written. It is that the question of the reasonableness of a railroad rate, or of a law affecting a rate, is a judicial one. A State legislature, and presumably Congress, cannot by arbitrary enactment take from a railroad its right to reasonable charges. Herein the Minnesota law was clearly wrong, in that it provided no machinery for determining such a question of reasonableness. The point urged against the Federal law is somewhat similar, but the analogy does not seem altogether applicable. Directly contrary to the Minnesota law, the Federal act says that the Commission shall investigate rate questions, shall hear both sides, and, after every precaution, shall render a decision. Such decision is not, however, conclusive, as the Minnesota Legislature tried to make the findings of its State Commission, but is *prima-facie* evidence before a court of law. This, it will be noticed, is almost exactly what the United States Supreme Court contends for, and at the same time is in line with the old Granger decisions. As far as this principle is consistently carried out in our present Federal law, apparently its constitutionality would stand a test. A railroad can, if it chooses, carry before a regular judicial tribunal any case decided against it by the Commission, but doubtless it would enter into such a contest with great odds against it.

The decision of the Supreme Court of the United States in the case of the people of the State of New York vs. the Home Insurance Company is of considerable importance in the way of settling one of the vexed questions of taxation. The question before the court was whether a tax on the capital stock of a corporation is a tax on the franchise or a tax on the property and assets. The Court of Appeals of this State has held that it is a tax on the franchise. The Supreme Court of Pennsylvania has held, in a parallel case arising under a similar law, that it is a tax on the property and assets. Now the Supreme Court of the United States holds, in a New York case, that it is a tax on the franchise. Would the same court hold, in a Pennsylvania case arising under a similar law, that it is not a tax on the franchise, but a tax on the property? It is a rule of the Federal Supreme Court, in the interpretation of the statutes of a State, to follow the latest settled decision of the highest tribunal of that State. There is some latitude in the use of the word "settled." The court did, in one case at least, overturn the decision of a State Supreme Court in the interpretation of a State statute, upon finding that the State Court had made two contrary decisions on the same subject-matter, whereupon it was held that the later decision could not be considered a settled decision. Aside from this merely technical phase of the Home Insurance Company's case, the decision is important in establishing the principle that corporations may be taxed in New York on their entire capital stock, without regard to the situation of the property (in this or in other States or foreign countries), and without regard to the kind of property (United States bonds, or whatever else it may be). State comity will suggest that the taxing power be limited to the amount of property actually employed within the State, as our laws do now limit it. But the decision establishes the legal power of this State to tax the Western Union Telegraph Co., for example, on the value of all its lines and plant in every part of the world.

The Indian Rights Association has issued a little pamphlet giving reasons against the proposed removal of the Southern Utes from their present reservation in Colorado. The whole subject simply presents the oft-repeated arguments of white men who now find the lands set apart for certain Indians the object of their own covetousness, and who, accordingly, are taking the usual means to dispossess the Indians of them. The reservation, they say, is too large; it is in the white men's way; the Indians make no progress, and are a burden to their white neighbors; the place to which it is proposed to remove them abounds in game, and is adapted to grazing, and the Indians are willing to move. The reply to all this is, that if the present lands of these Indians are allotted in severalty, they will no longer be an impassable boundary; that one reason why the Indians have not made more progress in civilization is because none of the latest treaty obligations with them have been carried out, leaving the Indians uncertain of their future; and that to place them in a wild region where they will have a temptation to live by the chase will be only still further to postpone their civilization, and subject them to a demand for another removal when the whites again catch up with them. With the little assistance these Indians have received from the Government, they have over 600 acres under cultivation, are learning the art of irrigation, have a school in operation, and give good promise of future advancement. But in the light of the past it is natural to expect that the Indians "must go," and the higher civilization of the boomer, in the shape of stolen claims, three-card monte, saloons, and revolvers, move in to dedicate the land to its new possessors. Such has been the story from the Atlantic westward.

All respectable authorities agree that the first trial of the new Ballot Law of Rhode Island in last week's election was a complete success. There was no trouble anywhere in the State save in the city of Pawtucket, where a slight delay and some uproar were caused by the illegal conduct of the local Democratic Boss, who happens also to be Mayor. He has been a bitter opponent of the law from the outset, and he naturally did his best to prevent its success in practice, but he was not able to accomplish much. He is one of the most unsavory politicians in the State, and rightly looks upon the law as a deadly enemy of his trade. Accounts from all parts of the State say that the election was the quietest and most orderly ever held there, that the usual gangs of "heelers" and "workers" about the polls were not to be seen, that the vote-buyers were thrown out of business, and that everybody was delighted with the new system. There was much delay in counting the vote, due mainly to unfamiliarity with the new form of ballot, and somewhat to the unusual size of the poll, desire to try the new system bringing out a very large vote. Reports from Missouri and Wisconsin, where the Australian system was tried for the first time in municipal elections on April 1, announce similarly successful results in all cases.

The recent municipal election in Milwaukee possessed a national interest because it turned, not upon any of the local issues which alone are appropriate to such a con-

test, but upon a question of general concern to the country—whether education in the English language shall be required in the schools of a State. The Wisconsin Legislature, at its last session, passed, as our readers are aware, what has come to be known as the Bennett law, the vital feature of which was this provision: "No school shall be regarded as a school under this act unless there shall be taught therein, as part of the elementary education of children, reading, writing, arithmetic, and United States history in the English language." The measure attracted no especial attention during the two months that it was pending, and passed each branch almost without opposition. The Germans, however, soon wakened to a perception of the fact that it involved interference with the parochial schools, to which both the Roman Catholics and the Lutherans largely send their children, and the authorities of both these churches sedulously cultivated the spirit of opposition which soon arose. The first skirmish in this fight took place on April 1 and resulted in a victory for the alliance of the Roman Catholic and the Lutheran Church influence with the Democratic machine, which elected its entire ticket by a large majority, although Milwaukee is usually a Republican city. The Democratic managers were already much disposed to make the Bennett law the chief issue in the State contest next fall, when a Governor and a Legislature which will choose a United States Senator are to be elected; and they will now feel confident of equal success in this wider field.

Last year there was a breeze in the political circles of the State of Kansas caused by the suspicion that Prof. Canfield of the State University was not sound on the doctrine of protection. This suspicion became an acknowledged fact after it was inquired into by the faithful regents, and an attempt was made to get rid of Prof. Canfield, or rather to prevent him from being elected Chancellor of the institution, a vacancy in that office having occurred. Three of the five regents were so much disturbed by the prospect that Mr. Canfield's remarkable talents would carry him into the Chancellorship despite his laxity on the tariff question, that they went in great haste to Minneapolis and offered the Chancellorship to the Rev. Mr. Thwing of that city; and in order to make sure of his acceptance of it they added $2,000 to the salary of the office. Mr. Thwing declined the offer, and it was afterwards found out that he also was unsound on the tariff question, being in perfect agreement with Prof. Canfield on that question. Then the laugh was turned on the pilgrim regents. The Chancellorship question is still unsettled, and is now pressing for solution. The Republican politicians, including the Governor of the State, are fighting hard against Canfield. The latter has nothing to commend him except his superior qualifications for the position; and since such men do not grow on every bush, the State is hard put to it to decide the question either way. The difficulties are enhanced by the fact that everybody who is fit for the place agrees with Canfield on the tariff question. If we must have a heretic, why not take Canfield and have done with it?

Choate, the *World* reporter who secreted himself in the Flack jury-room, has been indicted by the Grand Jury for criminal contempt of court under section 143 of the Penal Code, tried, and sentenced to the penitentiary, which will be a salutary thing both for him—for it will certainly have a beneficial effect upon him in after life—and for other young men who are now in the schools of "advanced journalism." The *World* endeavors to rid itself of all responsibility for him by saying that Choate was never instructed by his employers to do what he did, and that the "act was his own, and that there was no collusion or understanding with anybody connected with the *World*." But the *World* accepted the results of his act as its own, and expressed its heartiest approval by printing on the following day, most conspicuously on its first page, his own account of his misdeed, under the title: "With the Flack Jury—A *World* Reporter Listens to Their Talk for Two Hours." That was "collusion" after the act if it was not before. The editor who now throws the reporter overboard and washes his hands of all responsibility for his offence, did not think of doing so on the day after it was committed, and did not feel ashamed of him till he discovered that other people regarded his act as contemptible.

The simple fact is, that Choate, who is a young man, is a victim of the vicious school of journalism of which the *World* is the leading exponent. In the very next column to the report of the Grand Jury's finding in Choate's case, it announced that two prizes of $50 each, which it offered to its out-of-town correspondents for the best-written piece of exclusive news or "beat," had been awarded as follows: One to a correspondent who sent from North Dakota an account of the attempt of one man to shoot another; and the other to a correspondent in Pennsylvania who sent a "short but clear description of an attempted assassination of one brother by another." A school of journalism which bestows its prizes upon accounts of crimes discovered in remote corners of the land, must expect to find its own reporters committing crimes. What surer way for a man to get a "beat" which will draw a prize than to commit his own crime, as Choate did, and then tell his own story of it? Choate's imprisonment will do an incalculable amount of good in showing other pupils in the "school of journalism" which every "advanced" newspaper of to-day is keeping, that the penitentiary is the inevitable goal of the ethics which are taught there. A reporter in Buffalo has just distinguished himself by joining a gang of counterfeiters, and distributing their bogus money with them. That is only one step from joining a gang of burglars in "cracking" a bank, in order to get a "prize beat" of their doings.

The fate of Mr. Balfour's Land Bill seems to be already sealed. There is hardly a chance that it can be carried out. Lord Randolph Churchill's trenchant criticisms on it in the three letters he has been writing on it, appear to be taking firmer and firmer hold of the public mind as the measure receives more examination. It is a most complicated measure, but its main feature is the pledging of the credit of the British Government for $155,000,000 to enable the tenants to purchase the fee of such estates as the landlords are willing to sell, the money to be repaid by the tenants in instalments extending over forty-nine years. But, in aid of this, the grand jury of each county is to appropriate such amount of the county taxes as may be necessary to make good any default made by purchasing tenants in that particular locality. This part alone of the arrangement is sufficient to kill it. For, as no tenants can buy except those whose landlords are willing to sell, the majority of the county taxpayers might be persons who were deriving no benefit from the act whatever, and yet they would be taxed to pay debts incurred by other people under the act. Then there is the possibility, if not probability, pointed out by Lord Randolph Churchill, of repudiation on a great scale as soon as the Government came into direct contact with the tenants as a creditor, for to this end the exertions of the political leaders would undoubtedly be directed, and how the Government could meet it it is hard to say. Mr. Balfour's notion, as well as that of most Englishmen, who, like him, have hardly ever been in Ireland, and know little or nothing about the Irish, is that the home-rule feeling would subside if the land question were settled. No competent observers on the spot believe this for a moment. On the contrary, the more independent the farmers become, like those who have purchased under the Ashbourne Act, the more ardently do they throw themselves into the home-rule movement. The hatred of England and English ways and ideas in Ireland, aggravated by the insulting way of the present Ministry in dealing with Irish questions, is too deep-seated in Ireland to be eradicated by any one measure whatever, or, in fact, by anything but prolonged separation of administration. Ever since concessions first began to be made to the Irish, in 1830, it has been the expectation of English statesmen that each one would kill Irish discontent. The fact has been that the more the Irish got the more they have demanded. There is probably nothing which to-day does so much to aggravate the Irish trouble as English manners, which produce even a worse effect in Ireland than they have done in other parts of the world. The Dutch in Africa strikingly resemble the English in temperament and ideals, and belong to the same faith, but they hate them as bitterly as the Irish do, and with infinitely less reason.

THE TARIFF SCRAMBLE.

THE spectacle which has been presented to the country since the unofficial publication of the Ways and Means Committee's tariff bill not only is calculated to give the general public some insight into "tariffs as they are made," but may serve to throw very instructive light upon two stock arguments bearing on the tariff question, one an anti-reform and the other a reform argument.

Whenever a measure of tariff-reduction is proposed, a great cry is raised of disturbance to established industries. Indeed, this cry contains about the only plea that has any real validity, which the advocates of our present tariff can urge. There are thousands upon thousands of voters who would not dream of advocating the imposition of the incongruous and monstrous pile of tariff taxes which we are now living under, if it were proposed as a new thing, but who are convinced that it is better to suffer it than run the risk of the disasters that might follow a disturbance of the established course of industry and trade. To how great an extent this thoughtful and honest body of men hold the balance of power in the present condition of parties, it may be difficult to determine; that their number is very considerable cannot be disputed.

What are these men to think of the security to established interests which the present régime affords, when they see the manufacturers of leather goods and the silk-manufacturers rushing to Washington in dismay at the danger with which their protectionist guardians threaten them? Hides were put on the free list in 1872 by a Republican and protectionist Congress. The manufacturers of shoes and other leather goods have adjusted their business upon a basis of free hides. Nobody has ever pretended that the abolition of the duty on hides caused any considerable hardship to anybody. And now, suddenly, without any change in industrial conditions, without any public agitation, without the assignment of any principle of action, the Committee on Ways and Means propose the reimposition of a duty on hides, to the consternation of the manufacturers, who, if they had a right to expect stability in anything, had a right to expect it in the case of a raw material which had remained eighteen years on the free list, and had been put there by a protectionist Congress. The silver-lead smelters, the rope-makers, the cigar-makers, the carpet-manufacturers are in much the same case, and that of the canners and other users of tin plates is still more outrageous. Who can tell how many small canning establishments, employing in the aggregate thousands and thousands of hands, may have to be closed if the duty on tin-plate, already high, should be more than doubled, as is proposed? We shall not enter upon a discussion of special points; we are now only concerned in pointing out that here are six—and these are not all—important established industries crying out against the disasters that threaten them, not from a lowering of duties, but from a wanton imposition or increase of them, in pursuance of no demand outside of a lobby, for the benefit of industries which cannot claim that any circumstances injuriously affecting them justify a change, and, in the case of tin-plate at least, for the support of an industry which has as yet no existence.

It is at this moment doubtful what impression may be made upon our legislators by the emphatic protests of the great organized interests which are threatened by the proposed increase of duties. If Massachusetts were as doubtful a State as Connecticut, there can be no question that the shoe-men would be able to protect their interests against the assault of the ranch-men. The fortunes of war have been swaying from the one side to the other ever since the first rumor of the Committee's bill appeared. Not the most brazen apologist of our tariff system can pretend that the question with the Committee has been anything but a question of "pulls": the side that has the most complete command of "a long pull, a strong pull, and a pull all together," will win.

And this brings us to the other argument to which we alluded. If organized manufacturing interests—interests in whose behalf the tariff is instituted—find such difficulty in making head against injurious exactions, is it not plain that the great body of the people can make no impression at all upon tariff legislation, as long as it is dominated by the present ultra-protectionist spirit? It is of the very essence of this legislation for special interests that the general interest cannot get a hearing at all. If the shoe-men and the silk-men raise such a piteous cry when it is proposed to put a duty on their raw materials, how many hundreds of thousands of men, in scores of smaller industries, have been bearing like burdens in silence? We are not saying a word about the despised consumer. We are talking about producers, who are hampered in their production by the duties laid on wood and iron, and copper and chemicals, and dye-stuffs and salt, just as the shoe-men would be hampered by a duty on hides. If it was ever difficult to see the absolute hopelessness of the smaller and less organized interests securing fair consideration in the tariff scramble, the blindest must be convinced of it in following the history of this most recent phase.

And, after all, perhaps a word might be said as to the position of those whose interests are affected by the tariff chiefly through its enhancement of the cost of the articles of their consumption. They cannot, in the nature of the case, be as intensely interested in having the tariff reduced as the representatives of special interests are in having it raised. So familiar to our protectionist friends has the idea become that no interest is worth mentioning which does not send a delegation to Congress to insist upon its recognition, that actually it was seriously argued by a member of the House, in the tariff debate of 1888, that the duty on steel pens should not be reduced because the consumers of steel pens had not petitioned for relief! And this pernicious notion, so deeply planted in our tariff legislation since 1861, can never be got rid of except by a radical change of front on the tariff question. Tariff-reformers do not propose to smash the protected industries; we believe we are strictly accurate in saying that not a single important manufacture was threatened by the Mills bill with anything comparable to the injury which the Ways and Means Committee's first proposal as to hides would bring upon manufacturers of leather. But the Mills bill, and the whole movement inaugurated by Mr. Cleveland, do involve that radical change of front which is required in order to give a hearing to the people who have no chance in the present tussle of personal and party interests. No party will be either willing or able to undertake the destruction of the great interests that have grown up under the tariff; but the party of tariff reform is bound, by the very nature of its position, to consider the needs of the whole people first and the claims of special interests afterwards, while the present high-tariff party is irretrievably committed to the policy of dispensing favors to those who have the most, in votes or money, to offer in return.

THE TAMMANY SOCIETY.

ON Thursday last the *Evening Post* printed a collection of biographical sketches of the chiefs of Tammany Hall, constituting what has been called "the new Tammany that people know not of." All possible pains were taken to make it accurate, although, of course, in the case of men leading, as so many of these do, vicious subterranean lives, complete accuracy is difficult to attain, except when they get into the hands of justice and some episode in their career is described in court records. Moreover, a great deal in the history of these men which would be most useful in throwing light on their characters and aims, is absolutely unfit for the columns of a respectable newspaper. One consequence of this is, that many of the sketches present the hero of the tale in a much more favorable light than is justly his due. Moreover, twenty-eight of the Executive Committee whose memoirs appeared in the *Evening Post* are merely the picked men of Tammany—those who have made their way to the front by some display of energy or force, and thus have come under public observation. A similar exploration expended on the "General Committee," which numbers about 3,598 members—the largest committee in the world—would reach still lower depths, and produce much more repulsive results.

On this Executive Committee there is but one member who can be fairly called a man of education, and who has any professional or business relations whatever with the respectable portion of the community and pursues any decent calling. The rest live wholly on the city, and, when thrown out of its service by any turn in the political wheel of fortune, return to some disreputable occupation, such as liquor-dealing or gambling, or else are maintained by "divvies" wrung from men still in office. About nothing is Tammany more particular than the compulsory division of salaries and fees, so as to make the money go as far as possible among the Boys. Nearly

every Tammany official has to divide with others his wages or his blackmail. The deputy sheriffs, for instance, had in some cases to divide their "extra compensation" with four persons, not including the "retaining fee" of thirty-five dollars a month paid to their "counsel," the learned and vivacious Cockran. Where the chiefs have large families, and the "divvies" are inadequate for their support, great pains are taken to quarter their relations on the municipal service. Their daughters or sisters are imposed as teachers on the School Trustees, and their sons get on the pay-rolls as "laborers" or "inspectors" or watchmen. In fact, the art of getting a living out of the city, as practised by Tammany men, is extremely complicated and abstruse, and can only be learned by actual practice in the Tammany ranks. It would furnish abundant materials for a large manual, and is full of amusing and ingenious surprises for any outsider who looks into it. What makes it all the more wonderful as a social phenomenon is, that nearly all those who practise it with most success are illiterate or ignorant men, who have never followed any regular calling. We presume Gilroy and Cockran and Purroy are the only members of the Executive Committee who can write an English note with any approach to correctness.

There is nothing very new about all this, but most of it seems to have been forgotten by the respectable portion of the New York public of both parties during the past year. It was very well known, during the Tweed and Kelly régime, that the Tammany Society had long ceased to be a political organization in any proper sense of that term—that is, an association for the spread of any particular set of political opinions, or for producing co-operation in anything that could be called political agitation. Political ideas utterly perished in Tammany thirty years ago, when Tweed got in the ascendant before the war. All interest in public questions of any description has been extinct in the organization. There is no pretence whatever of keeping it alive. None of the members occupy themselves with any legislation, except what creates salaried offices and contracts in this city, to be got hold of either by capture at the polls or "deals" with the Republican politicians here or in Albany. When such legislation has been successful, the only thing in connection with it which Tammany leaders consider is how the salaries shall be divided, and what "assessments" the places or contracts can stand. If any decent outsider could make his way into the inner conferences at which these questions are settled, he would hear, not grave discussion of the public interests, how to keep streets clean, or how to repave them, or how to light them, or how to supply the city with water, but stories of drunken or amorous adventure, larded freely with curious and original oaths, ridicule of reformers and "silk-stockinged" people generally, abuse of "kickers," and examination of the claims of gamblers, liquor-dealers, and pugilists to more money out of the public treasury. In fact, as we have had of late frequent occasion to observe, the Society is simply an organization of clever adventurers, most of them in some degree criminal, for the control of the ignorant and vicious vote of the city in an attack on the property of the taxpayers. There is not a particle of politics in the concern any more than in any combination of Western brigands to "hold up" a railroad train and get at the express packages. Its sole object is plunder in any form which will not attract the immediate notice of the police.

The nature and objects of the organization have acquired more importance during the past year than any year since Tweed's downfall, for two reasons. One is, that the way in which the "Big Four" got hold of the Mayoralty, the Commissionership of Public Works, and the Corporation Counsel's office last year, and succeeded in imposing themselves on the public as conscientious reformers and Tammany men of an entirely new type, shows that the organization has now in it, or behind it (more probably the latter), considerably more brains and dexterity than has been at its service for a long while, if ever. As illustrations of this we may mention, at the risk of boring our readers with an old story, the remarkable way in which public support was enlisted for their scheme of a World's Fair and their plan of rapid transit, each of which promised an enormous addition either to the prestige or the funds of the Society, and the curious social success achieved for a short time by the Mayor, in spite of his ignorance and vulgarity. The other reason is the greatly increased power lodged in the Mayor's hands since 1884 by the statute giving him the absolute power of appointment. We believed, as did most people at the time, that this act would impress the decent and intelligent voters of this city with the enormous importance of the Mayoral election, and the absolute necessity, therefore, of keeping out of the Mayoral chair any active Tammany politician, in good standing, by the union at municipal elections of all the industrious classes possessing real interest in the comfort, peace, and prosperity of the city. That this expectation was not fulfilled was doubtless due to Republican infatuation about the Presidential election in 1888. Anything to win the Presidency and "keep the party together" in the city, was their motto, and they accordingly put Erhardt in the field as "a running mate to Grant," to use "Johnny" Brodsky's happy simile. We cannot help believing, however, that we are all at this moment learning a great lesson, that the real nature of the Tammany organization is being brought home to the present generation in a way that will eventually work the deliverance of the city from this extraordinary menace both to liberty and property. What to call it one hardly knows. In fact, it is both a social and political novelty.

WHO IS RESPONSIBLE FOR TAMMANY?

It would be nearly as absurd to say that the Paris Commune was a fair specimen of what France can do in the way of self-government as (what Col. Hawkins contends in a letter to the *Evening Post*) that Tammany rule in this city was a fair specimen of what home rule would be in Ireland. The Irish in Ireland have never elected a corresponding class of men to any public offices, and the existence of an association like Tammany would not, we think, be possible in any Irish city. Every city in every civilized country contains a large body of persons, like the present Tammany chiefs, who would, of course, be delighted to get the city government into their hands and gut the treasury. London, Paris, Berlin, and Vienna all contain them by tens of thousands. Why do they not succeed? Because the decent and industrious majority will not suffer it; because, if there were any sign of it, men of all classes and conditions would unite against them *en masse*, all other business and excuses being laid aside, and save their civilization.

In fact, Mr. Hawkins disposes himself of his attack on both the Irish and the Catholics by the account he gives at the close of his letter of the behavior of the rest of this community in the presence of these Tammany exposures. People who cannot be roused into indignant activity by such biographies as were printed on Thursday, and whose whole press observes dead "journalistic" silence about them, must of course bear a large part of the responsibility for the existence of such "vermin" as were described. It is about as foolish to blame the Crokers and Gilroys and Grants for being what they are and doing what they do, as to blame tigers for killing oxen, and foxes chickens. Wise men who find their cattle or poultry disappearing under the ravages of beasts of prey, do not content themselves with saying: "Well, that's just like tigers"; or, "What better can you expect from foxes?" They set traps and they take their guns, lie in wait for the marauders, and polish them off and nail their hides to the barn door. The truth is, that everybody who has paid much attention to the problem of municipal government in this city is thoroughly tired of the "ignorant foreigner" explanation of our troubles. That the presence of a large body of ignorant foreign voters makes good government in New York more difficult, there is no denying, but it does not necessarily or readily hand over the control of the city to such a set of people as compose the Executive Committee of the Tammany Society. If the better class of voters, the industrious, intelligent class, chose to treat city affairs as business in the strict sense of the term, and refused, when dealing with them, to allow their attention to be distracted by Federal or State affairs, this band of pugilists, gamblers, and liquor-dealers would never get near the municipal treasury. Good people, whether native or foreign, Catholic or Protestant, are, after all, in the majority among us, and if they were always sensible as well as good, the gates of hell could not prevail against them.

Let us take as illustrations of this the returns of the three Mayoral elections which have taken place since the Mayor was given absolute power of appointment—which we

consider a turning-point in our municipal history.

In 1884 the Republicans, knowing that Tammany was going to put this same "Hughy" Grant in the field against Grace, who was running as an Independent, nominated the Wicked Gibbs as their candidate. The result was: Gibbs, 44,386; Grace, 96,288; Grant, 85,361. Add Gibbs's vote to Grace's, and we have a majority over Tammany of 55,313.

In 1886 Henry George's candidacy introduced a new element into the struggle, which we may call the socialistic element, to which a considerable portion of the dangerous class rallied. It was plain to all friends of good government that the election of Hewitt, who, though the Tammany candidate, was a distinguished and trustworthy citizen, was very important, and that he was the only candidate who had any chance at all against George. Well, what happened? The Republicans insisted on running a candidate of their own in the person of Mr. Theodore Roosevelt, simply to "keep the party together," and, as he confessed when the canvass was over, without any expectation of winning. The result was: Roosevelt 60,435, Hewitt 90,552, George 68,110. Add the Roosevelt vote to Hewitt's, and we have a majority of 82,877 over George.

In 1888 we witnessed the same process. Hewitt was again in the field as the candidate of the orderly, industrious classes of the community, as opposed to Grant, the candidate of Tammany, with all that the term implies. Hewitt had shown faults of temper and judgment, it is true, but he was well known to the community as a man of high character, of long experience, and of endowments which made him an honor to the city and country. About Grant very little was known, and that little not good. All the presumptions were against him, and he was surrounded and backed by the Tammany "vermin." What happened? The Republicans, well knowing what the risks were, again insisted on running a hopeless candidate of their own in the person of Mr. Erhardt. The result was: Erhardt 73,037, Hewitt 71,979, Grant 114,111. If we add Erhardt's vote to Hewitt's, we have a majority of 30,907 over Grant. Who is then to blame for our shame—the tiger which eats the bullock because it is his nature to eat bullocks, or the farmer who, knowing the tiger is lurking in the thicket, and is constantly hungry, keeps his bullocks constantly exposed in the open pasture, and, when he finds their bones, simply loads the tiger with abuse?

THE COST OF RETAILING FOOD.

In his March report the statistician of the Department of Agriculture enters into a general discussion of the causes of the agricultural depression. Some of the reasons given are true ones and others need closer examination. Towards the end of the report he says: "The increasing swarm of dealers in regular markets and provision stores show that numbers of people are living off the difference between wholesale and retail beef"; and in general terms it is stated that one cause of low prices to the farmer is the exorbitant profits to the middlemen, the farmers being on one page advised to retail their own fruits and vegetables in cities, sell their own meats, and manufacture their own flour.

It is probable that Mr. Dodge, the statistician, wrote his report without a detailed study of the cost of doing the things he advised. As far as the retail dealer in foods is concerned, it is not true as a general statement that he is making large profits. In one place Mr. Dodge gives milk as an instance of this because that article, yielding the farmer but three cents, is sold to the consumer at eight cents per quart. But a knowledge of the cost of distributing milk throughout the city would have shown that a margin of five cents per quart yields but a moderate profit to the milkman. So the assertion that butchers and grocers are growing rich at the expense of the farmer is equally without foundation. As to grocers who deal out sugar and similar articles by the pound, it is found that an average gross profit of 16 per cent. leaves but a small net result, so great is the loss by division of packages into fractional amounts, by the large space of store-room required to do a business comparatively small in the aggregate of the sales, and by the cost of messengers and wagons to deliver at houses the numberless small purchases.

In like manner the retailers of meat are not getting rich as fast as Mr. Dodge thinks. For example, a first-class dealer in Brooklyn furnished to the *American Grocer* the following as the receipts from a steer:

Product.	Pounds.	Price per pound, cts.	Amount
Top sirloin	20	12½	$2 50
Porterhouse steak	45	23	10 35
Sirloin	60	18	10 80
Kidneys	2	12	24
Shanks	28	4½	1 26
Neck	45	6	2 70
Shoulder for soup	18	5	90
Shin	20	3	60
Round steak	88	12	10 56
Rump corned beef	32	12	3 84
Flank	20	10	2 00
Plate corned beef	110	5½	6 05
Rib	60	16	9 60
Chuck rib	106	10	10 60
Cross rib	39	12	4 68
Fat	35	3	1 05

Total amount received, $77.73; cost of steer, 760 pounds, $53.20; gross profit from animal, $24.52. From this gross profit must be deducted all expenses of store and service. The same dealer furnished the following as the average of five weeks' sales in January and February: Amount of sales, $745.14; gross profit, $122.61; expenses of store, $49.76; net profit, $72.85. From this must be deducted the rent and the expenses of delivery. Excluding these, the profit is about 10 per cent., or, with these items, about 8 per cent. upon the gross sales. Neither the risks of the business nor interest on capital is taken into the above account. Statistics of retailing meat will vary in different cities and in different parts of the same city. In spite of Prof. Atwater's scientific demonstrations of the nutritive value of the poorer cuts, it is a fact that butchers often have great difficulty in disposing of the lower grades of meat at any price. Poor people buy the expensive portions, and will take no other, sometimes to please their palates and sometimes from the notion that laborers should have the best of food. All this helps to account for the fact that the prices for the better parts of the carcass do not vary at retail with the fluctuations in the value of the live steer.

As regards our system of distributing food to families, it may be said that the apparent high cost arises from the fact that we are still pursuing the same methods as did our fathers. In every other line of business there have been marked changes reducing cost, but not so in retailing. We continue, as of old, to buy starch, sugar, and beef in small quantities daily from the corner store, and to pay a very large percentage of advance upon the wholesale price of these articles. The report alluded to cites a case thus: "The poor are robbed still further when a commodity costs 25 cents a peck, by a charge of 15 cents for half-a-peck, which is a clear penalty of 20 per cent. for buying in small quantities. Thus by every imaginable trick of trade the cost of buying is increased, while the producer gets less and less for his products." It is not clear how this extra five cents is any loss to the producer whose troubles are under consideration, though the loss to the poor buyer is apparent enough. Yet this case is not as bad as the peddler of coal who buys a ton for $5, and sells to the poor, say, at 50 cents a bushel (80 pounds), thus more than doubling his money. Perhaps we may at some distant day invent a method which will reduce the enormous cost of distributing household supplies to families. But it is not yet in sight. The railroads will carry a barrel of flour from Minneapolis to New York for 65 cents, while the storekeeper adds to his wholesale price the same sum or more for delivering at your door. The one represents a reduction in charges for a long carriage of 1,400 miles which is a modern wonder; the other represents a cost which stands as high as ever it did. Yet the storekeeper is not extortionate; there are too many competing shops to allow that. It is not the man but the method which is at fault. And so Mr. Dodge is wrong in his general conclusion that the retailer is accumulating profits which should go to the farmer.

FIRST IMPRESSIONS OF PARLIAMENT.

LONDON, March 26, 1890.

THE wider interests of the inhabitants of these islands centre so much in the proceedings of Parliament that it is not without a certain feeling of daze that an Irishman finds himself walking up the floor of the House of Commons, pronouncing the oath or affirmation, as the case may be, subscribing the roll, shaking hands with the Speaker, and taking his seat. A few days after my introduction, an ex-

perienced member asked what were my first impressions, and advised me to note them down while still fresh, as they would soon be lost in later associations.

To begin with the chamber itself. At first it struck me as small and sombre; but its appropriateness and beauty have grown upon me from day to day, and my dominant feeling has been that it was designed for, and is fitted to be, an arena for the discussion of more important affairs than those I have heard generally discussed there, and for the display of nobler motives and passions than what usually there find expression. It is panelled throughout in dark oak. The ornamentation is rich and chaste. The pendent posts are particularly beautiful. It is lighted by clere-story windows emblazoned with the arms of the three kingdoms; at night by electric lights through a stained-glass ceiling. The side galleries, usually unoccupied, are reserved for members. That opposite the Speaker is for visitors; above him is one for the reporters (it is interesting to observe the regularity with which they relieve each other every quarter of an hour). Behind and above the reporters a grating conceals the gallery for ladies; you can distinguish here and there a light-colored fan or dress and the notice-papers of the day held by many. Outside the chamber on the ground floor run the division lobbies, and above, on a level with the galleries, are writing and reading lobbies and lavatories, all panelled and ceiled in oak. There are in the division lobbies open fire-places, besides the other means of heating.

It is in keeping with the general inconsistency of the British Constitution and the somewhat "first come first served" principle upon which British society is based, that there are not, nor ever were, seats for more than 450 of the 670 members. Nor are there in the outer lobbies sufficient lockers for holding books, papers, and personal belongings. A new member has generally to wait several months before he can get one. The chamber, the division lobbies, and the gallery corridors constitute the House proper. The stately libraries, the well-appointed refreshment-rooms, the cosey reading and tea-rooms soon become familiar. The appointments are of the completest; every possible place is carpeted, and scrupulous cleanliness and order prevail, without stiffness or constraint. There is not, except in the smoking-room in the basement and in the cloak-room, a trace of the use of tobacco. The cloak-room is an interesting old cloister, in one corner of which Cromwell signed Charles the First's death warrant. Here now fires burn brightly, the latest telegrams are displayed, and civil policemen come forward to take your coat and umbrella, and outside the door a little shoe-black plies his trade. From the Speaker and clerks at the table to the neat girls who wait in the tea-room, I have seen nothing but fair dealing and politeness. The refreshments are good and cheap and well served. There are three dining-rooms opening into each other, overlooking the Thames, with the same tariff and arrangements; one is left by courtesy to Cabinet and ex-Cabinet Ministers, another reserved for members only; to the third you can invite gentlemen for whom you have procured orders. Members can take ladies anywhere when the House is not sitting, and, during sittings, to the corridors, a special refreshment-room and the terrace, all without orders. For gentlemen orders are required, and it is one of a member's trials to be handed, perhaps in the middle of an interesting debate, a card from a friend in the outer lobby, seeking an interview and admission. The dynamite scare led to increased strictness regarding the admission of strangers, but this strictness has so relieved members from interruption that, dynamite or no dynamite, they do not desire to revert to previous customs. You have free entrance to the House of Lords, and it is an anomaly that while there is some trouble in procuring by written order places for your friends, male and female, to hear the debates in your own House, you can, simply by asking leave of "Black Rod," an urbane old gentleman, take them into the House of Lords, where, while ladies are allowed chairs, you and your male visitors must stand. The Lords' chamber is gorgeously fitted up as compared to the Commons; the effect is none the less harmonious and pleasing.

The distinction between the "House" and the premises generally is curiously shown in the stationery of all descriptions with which you are freely supplied. That on the writing-tables in division lobbies and gallery lobby is stamped "House of Commons"; that in the libraries, "House of Commons, Library." On the writing-tables the old and new are mingled: the envelopes are gummed, and steel pens are at hand; but for the most part the pens are quill, there being knives to mend them; trays of wafers are provided, and lighted tapers to enable you to give dignity to your correspondence by appropriate House of Commons seals. There is a post and telegraph office in the centre hall, where you receive your letters. Telegrams are taken to members in their seats. All is stillness and quiet throughout the House and its surroundings; but for the presence of humanity, you could, as it is said, "hear a pin drop." There is nothing to suggest the hidden world below ministering to your health and comfort—a strange, weird, underground labyrinth of passages and halls: the 1,000-horse-power boilers generating steam for heating and cooking; the six or eight steam and gas engines; the furnaces for creating draughts and ventilating; the array of delicate electrical appliances. The same order and cleanliness that reign above prevail in the lower regions. The ventilation is carefully watched and regulated according to the number of members in the House. Telegraphs communicate with the attendants in charge of the openings in the roof. The air is filtered in from below through calico screens; during fog, through a large surface of cotton wool, six inches thick, and imperceptibly introduced into the House through a netted floor-cloth. In summer the air is drawn in over blocks of ice and through water-sprays. The man in charge immediately below can hear every word that is said. I remarked that he had a notice-paper on his desk and a 'Parliamentary Guide' beside him, so that he could intelligently follow the course of the debate and know something of the speakers.

So much for the surroundings. Except to prominent members by courtesy, no one has a place of his own on the comfortable leather "benches." Naturally you fall into a particular seat among your party. It is strange and somewhat provoking that the "Liberal Unionists," ardent supporters of the present Government, continue to sit with the Opposition. If a member wish to secure a seat for the day, he must be a good boy and attend prayers, when he may write his name on a card headed "Prayers," and attach it to his selected place, or he may leave his hat to pray for him with his card on it, and come in at leisure after prayers and claim the seat. The comparatively empty benches in the House of Commons, where all present at least appear to listen, must be more easily addressed than assemblies where members sit behind desks and can, if they like, read or write without heeding you. The respect apparently shown to the table or Speaker's chair is curious. We can understand bowing to the Speaker, or even to the mace, as the emblem of royalty, but it is grotesque to see the Speaker, with his mace-bearer and chaplain, while marching in at the opening of proceedings, repeatedly, as though oppressed with reverence, bowing to the empty chair. The obligation laid on the chaplain after prayers to back out of the House, bowing, cap in hand, is very objectionable.

The proceedings are of surpassing interest. There are often dreary enough days and nights; but you always enter the House aware that perhaps unexpectedly, and on some side issue, an important debate may arise—a question of vital consequence to millions of the human race may be considered. Within the past fortnight there have been some charming interruptions to ordinary debate, such as a disquisition by Sir George Trevelyan on the delights of summer in the country, and one by Mr. Bryce, anent rights-of-way, on Scotch scenery and travel. The chaotic and demoralized conduct of public affairs is striking. That this great empire is carried on even as well as it is under the present system shows the high average capacity and honesty of the workers. As things are, there can be no effectual general inquiry or general control. The most voluminous reports and papers are supplied. You can almost tell the cost to the country of each fresh bolt that is screwed into a ship of war, each brick laid in a Government building, the wages of each scullery-maid and messenger-boy in every Government department. But when actually before the House, the work must be slurred.

The proceedings are utterly disproportionate. I have heard millions voted away for the army, without inquiry, in ten minutes, by a dozen members; I have seen the House crowded and excited and the Ministry defeated in a division on a question as to whether a foot-bridge should or should not be erected over a certain new piece of railway. I have listened to interminable discussions about minute details of Irish prison discipline. Obviously the present state of things cannot continue. The exaggerations and misrepresentations of newspaper correspondents regarding the character and appearance, the speeches, abilities, and intentions of individuals on both sides of the House, recur to me, in face of the reality, as sad and sorry reading. The key of the situation seems to me to lie in the hands of the Irish party. Imbued as they are with intense earnestness and convictions, it would, I think, be impossible for any rules or arrangements to prevent their worrying and paralyzing the House by the discussion of their own needs and reducing all its business to confusion and ineptitude. The House in the attempt has spent some twelve years and abandoned some of its most cherished privileges and customs; in the midst of the change, if not ruin, the power of the Irish party remains practically undiminished.

A word in conclusion as to Mr. Parnell, one of the most interesting figures in the struggle. I had not seen him for many years. He is visibly older. His figure has attained a certain middle-aged heaviness. He looks pale—perhaps hardly delicate. His smile has all its former sweetness. I have seen him only once in the House. He entered quietly, stood for a few minutes watching the proceedings from behind the chair of the Sergeant-at-Arms, and then took his seat. The manner in which he folded his hands and held his head slightly bent forward, his whole pose and demeanor,

were those of a man who had suffered, and endured, and waited, and upon whom experiences had told heavily. D. B.

BARRIÈRE'S BALZAC.

PARIS, March 21, 1890.

I WAS reading a few days ago the new book of Zola's, the 'Bête Humaine,' and after I had gone through it it seemed to me that I had had a long nightmare. This new work professes to describe the railway world from stoker to director; it gives life even to the engine, it takes us, at an enormous speed, through evanescent landscapes and dark tunnels; and darker still are the souls of the men and women who live on the line, or near the line; darker are their loves, interrupted at all times, spasmodic and agitated—darker are their jealousies, and hatreds, and instincts. Never has Zola been so unmerciful to human nature, so severe upon the natural man hidden in each of us, the prehistoric man of the caves, whom he pretends to see still in the modern man.

Is each generation to have now a new "Comédie humaine," to use Balzac's title? If so, what a distance there is already between the world of Balzac and the world of Zola! I made this comparison while perusing a compendious study, by M. Marcel Barrière, called 'The Work of Balzac: a Literary and Philosophical Study of the Comédie humaine.' Here is a real devotee of our greatest novelist. His analysis contains no less than 502 octavo pages; it is a great work in itself. M. Barrière dedicates it to M. Paul Bourget, our most subtle analyzer of passion, a novelist who professes to be a psychologist.

In his preface, which is a long study of the relations of the philosophy of each epoch and its romantic literature, M. Barrière gives us the genesis of his book. On the 3d of November, 1887, he was coming out of the French Theatre, where he had heard Musset's delightful comedy, "On ne badine pas avec l'Amour." His eyes fell, in the great staircase, on the bust of Balzac. "Like the faces of Mirabeau and of Bonaparte, Balzac's face bears the marks of the greatest convulsions of the soul. His forehead and the three vertical lines which separate his eyes, as in a lion's head, show the indomitable energy of genius, as well as the infinite of the human soul." M. Barrière fell into a sort of contemplation, and one by one the familiar characters of Balzac appeared before him. He soon found himself alone, and he had a sort of hallucination: it seemed to him that Balzac's face had become alive, that his mouth was really smiling, that his eyes were really turned on him.

The vision followed him as he found at home the 'Peau de Chagrin,' by Balzac, the "grand homme de province à Paris," open on his table. He began to study Balzac as he would have studied some great philosophical work. The "Comédie humaine" is divided into three parts: "Studies of Manners," "Philosophical Studies," and "Analytic Studies." To each of these groups of stories M. Barrière has added an introduction. The "Studies of Manners" (manners is not the exact word for *mœurs*, but I find no other), are themselves subdivided into Scenes from Private Life, from Provincial Life, from Parisian Life, from Political, Military, and Country Life; and each of these subdivisions has been made the theme of a special study by M. Barrière, who has besides analyzed, with some detail, each individual story. His volume is, therefore, somewhat like a book of natural history, where you find subdivisions of classes, families, genus, and species. The author treats society like a sort of fauna, and he devotes special chapters to the women of Balzac; for he justly observes that the study of woman must complete the study of man, especially with a writer who has created so many and such admirable feminine characters.

Balzac was the true creator of what we now call realism. He always took his characters from real life. His influence in this respect on all modern literature is undeniable. Some modern writers have gone further, and have founded a new school, under the name of naturalism; but they seem to be bent only on describing what is bad, low, repugnant, and hideous in nature. Balzac is nearer the truth: he shows us perpetually the contrast between virtue and vice, between egotism and self-sacrifice, between beauty and ugliness; he may be compared to the sun, which throws its rays on everything. The universality of his observation has sometimes brought on him the reproach of immorality; it never seemed to me that he deserved this reproach. I would not recommend, of course, the reading of Balzac's novels to a young and inexperienced person. The exhibition of many impure pictures, necessary in a "human comedy," might inspire dangerous thoughts and temptations in a young mind. But to a man of the world—one who has already been tossed on the waves of life—the reading of Balzac may be profitable. The author is always conscious of the morality or the immorality of his heroes. He preaches no sermons, but he shows us, in the most dramatic form, the dangers of each passion; he fills us with alarm, with awe, with horror; he touches also with an extraordinary force the chord of pity; and is not pity the last word of the science of life, a science so dearly acquired by all? A supreme and religious pity for all sufferers, whatever be the cause of their suffering, is the lesson constantly taught by Balzac; nobody has ever spoken more eloquently of the sublimity of self-sacrifice; his finest characters are men and women who have completely ceased to live for themselves, who live for another—a father, a husband, a wife, a child—or who live for a mere idea.

How different are our modern "naturalists." Surely, the author of the "Comédie humaine" would disavow many of them. They do not write in the same spirit as Balzac, even as George Sand, Stendhal, Mérimée; they do not even imitate Flaubert and the Goncourts, though the Goncourts and the author of "Madame Bovary" may be called the fathers of the new school. The type of the most modern naturalists is, for instance, this book, 'Nos Sous-offs' (Our Non-Commissioned Officers), by M. Descaves. His work has been prosecuted for immorality and as an insult to the French Army. M. Descaves was acquitted by the jury, and very justly, because his work is no more indecent than a hundred others; but it must be said that the present current of our romantic literature is very muddy. Even the *Revue des Deux Mondes* has been lately publishing novels which its founder, if he were still alive, would have rejected with horror and contempt. The whole tone of society is changed. The illustrated papers, with their engravings; the society papers, with their gossip, have corrupted the public taste. Even our walls, with their flaming advertisements, have been mirrors of immorality.

The naturalism of the present time is not at all the realism of Balzac: his "Human Comedy" shows us all the aspects of human existence. This title was not chosen by Balzac himself, but by his friend the Marquis Auguste de Belloy, who invented it in contrast to the "Divine Comedy" of Dante. The first title given by Balzac to a collection of works which appeared from 1833 to 1837 was "Studies of Manners in the Eighteenth Century." Balzac was, I believe, the first novelist who dared to represent the modern power of capital. The struggle for life becomes in many of his books the struggle for money. How could he have painted his time exactly if he had not shown the increasing influence of Mammon? Grandet, in the 'Scenes from Provincial Life,' and Gobseck, in the 'Scenes from Parisian Life,' are types of misers which cannot be forgotten.

Balzac well understood that the same passion may be inspired by entirely different motives, and I do not think that any moralist before him had shown this truth with as much precision. Avarice may be inspired by the most noble motives, as well as the most ignoble; ambition proceeds also from very different motives. Balzac shows us three types of ambitious young men in Albert Savarus, in Lucien de Rubempré, in Rastignac. The first is ambitious because he wishes to win the love of a noble woman; the second, for love of poetry; the third, who is more of a positivist, for love of money, of comfort, of power. In the 'Peau de Chagrin,' Balzac touches the highest summit of philosophy; he shows us the inanity of all human desire—desire feeding, so to speak, on itself, always satisfied, and always tired of the object on which it has been allowed to prey. It is a long commentary on Solomon's "Vanitas vanitatum et omnia vanitas."

There is a side to Balzac which has always surprised me, and on which M. Barrière has not sufficiently dwelt: it is what may be called the Rabelaisian side—what some would call the *gaulois* side. The disciple of Rabelais does not appear often in the great novels, though you meet him there at times; he is especially found in the 'Contes drolatiques,' which are a clever imitation of the stories of our old *conteurs*, and in the 'Physiologie du Mariage,' which is a long, and, in my opinion, a somewhat monotonous and fatiguing satire on the institution of marriage. The gayety of Balzac—a broad sort of gayety—has left its mark in the conversations which take place during the orgies of his young heroes, his journalists, his poets, his actresses, and courtesans; you can see also a trace of it in the childish pleasure with which he narrates in some novels the practical jokes played by some of his secondary characters.

M. Barrière has many pages on Balzac's style, which has been much criticised. The editor of a paper once said to Balzac, in looking with him over some proof-sheets, "Really, this is not French." "But," said Balzac, "it will become French." It has not become French; and, much as we may admire the power of invention and the genius of our greatest novelist, we cannot much recommend his style. It is too laborious, too intricate. Though few men have written so much, he always wrote with effort. His analyses are often painfully long; but one gets accustomed to these elaborate developments, and one has at times the same delightful sensations as the traveller who has been climbing a mountain, and who finds a beautiful view at the summit. M. Barrière compares Balzac, in this respect, to Saint-Simon, and the comparison is a just one. Who has not been fatigued in reading the memoirs of Saint-Simon, and who has ever regretted having read them? Who has not found himself richer for having gone through them? "Le style c'est l'homme," said Buffon. Balzac's moral nature was evidently very complex; he united in himself, and his correspondence shows it well, an exquisite sensibility and a certain

coarseness; he was humble and proud; he was a man of genius and a child. On the whole, we cannot help loving him, and we must ever be grateful to him.

Correspondence.

REPRESSION OF SOCIALISTS IN GERMANY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of February 27, under the heading "The Aim of the German Socialists," the following occurs:

"The importance of the victories the Socialists have won in Germany can hardly be appreciated without remembering that they have been denied the use of the ordinary electoral machinery; that is to say, they cannot hold public meetings or publicly distribute documents. . . . They have, therefore, been obliged to resort to such odd means of canvassing as writing the names of their candidates in chalk on the walls of houses and on the sidewalks and distributing hand-bills surreptitiously."

This can easily produce a misleading impression of the position of the Socialistic party in Germany. In this city, and, so far as I can learn, elsewhere, this party enjoyed in the recent election all the advantages which their opponents did. Their campaign posters were just as large and their meetings just as public. The legislation against the Socialists by no means prohibits all activity to them, as the score of newspapers and periodicals which they publish in Germany clearly shows. The law provides for the interference of the Government in the case of societies, assemblies, or publications *directed towards the overthrow of the present political or social order*. It fails in giving too wide a scope to the discretion of the enforcing officer. A great variety of interpretations are obviously possible, and this has led in many cases to an over-harsh application of a law which, considering the offences that provoked it, cannot be unqualifiedly condemned. An example of extreme sensitiveness on the part of the authorities occurred here recently, where a meeting was immediately dissolved because the orator, in the heat of the moment, compared the present social régime to that in a house of correction.

The famous Gotha programme of 1875 represents but a milder form of Socialism. It breathes a spirit of moderation unknown to the Socialism against which the law was directed. Those who regard the elysium of the Gotha resolutions as the happy outcome of a gradually effected social and economic revolution, may be classed as bold and harmless optimists. Others, however, bent on a practical and speedy realization of their dreams, form a most dangerous element in a State. At a congress held at Wyden (Switzerland) in 1880, it was decided to strike out the word "lawful," which conditioned in the Gotha resolutions the efforts to be made in realizing the desired ends, asserting at the same time that "this was not to be considered as a change of doctrine, as the great majority of German Social-Democrats had never given themselves over to the illusion that their plans could be peaceably carried out in harmony with the law." A succinct statement of their views is contained in the untranslatable sentence: "Will es nicht biegen von oben herab, so muss es brechen von unten hinauf."

As an excuse and justification for the moderation which, as they asserted, had characterized their conduct in the past, the members of the Congress confess that they regard it as the necessary condition of a successful revolution "that the principles of the party should be inculcated among the people, and these be drawn into the movement as a preparation for the coming world-convulsing change, with all its mighty accompaniments."

One of the chief organs of the Socialistic movement, the *Sozial-Demokrat*, in its issue of May 25, 1880, disposes of religion in the following terms:

"Only in the wholly degenerate condition of mankind which existed two thousand years ago could so idiotic (*blödsinnig*) a religion as Christianity have ever struck root or spread itself at all. Ever since it has directed its efforts not to the extinguishing of want and misery in the world, but to the employment of the same for its own purposes as a cloak to conceal its own sins and crimes."

Still, these are undoubtedly extreme cases. The platform at the recent election, as it appeared in this district, contained nothing more incendiary than that "the socialization of society in place of the ruling individualization, that war of all against all, must be the aim of the State and of legislation."

The present law against the Socialists expires September next, and in all probability it will not be renewed. Whether or no the absence of all restriction will prove the beneficence of the present limitation, remains to be seen.

James Harvey Robinson.

Freiburg, Baden, March 15, 1890.

THE MASSACHUSETTS SCHOOL LAW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Schley's letter in the *Nation* of two weeks ago, and his reference to the Massachusetts school laws, lead me to think that a statement of those laws, in so far as they limit the right of private instruction, may be of interest to your readers.

In Massachusetts all children between the ages of eight and fourteen must receive instruction in the following studies: Reading, writing, arithmetic, English grammar, geography, United States history, drawing, physiology, and hygiene.

The place where the instruction is to be given is not specified—neither are the methods or details of study; the penalty for a failure on the part of a parent or guardian to give instruction in these branches is a fine for the first offence; and the machinery for enforcing the law is the ordinary process of the courts. In case the child does not attend a public school or a private school approved by the local school commitee, the burden (in case of prosecution) is on the parent or guardian to satisfy the court that the child was in fact receiving instruction in these branches.

In 1889 a vigorous effort was made by the set of pulpit agitators and their followers who have become known as the "school cranks," to induce the Legislature to subject all private education, whether given in private unapproved schools, at home, or otherwise, to the control of the local school boards. This attempt met with determined opposition from Protestant and non-sectarian private schools in Boston, as well as from the Catholic or parochial schools, and proved unsuccessful. The Legislature, after listening for weeks to fanaticism and socialism, preached under cover of alleged devotion to our public-school system, declined by an overwhelming vote to make the change in question. This year the attempt was renewed, but the opposition did not think it worth while to notice the effort; and an adverse report from the committee, accepted by the House without opposition, has quieted the agitation for this year.

The State control of private education is one of the worst applications of that vicious paternalism towards which one of the great political parties of the day is rapidly drifting; but it is only fair to that party in Massachusetts to add that, while all the school cranks are Republicans or Prohibitionists, and while the Republican managers in Boston have not hesitated to use this agitation as a means of electing a Republican Mayor, the Republican majority in our State Legislature has, during two sessions, had the good sense to repudiate the socialistic demands of those who pretend to be the friends of our common-school system, but who are in fact its worst enemies.

N. Matthews, Jr.

Boston, April 3, 1890.

COINCIDENCE, IMMIGRANT, AND OUTSIDER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "To America we owe" these expressions, according to Mr. Joseph Angus's *Handbook of the English Tongue*, published in 1872.

Yet in none of its various senses has *coincidence* ever been shown to have originated in our country. The word was used by Lord Bacon in 1605, and by the Rev. William Sclater in 1626; and it was freely employed, among Englishmen, almost from their time till the foundation of the United States, as it has been ever since.

Still earlier was the appearance of the adjective *coincident*. From about 1621, under which year I find it in print, its occurrence is by no means unusual. The meaning which it has in my oldest quotation for it is, however, very peculiar: "But there may be an other thing *coincident* to some degree of men, the which, although it be not necessarie for their being, yet it is necessarie for their well being." Nicolas Sander, D.D., *The Rocke of the Church* (1567), p. 216.

As to *coincide*, I believe it to be extremely rare before 1700. Bp. Richard Mountagu, who died in 1641, has, instead of it, the factitious Latin *coincidere*: "With whose severall reignes the principall parts thereof [*i. e.*, of this Prophecy] must *coincidere* and accord." *Acts and Monuments*, etc., (1642), p. 134. Dr. Thomas Fuller likewise writes, in 1650: "Making three members, of his four sore judgements mentioned in the Prophet, *coincidere*, to interfeer, yea run all into one." *A Pisgah-sight of Palestine*, II., ix., § 39. These passages give evidence that a vernacular verb allied to *coincident* and *coincidence* was beginning, about the middle of the seventeenth century, to be desiderated by scholars.

With regard to the substantive *immigrant*, as Mr. John Pickering long ago pointed out, Dr. Belknap, in his *History of New Hampshire*, was, probably, the first to venture it. This useful word, and also the revivals *immigrate* and *immigration*, have since come to be in perfectly good repute. Southey, it may be added, in a letter dated 1805, speaks of "*immigrant* monastics." See the *Life* of him by his son (1850), Vol. II., p. 323. If Americanisms were all as deserving of acceptance as *immigrant*, objection to them would be idle.

Of *outsider* the late Mr. G. P. Marsh was unable to trace the existence further back than 1844. Still, it was, most likely, at least a respectable colloquialism in England some time earlier. So, at all events, I think may be fairly inferred from the fact that it was used in 1833 by Mr. Albany W. Fonblanque, a writer studiously careful to avoid novel phraseology, and especially such as was at all tainted with vulgarity. I find that he writes:

For those he cannot entertain, the *outsiders*." *England Under Seven Administrations* (1837), Vol. II., p. 354.

Your obedient servant, F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, March 17, 1890.

"MORALE."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In reply to the call of your correspondent, in No. 1291 of the *Nation*, for explanations of the use of the word "morale" in the sense of "moral tone," I suggest that the word "morale" in that sense is not French but Latin; adjective, neuter gender, used as a noun.

I have heard the word used in German in the same sense, with the article "das" (neuter gender), for instance: *Das Morale der Armee*, meaning the moral tone of the army, which corresponds with my suggestion.

Yours very truly, A. V. WEISE.

SARCOXIE, MO., April 3, 1890.

CODMAN'S BIBLIOGRAPHY OF LANDSCAPE GARDENING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the preparation of my 'List of Works on Landscape Gardening' which you take the trouble to criticise in your number of March 27, I endeavored to include only books which treated of the subject itself and to exclude gardening and horticultural works. Such a line is a very difficult one to draw, and probably no two persons who undertook a work of this sort would arrive at the same result. I purposely omitted some of the books mentioned in your review, for they did not, according to my judgment, deserve a place in the list. Chambers's 'Plans of the Gardens at Kew,' for example, is simply a description of that place; Taylor's book is architectural, not landscape gardening; and Parey's 'Verlagskatalog' nothing more than a bookseller's list. Lefèvre's 'Les Parcs et les Jardins' I have included, but it was overlooked by your reviewer.

In *Garden and Forest* for March 12 I asked for suggestions and additions to my list, for I realized that it was incomplete (it would be strange if it were not); but, to carry out my original intention, any additions that I may make must treat distinctly of Landscape Gardening. Yours, etc.,

HENRY SARGENT CODMAN.

BROOKLINE, MASS., March 31, 1890.

[In his preliminary remarks Mr. Codman gave no hint of limiting his scope, but said, "The list is as complete as I have been able to make it." This and the frequent insertion of such titles as "Paradise Lost, book iv," and "Rousseau's Héloïse, part iv," led us to suppose that he intended to include all works bearing upon the subject, as, for example, Taylor's, which gives "designs for gates, garden seats, alcoves, entrance gates, lodges, prospect towers," etc.—ED. NATION.]

THE MARYLAND ARCHIVES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While thanking you for your very kind notice of the last volume of the Maryland Archives, I will mention that the correction of Leister's name will be found in the "Notes." The index of names contains only the forms found in the original manuscripts.

I am, sir, etc., WM. HAND BROWNE.

THE BOSTON ART MUSEUM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I should be sorry to think that what has been said of the distribution of the casts in the Boston Museum would cause annoyance to Mr. Robinson, whose great services to archæology I admire and envy. His report, and even the passages from it which his letter quotes, seem to state all that I have asserted: I have only given details. It is probable that Mr. Robinson regrets more than any one else the admitted lack of perfectly logical arrangement. The critic cannot appreciate the local accidents which have caused this shortcoming; he can only point it out and express his sense of its importance. The grouping of works of art according to their epoch, style, or school is the most important point; everything else—symmetry, convenience, beauty of grouping, and the rest—should give way to that. R. STURGIS.

NEW YORK, April 5, 1890.

Notes.

J. W. BOUTON sends us the prospectus of an illustrated catalogue of the decorative-art museum of Frédéric Spitzer, to be styled 'La Collection Spitzer,' and to fill six folio volumes. There will be 350 full-page plates of a very high order, one-half colored, besides more than twice as many representations in the text from pen-and-ink sketches. This collection embraces from thirty to forty divisions, of ivories, tapestries, terracottas, bronzes, illuminated MSS., Venetian and Bohemian glass, locks and keys, arms and armor, Faïence and Palissy ware, enamels, rock crystals, etc., etc. The execution of the letterpress will leave nothing to be desired, to judge from the sample.

Charles Scribner's Sons will publish 'Personal Creeds; or, How to Form a Working Theory of Life,' by the Rev. Newman Smyth; 'The Nature and Method of Revelation,' by Prof. George P. Fisher; and 'The Philosophy of Preaching,' by the Rev. A. J. F. Behrends.

Porter & Coates, Philadelphia, announce 'Disraeli in Outline,' by F. Carroll Brewster: a concise biographical sketch and a careful summary of Disraeli's novels.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, will add the following to their Modern Language Series: 'Practical Lessons in German Conversation,' by Prof. A. L. Meissner of Queen's College, Belfast; 'A Primer of French Literature,' by Prof. F. M. Warren; and a 'Deutsche Literaturgeschichte,' by Prof. C. Wenckebach of Wellesley College, to make three volumes.

Ginn & Co., Boston, will have ready next month a 'Reference Handbook of English History for Readers, Students, and Teachers,' by W. H. Gurney; 'The Nine Worlds,' studies from Norse mythology, by Mary E. Litchfield; and Wentworth's 'School Algebra.'

'Cassell's Complete Pocket Guide to Europe' renews itself for the approaching tourist season. It is no bulkier than hitherto, and we observe no changes except such as pertain to the personnel of our diplomatic and consular service.

Mrs. Clarkson Potter's 'To Europe on a Stretcher' (E. P. Dutton & Co.) has a brief message to deliver, namely, "It can be done." The author cites her own experience on two journeys, and supplies such anecdote and incident as was needed to make a book of her tract.

Mr. W. H. H. Murray, who attained notoriety as a writer by his Adirondack tales, has not gone far afield in preparing a volume on 'Lake Champlain and Its Shores' (Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co.). It is a medley of personal adventure, historic gleanings, and practical directions for sailing and fishing on the waters of the lake. An index was more clearly needed than the author's portrait, but none has been provided.

The Browning Society of Boston has made a pretty brochure of its memorial proceedings in King's Chapel on January 28, 1890. The Chapel itself is freely commemorated in photographs, and there is a portrait of Browning in his latter and grizzled years. Mr. C. P. Cranch, in the course of his remarks, said: "At the time I first knew him [Browning], he was thirty-seven years old. He wore no beard or moustache, and his hair was nearly black."

The Messrs. Appleton have added to their "Town and Country Library" 'Robert Browning's Principal Shorter Poems,' which will be found a convenient selection. It should be noted that the poet's final readings have not been followed, and that the punctuation has not been scrupulously watched, as is more needful in the case of Browning than of any other poet who ever wrote.

'Cooper's Biographical Dictionary' is not one that we should have marked for a fresh lease of life. First, its typography is calculated to deter the buyer and student, being very condensed; and in other respects the work was not distinguished in its class, except in being fuller of the obscurer British names, and in this particular Leslie Stephen's 'Dictionary of National Biography' of course supersedes it. All the faults which we pointed out in the first edition (in 1873) have gone untouched, and, in fact, there is no pretence at revision. The original cumbersome single volume has been split in two, and a supplement brings the work down only to 1882. As we observe no attempt to supply the omissions of the main dictionary (which excludes living men, by the way), we have really in the supplement the dead of a decade, and this narrow survey has at least the advantage of revealing the world's constant supply of great men. The Dictionary, with a change of publishers, now takes its place in "Bohn's Reference Library" (New York: Scribner & Welford).

We have received two new comparative grammars of Greek and Latin, both elementary and avoiding controversy. Messrs. King and Cookson's (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) is mainly an abridgment of their earlier work on the same subject. The only part not taken from the larger volume is a chapter on comparative syntax, in which the authors follow Delbrück and Monro pretty closely. But they seem not to be aware that Delbrück has modified his theories on the "wish" meaning as fundamental in the optative. Moreover, the statement that the subjunctive in final clauses is the subjunctive of "will," while the optative in similar clauses is that of "wish," scarcely commends itself to readers of Prof. Goodwin's latest writing on the relations of these words. However, the book certainly gives a fair statement of the main principles of phonetics and morphology, with little discussion, but plenty of illustration, and will be a useful guide to beginners in the science. Its chapters on accent and on strong and weak roots may be especially mentioned as exponents of the views of the "new school" on these topics.

The second edition of Prof. Victor Henry's 'Précis de Grammaire Comparée' has just been translated into English by Mr. R. T. Elliott (Macmillan). The original appeared in

1888, and is therefore known to scholars. The author lays claim to no originality, but simply endeavors to present the latest results of Indo-European philology, and gives us a comparative grammar in the strict sense of the term. Here and there we could wish for less brevity of treatment, as for instance in what is said about accent, which is made to appear too much of a phenomenon. The bibliography of the subject prefixed to the work will be found useful, and there are full indexes of the words treated.

It has sometimes maliciously been said of the New York Chamber of Commerce (considering how little of a representative body it is in action), that the best things about it are its library and its portrait gallery. The Secretary, Mr. George Wilson, has just edited a handsome volume descriptive of this gallery, which now numbers eighty paintings and four busts. As a civic collection it is very notable, as a few names will indicate: John Jacob Astor, Jacob Barker, De Witt Clinton, Peter Cooper, William E. Dodge, Moses H. Grinnell, George Griswold, Alexander Hamilton, and Robert Lenox. But also one finds in their company John Bright, Richard Cobden, Joshua Bates, John Sherman, George Washington, etc. Mr. Wilson furnishes a biographical sketch in each case.

In the *Sidereal Messenger* for April (published at Northfield, Minn.) is an account of the very extensive Wolff-Leavenworth collection of portrait engravings at Syracuse University. Primarily got together in the line of distinguished physicians of all ages and countries, it was increased by absorption of other collections till it numbered 12,000, in which more than 300 astronomers and mathematicians are included. The *Messenger* gives a list of the more distinguished astronomers.

Small notice was taken of the death in May, 1889, of a once famous dragoon, Gen. William S. Harney, as much the typical Indian fighter of his day as Gen. Miles or the late Gen. Crook, but on a lower level of humanity. An early portrait of this rugged character precedes an uncontroversial sketch of his life in the *Journal* of the United States Cavalry Association for March (Fort Leavenworth, Kan.).

A fairly good portrait of Prof. Bryce—a process print—forms the frontispiece of the Philadelphia *Book News* for April. Not a few of our readers might be glad to procure it for their copies of his 'American Commonwealth.'

The *True Commonwealth* is the title of a new monthly quarto journal launched in Washington on April 1. It aims to effect the repeal of all monopolistic and class legislation, and the "nationalization" of railways, telegraphs, and other essentially monopolistic enterprises, along with municipal ownership of street railways, gas-works, etc.

The nineteenth of the Economic Tracts issued by the Society for Political Education, at No. 330 Pearl Street, is 'References to the Constitution of the United States,' by William E. Foster of the Providence Public Library—a new edition of that published in 1881. It is a very copious guide to the influences which resulted in the framing of the Constitution, its actual construction and adoption, and its vicissitudes since 1789. An appendix makes selections from the Supreme Court's decisions and opinions from 1865 to 1889. The student could not ask for better assistance.

The statistics of manufactures in Massachusetts for the year 1888 have been tabulated and are now reported by the Labor Bureau. As these statistics have been collected for but three years, they are to be looked upon rather as a necessary preliminary to valuable results than as of present usefulness. The census of 1885 disclosed the existence of some 23,000 manufacturing establishments, while this report deals with returns from less than 4,000. Still, it is possible to learn something from the experience of three years, and for many purposes it is more convenient to work with a small number of typical cases than to attempt to generalize from them all. Thus, the census shows that about 90 per cent. of the value of manufactures was produced by some 4,500 establishments. On the other hand, the existence of nearly 19,000 establishments, with an average product of less than $4,000 each, is a circumstance that deserves the attention of those who have felt alarm at the supposed swallowing up of the small industries by the great ones. In fact, nearly 7,000 establishments produce on the average less than $1,000 a year. At the other end of the scale there are 66 establishments each producing an average value of over $2,000,000 a year. For most purposes we should prefer to consult the trade journals and market reports rather than this compilation. Statements made to Government officers by private persons about the details of their business are not very trustworthy evidence.

The foreign trade of Persia is the subject of the last of the interesting series of letters from the Hon. George Curzon to the London *Times* on that country. After describing its eleven principal trade arteries, he shows that Russia controls the greater part of the trade of the northern provinces through her rigidly exclusive policy in respect to her railways and the navigation of the Caspian, now merely a Russian lake. Equally supreme are the English and Indian merchants in the southern provinces, Great Britain having the trade monopoly of the Persian Gulf. The great struggle is for the middle region, and here, notwithstanding the strenuous efforts of the Russians, English interests are decidedly in the ascendant. The total volume of trade with the United Kingdom Mr. Curzon puts at £2,500,000 per annum, or more than ten times the amount given in the last edition of 'Whitaker' and the 'Statesman's Year-Book.' One of the great obstacles to its increase is "the difficulty of remittances, arising in the main from the constantly fluctuating rate of exchange—a point in which the institution of banks in Persia may be expected to afford some relief. Another is the utter contempt for the most elementary principles of contract that is freely displayed by the Persian merchant," and the absence "of any tribunal for enforcing legal obligations."

"The Mountain System of the Balkan Peninsula," by a member of the Austrian General Staff, is one of the most noteworthy of the papers in the recently issued volume of *Mitteilungen* of the Imperial Geographical Society of Austria. It is illustrated by two admirable maps, the one hypsometric, showing the relative heights of the region, the other defining the limits of the various distinct chains which make up the whole system. Closely connected with this are papers on the Illyrian and Montenegrin mountains, though the accompanying maps are drawn in a different manner. The former are delicately shaded contour maps, while in the latter the chains are designated by black lines varying in width with the height, the passes and single peaks being very distinctly shown. For engineering and military operations this method seems to possess some advantages. The principal African paper is a description of Count Teleki's journey in the Galla country; but there is a very minutely detailed map of the Congo from Stanley Falls to Stanley Pool, and several of the Rosetta mouth of the Nile, showing its changes during the last two centuries.

In behalf of a syndicate of capitalists, M. Prompt, a French engineer, has submitted to the Egyptian Government a project of prolonging the railroad along the bank of the Nile from Girgeh to Assuan, from which point the river is to be opened to navigation to the confluence of the White and Blue Niles at Khartum, a distance of some 1,200 miles, by means of twenty-two locks to be constructed across it at determined points. M. Prompt's memorial asserts that the railways of Upper Egypt can never be made remunerative until a lively traffic is established with the Sudan. He estimates the cost of the contemplated enterprise at eighty million pounds, or fifteen for railroads, fifty-eight for the locks, and seven for unforeseen outlays. As, in the present unpacified state of the Upper Nile, even a military march from Massowah via Kassala to Khartum is out of the question, the proposal is rather more premature, relatively to existing conditions in Egypt, than it would have been many years ago, when a similar plan was mooted by Sir Samuel Baker.

A number of Italian universities, notably that of Naples, recently suffered an interruption in their courses of instruction through students' strikes and kindred manifestations, for which the local prevalence of influenza was made a pretext. The incident has been of service in attracting public attention throughout Italy to the way in which some of her universities are fulfilling, or failing to fulfil, their high educational mission. Considerable impatience has long been felt with the reluctance the Government has manifested to deal summarily, by cancelling their charters, with those of them that have most notoriously outlived their usefulness. On the other hand, there is also much chafing, both in the universities and in the secondary colleges or *licei* that are tributary to them, under the oppressive uniformity of the programmes of instruction marked out by the central authority of the Department of Public Instruction at Rome. As general editor of the new organ, *La Riforma Universitaria*, published at Bologna, with the coöperation of editorial contributors from all the leading Italian schools, Prof. Tullio Martello solicits contributions from "all scholars and students who are prompted to pass criticisms on our present university organization, or to deplore the methods of instruction prevalent in our universities."

—The April *Century* is unusually varied in its contents. Several of the articles are brief, but they convey a considerable amount of information, and illustrate the ever increasing compactness and condensation of our periodical literature. Especially noticeable for this directness, thoroughness, and grasp is the contribution to the series of social papers, which describes the field and characteristics of the labor problem, with many of its special factors presented with some detail, such as tenements, insurance, Sunday work, etc. As a statement of conditions and proposed remedies from one point of view this paper has much educational value. The description of the African slave trade, with its illustrations, by one of Stanley's lieutenants, is a forcible article which should stimulate interest in the extirpation of this cruel evil in its last stronghold, among the Arab hunters and the predatory tribes; and the means of doing it seem to grow easier. Another humanitarian paper is Mr. Kennan's criticism of the late Siberian outrages. The Director-General of the Paris Exposition makes a number of practical suggestions in regard to the World's Fair. Japan, the Fur-Seal

Islands, and the Shoshone Falls are dealt with in the department of travel; the old Poetic Guild in Ireland is the representative of literature; Prof. Putnam's admirable paper upon the Serpent Mound of Ohio stands for science; and Mr. Cole's engravings after Bellini, as excellent as any in the series, add the art contribution. In addition to all this, there are many poems of facile workmanship, the usual amount of fiction, and other general papers, among which we can note only Col. Higginson's reminder to Harvard of how slight attention is being paid to the art and theory of literature in university education.

—There has been during the last month in France a new outbreak of the old quarrel about cremation. Most people doubtless have thought that this was no longer, at least in any metaphorical sense, a burning question, but they have been mistaken. The subject has been laid before the Pope, and by him referred to the Supreme Congregation of the Holy Office, and the conclusions to which the Congregation came have been embodied in a Papal rescript which the Cardinal Archbishop of Paris has lately promulgated to the faithful. Henceforth it is only the ashes of heretics that will find repose in a columbarium. It is curious to note the reasons upon which this decision may be supposed to rest. Cardinal Richard goes back for them to the Fall of Man and the primal curse. Ashes to ashes is not "dust to dust," he says, and, besides, there is a natural respect for the body which is violated by cremation, and also a Christian respect for it in view of the resurrection. These considerations being insufficient to resolve the mind of the *Figaro* of all doubt in the matter, that newspaper applied to "one of our most distinguished ecclesiastics," the author of 'Bonté,' who gave it a categorical answer under four heads, leaving out, as he says, the merely sentimental reasons. The Abbé declares that incineration is a pagan custom; that it is contrary to the example of Christ; that it lacks the respect for the human body which the Church has always cherished; and, lastly and chiefly, that it has been revived by "nos ennemis les plus directs," the Freemasons, who hit upon this way of disposing of the bodies of atheists and infidels in order to avoid sacerdotal intervention and Christian funeral rites. The force of this reasoning will appear to most people to be less than coercive, but it is safe to say that, backed by the Papal rescript, it will check, at least for a while and among the upper classes in France, the practice that it rebukes. For ourselves, we find something amusing in the sight of our old friend, the *argumentum a gaudio infidelium*, reappearing under Papal sanction, and settling, more or less infallibly, a question of public sanitation.

— Those to whom experiments for a remodelling of society appeal must be saddened by the last phase in the history of the Altruist Community of St. Louis. "We find it necessary," says Mr. Alcander Longley, its late President, in the columns of its organ, the *Altruist*, "to announce to our readers that the Altruist Community is dissolved by mutual consent of all the members. The reasons for the dissolution are some of them as follows: Since Mr. Smith withdrew late last fall, there have been but two male members of the Community, George E. Ward and myself, and our natures and our methods of doing things are so different that there has been more or less discord at different times since, and not at any time real harmony." One of the causes of disagreement was Mr. Ward's ambition to be "appointed or elected as one of the editors and managers of the *Altruist*," which Mr. Longley had decided views about controlling himself, saying that he "would not edit and manage a paper with Mr. Ward or any one else." This led to the calling of a special meeting to elect a President in Mr. Longley's place, and the success of Mr. George E. Ward and two Mrs. Wards, who formed a majority of the Community. Meanwhile, Mr. Longley admits, "I have during our dissensions said some very uncomplimentary and disrespectful things to Mr. Ward, for which I have told him I am sorry. Among them was, I charged him with being an Anarchist and with bullying his wife to get her to vote as he desired in the Community, and with having acted fraudulently in keeping the record of the Community as Secretary, and in the election of himself as President, as well as other reproaches, all of which I hereby retract and apologize for." Mr. Longley, and the remaining member of the pentagonal Community, Miss Travis, withdrew when Mr. Ward's journalistic aspirations were about to be gratified. But we are glad to say that there is still hope for the future of the Community, as the reader will see from the following statement, which appears, under date of March 31, at the bottom of the last column of the same issue of the *Altruist:* "Mr. Longley and Miss Travis have united again under the name of the Altruist Community, with the same agreement, and will continue their business together as before, and receive any acceptable persons as members."

— The forty-seventh report of the returns of births, marriages, divorces, and deaths in the State of Massachusetts brings down the figures to the end of 1888. The tables are numerous and extremely elaborate, extracting from the returns answers to nearly all the conceivable questions that can be asked of them. Most of this information is of value only to the medical profession, but there are some generalizations that are of the widest interest and of the most profound importance, as they seem to establish a practical solution of the "population problem." For the period 1861-1880 the natural increase of population, indicated by the excess of the birth-rate over the death-rate, was smaller in Massachusetts than in any European country except France and Hungary, nor has the rate materially varied within the last decade. It is not far from 63-100 of one per cent., or less than one-half the rate in Great Britain. The rate in Hungary is connected with a very high death-rate, and it may very well be disregarded as relating to a different state of civilization. Excepting Hungary, the number of marriages in proportion to population is greater in Massachusetts than in any European country. We have, then, a society in which marriages are numerous, but in which their offspring is limited, the death-rate moderate, and, as we know from other sources, wealth increasing. The inference is, that the standard of material comfort is rising, and it is clear that, for the present at least, man's command over nature is extending much more rapidly than nature's command over him. There is probably no thriftier or more progressive community than Massachusetts to be anywhere found, and few places where the chances of long life are better than in most of her towns. It is noteworthy that the birth-rate in France is almost equal to that in Massachusetts, while the death-rate is about one-fifth higher. The significance of these figures depends in many ways upon the factors of immigration and emigration, and any statistician who can determine the respective effects of these causes will render a most valuable service.

—It is well known that the greater part of the population of Massachusetts is of foreign origin, reckoning from about the middle of the century, but it is rather surprising to learn that the excess of children born of foreign parents over those of native parentage is about 3,000, and is still increasing. The number born of mixed parentage is more than one-fifth of the whole, and is, of course, increasing. While the birth-rate of the native population is about 18 per 1,000, that of the foreign population is more than 54 per 1,000, which is considerably higher than that of any other country. On the other hand, the proportion of deaths among the foreign-born as compared with the natives is only as one to three. But it is to be remembered that one-fifth of all the deaths are of children under one year of age, and one-third of those under five years. The probability of life in the case of immigrants, who are for the most part over five years of age, is, of course, much above the average. We do not find, however, that there is any satisfactory statement of the rate of mortality among the children of immigrants, although it may be deducible from some of the tables. The returns are edited by Dr. Samuel W. Abbott, and the very useful comments are also by him.

GOODWIN'S NEW MOODS AND TENSES.

Syntax of the Moods and Tenses of the Greek Verb. By William Watson Goodwin, LL.D., Eliot Professor of Greek Literature in Harvard University. Rewritten and enlarged. Boston: Ginn & Co.

EVERY classical scholar in America will welcome this new and enlarged edition of one of his best friends with keen pleasure and genuine pride that the author is one of *us*. About twenty years ago we heard a professor in a large university say that he considered Goodwin's 'Moods and Tenses' the best work on the subject in any language, and no doubt hundreds of others on both sides of the ocean share that opinion. If this was true of "a book written in the enthusiasm of youth as an ephemeral production," as Professor Goodwin says in his preface of 1889, what may we not expect of the work in its present form, revised as it has been by the author "under the greater sense of responsibility which doubled years and more than doubled experience have brought him"? The book itself is more than doubled. Over 4,800 examples are indexed, as against the more than 2,300 of the previous edition. The page (as printed) is an inch longer and a quarter of an inch wider than before; and we have pages xxxii, 464 to offset xv, 264. The appendix has five heads to it now, the former appendix having had only two. It is thus apparent that the book has been expanded in every direction, and we have here the carefully gathered results of the author's mature work in the field in which nearly a generation ago he achieved such brilliant success. What he did then has earned him the lasting gratitude of nearly a generation of students; and this new work, which greatly increases their indebtedness, will, we trust, do even more for the next generation than the smaller book has done for us. But the smaller book is by no means superseded—at least we hope not. While teachers will of course have the new edition for their own study, they will still want the other for the use of their classes. Professor Goodwin himself says:

"It is hardly necessary to remark that the work, in its present enlarged form, is not intended for use as a grammatical text-book in the class-room, except perhaps the portion printed in the largest type. On the other hand, it is hoped that the increased fulness and the greater space given to discussions will

make the work more useful for private study and for reference."

The last thirty years have been exceedingly busy ones in the realm of Greek syntax. The stimulus has been felt over a widely extended area, and one of the chief factors—perhaps the chief one—in educating the English-speaking world to a clear and intelligent understanding of the subject has been the predecessor of the book under review. In the editions of Greek authors for school use it has held the leading place among the authorities referred to. Since its appearance, however, theoretical syntax has become more and more prominent as the study of comparative grammar has advanced; moreover, the foundations are now being laid, broad and deep, for the historical syntax of the Greek tongue. The present is the day of statistics in language study, the chief apostles in this line being Professor Schanz and his trained band of investigators. As *Heft* after *Heft* of the famous *Beiträge* appears, we feel that one more solid pier is sunk for the splendid superstructure that is to span the current of Greek thought from Homer to Aristotle.

A comparison of the new 'Moods and Tenses' with the old shows the difference between 1860 (or say 1865) and 1890 in these two respects. Speaking of his first edition, Professor Goodwin says:

"I then attempted chiefly to 'give a plain and practical statement of the principles which govern the relations of the Greek Moods and Tenses,' avoiding theoretical discussions as far as possible. . . . Something more than mere statement of facts has been attempted in the present work, although nothing has been further from my thoughts than a complete theoretical discussion of all the principles which govern the use of the moods. He who ventures far upon that sea is in great danger of being lost in the fog or stranded; for, while comparative philology has thrown much and most welcome light on the early history of the Greek language, it has also made us more painfully aware of our ignorance, although it is a more enlightened ignorance than that of our predecessors."

Additions or amplifications of theoretical points are found here and there throughout the volume. We note especially the pages (107-112) on the development of clauses with ἵνα, ὡς, ὅπως, ὅφρα, and μή The paragraphs (§§398-401) on the origin of the Greek conditional sentence are added. Remarks (*a*) and (*b*) on pages 95 and 96 of the old edition are expanded to nearly two pages (149-150) in the new. The treatment of the apodosis without ἄν (ἔδει, etc.) occupies nearly four pages in the smaller work; the same topic has eight pages and a half given to it in the large work. "Apodosis contained in the Protasis" is a new heading under conditional sentences. "Consecutive clauses with ὥστε, etc.," are discussed through thirteen pages (221-233). A note ten lines long in the elder book (note 6, pp. 228-229) has swelled to two pages (357-358) in the younger. The potential optative and indicative have a special section of nine pages and a half devoted to them (pp. 77-86).

Statistics of constructions are given in footnotes *passim* and in appendix iii, and form a striking feature of the new book. How many persons will read these statistics with scarcely a thought of the enormous labor required to make some of these short statements! What does it mean to say truthfully that a given construction—*e. g.*, the use of the future participle to express purpose—does not occur in Cicero? It means that through nearly 4,900 Teubner pages of Latin this particular construction has been watched for with close attention, and by at least several readers, or by one reader several times; for even a temporary flagging of the attention from this particular point may cause the reader to overlook some instance of the construction. We assert here, what we believe to be a fact, that as common a construction as ἐλογίζοντο ὡς εἰ μὴ μάχοιντο (or μαχοῖντο), αἱ πόλεις ἀποστήσοιντο, cannot be found in Thucydides. No doubt this statement will cause some who are reading this author to watch for the construction, and after a while one of two things may happen: our statement will be disproved, or this little fact may be added to our knowledge of Thucydides. If any one will turn to page 114 of the new 'Moods and Tenses,' he will find in five lines the proportion of subjunctives to optatives after past tenses in pure final clauses, and after verbs of fearing, given for Homer, Pindar, Æschylus, Sophocles, Euripides, Aristophanes, Herodotus, Thucydides, Lysias, Isocrates, Isæus, Demosthenes, Æschines, Plato, and Xenophon. "In all writers before Aristotle 528 : 894." Evidently, while we have slept, Dr. Weber has been hard at work threading his way across all these multitudinous pages.

Professor Goodwin's work has always been marked by a praiseworthy absence of attempts at super-subtle and metaphysical refinements. While carefully distinguishing things that differ, he does not force useless distinctions merely because there is a difference in the form of expression. He acknowledges his indebtedness to Madvig "for the first conviction that the syntax of the Greek moods belonged to the realm of common sense." The seed thus sown by the great Dane fell upon good ground; and, thanks to Madvig's disciple, the Americans who have grown up on the 'Moods and Tenses' have never had any other idea, we imagine, than that common sense prevailed in Greek as well as anywhere else. The refusal to try to define the moods is one example of this; the treatment of ἄν according to usage and not according to some theory (page 144[1]) is another. The preliminary statements about the different kinds of conditional sentences (Grammar, §220; M. and T. old, §48; new, §§390-395) have always seemed to us to be a capital illustration of reducing a problem to its simplest terms. Nor have we ever been able to think out any better way of giving the distinction between ἦν with the subjunctive and εἰ with the optative in future conditions, than by simply saying, with Professor Goodwin, that the latter is a "less vivid" form of expression. Whatever difference exists between "if you do that, you'll get a thrashing," and "if you were to do that, you would get a thrashing," just that much difference—no more, no less—seems to exist between the two constructions in Greek. On p. 17 (end) occurs a remark further illustrating this common sense: "But the Greeks, like other workmen, did not care to use their finest tools on every occasion; and it is often necessary to remember this if we would avoid hair-splitting."

One of the inalienable rights of a reviewer is the privilege of commenting on points in which he differs from the writer whose work he is reviewing; hence the following criticisms. At the end of §22, which explains the difference between relative and absolute time, occur the words "but not in protasis," which are not in the old edition, and which are too brief, we fear, for a clear understanding of their scope and purport. At least, we confess that we do not understand them, because we doubt the statement in the only meaning we can attach to the words. In §33 the statement about the historic present is enlarged by admitting that it may sometimes be used for the imperfect. This is well, as far as it goes; but we doubt the need of "sometimes." What is the objection to saying that *every* historic present may be replaced by the imperfect? The aorist is the unadorned narrative tense, and the imperfect is the picturesque narrative tense; and admitting that the historic present is the "animated" tense of narration, who is to say us nay if we choose to exchange animation for picturesqueness rather than for mere unadorned statement? This has a bearing on §119. Many so-called imperfect infinitives may represent the historic present just as well as the imperfect; *e. g.*, in the example quoted from Plato, Symp. 175 C, we can imagine no reason why δειπνοῦμεν, εἰσέρχεται, κελεύει and ἐῶ, are not as correct representatives of the infinitives as the imperfects are. We do not pretend in the least that the present has any superior claim; we only contend for full equality. The remarks about the aorist in §58 might well be expanded to take in cases where an aorist indicative is used in generic sentences instead of the constructions mentioned in §§90 and 91. Thus, in Thuc. 2, 35, 2, ὃν ἥκουσε, in connection with a generic present in the main clause. In Dem. 23, 96, ὅτε ἔθεντο =ὅταν θῶνται; and in 23, 97, εἰ ἠγνόησε (=ἦν ἀγνοήσῃ) is followed by εἰ with perfect and present indicative, all three generic. In §103 "very often" might be replaced by "usually," to conform more nearly to Grammar, §118, 2, which, we feel certain, conforms to the facts. In the 'Hellenica,' for example, according to a count made some years ago, ἐν παρέργῳ, there are nine instances of the perfect optative expressed by the compound form (1, 5, 2; 3, 5, 23; 4, 3, 1, and 8, 16 and 8, 35; 5, 2, 32, and 2, 35; 6, 2, 3, and 5, 52), and only four expressed by the simple form (3, 2, 8, and 5, 23; 4, 3, 10; 5, 2, 3), and one of these is τεθναίη (4, 3, 10).

We miss in the new edition, as in the old, and as we miss everywhere, in fact, recognition of the fact that the infinitive, present or aorist, represents the imperative (or, if μή and the aorist infinitive, the subjunctive) of *oratio recta*. This has always surprised us. If in Latin it is a fact that the imperative of O. R. becomes the subjunctive of O. O., it is equally a fact that in Greek the imperative is transferred to the infinitive, as in English. Thus, the first example under §110 would really belong under §123[a], if there were such a section, as the direct discourse is ἡ θύρα κεκλείσθω· §146 brings forward a new point in regard to the aorist participle in connection with the present or imperfect of τυγχάνω, λανθάνω, etc. It seems natural that the point here made should be true where the *present* of these verbs is used; but where it is the imperfect, we confess that we do not feel so certain about it. At any rate, it must often be a mere matter of how one chooses to translate. The example from Thuc., 3, 111, is perhaps hardly a case in point, considering the uncertainties of the passage; and Lys. 12, 27, is paralleled by Thuc. 8, 105 (overlooked by Classen in his *Anhang* to 3, 111). The construction is said to be a rare one, a statement certainly borne out by Thucydides. He uses the present and imperfect of τυγχάνω thirty-five times (see Von Essen), and with the aorist participle only twice, even counting 3, 111, as an instance. (2, 74 is not a case in point, as the aorist participle here is adversative.) The perfect participle occurs three times (3, 98; 6, 96; 8, 105), and the present participle twenty-seven times (§147, 2).

The footnote on page 50 of the old edition is omitted in the new, Professor Goodwin having apparently fully satisfied himself that his principle is in such strict accord with the common sense of the thing as to need no defence. An interesting example bearing upon this point is Pl. Phædo 106 A, where ὁπότε ἀπαγάγοι, seemingly ideal future, is used between the protasis and apodosis of an unreal present conditional, which is immediately followed by the aorist in-

dicative with ἄν. In French, German, and English, unreal present and ideal are so often identical in form that we have at times had a keen suspicion that even in Greek, in spite of the sharp formal differentiation of the two, the distinction was not always plainly felt, especially as Homer's usage (§438) was likely to lead an Attic writer astray, once in a while, at least. It very seldom occurs, it is true; but the combination mentioned in §504, may possibly have some such explanation. To the two examples there given add Isoc. 4, 102, and also Pl. Phædo 108 A, where οὔσης=εἰ ἦν, and Rep. 504 A, where μνημονεύων=εἰ ἐμνημόνευον, the apodosis in both being optative with ἄν. §535 is an addition that we are glad to see, having for a good many years insisted on this limitation in generic sentences, and denied the application of Note 1 on page 131 of the old edition to temporal sentences. We hope some day to see Dr. Schanz's co-workers give us the statistics of Attic prose on this point. We commend it to their attention.

In the treatment of ἕως we note again the absence of a statement to the effect that ἕως in the sense of 'until' regularly has the *aorist;* with any other tense it means 'while,' usually in the sense of 'as long as.' The constructions for these two meanings are nearly paralleled throughout, and why our grammars have failed to notice that it is the *tense* that determines the *sense* of the group of words of which ἕως is the representative, we have never been able to understand. Exceptions occur, of course, but they are not common enough to upset the rule. Kühner's note on Xenophon Mem. 3, 5, 6, is a very striking example of how the distinction is ignored; for he actually tries to justify the meaning 'as long as,' which ἔστ' ἄν must there have in spite of the aorist, by referring to a passage in which ἔστ' ἄν with the same meaning is followed by the present! And Mr. Phillpotts, the editor of an excellent textbook, selections from the 'Hellenica,' in trying to make Xenophon's Greek in 2, 3, 31, a little easier, changed the tense after ἕως, without perceiving that he thereby changed sense to nonsense! The mystery is, that the grammars are so extremely careful to give the constructions in the meaning 'until,' and quietly dismiss the other meaning with the statement that it needs no special treatment, although the two, as we have said, run side by side nearly the whole way, being governed by the same underlying principles. The fullest and best statement of the usage of ἕως that we have ever seen is the one given by Professor Gildersleeve in the *American Journal of Philology*, iv, pages 416-418; but even this summary is so compact as to leave unnoticed the generic constructions in the subjunctive and optative, *e.g.*, ἕως ἄν + present subjunctive, Anab., 1, 4, 8; 3, 1, 43; Dem. 9, 69; aorist optative, Xen. Cyr. 8, 1, 44 (ἕστε). For ἕως ἄν + aorist subjunctive, unless we count Xen. Mem. 3, 5, 6, and ἕως + present optative in generic sentences, we have no examples to give, but we have never made any point of collecting them, as they would simply be illustrations of broad principles of Greek syntax.

Under the head of "Wishes" we wish notice had been taken of βουλοίμην ἄν and ἐβουλόμην ἄν. It happens that βουλοίμην ἄν is not indexed, and § 246 contains no cross-reference to § 236 (end), where we have, in less than a line, all that is said about βουλοίμην ἄν, so far as we have discovered. As to ἐβουλόμην ἄν, we should like to ask if it is not far more common in Attic prose than εἴθε or εἰ γάρ with the secondary tenses of the indicative. We have made no sort of count of the constructions, and speak only from general impressions, and subject to prompt correction. In § 840 there is no statement of the ordinary limitation of the future participle expressing purpose. Except after verbs of motion, ὡς must usually be prefixed (παρασκευάζομαι being a prominent exception, since it may omit the ὡς). For this reason we should be glad to know how far μένουσιν ἀκουσόμενοι in § 187 is upheld by classic usage.

The make-up of the 'Moods and Tenses' is, of course, what might be expected of the house that issues it, and for a first edition it seems to be remarkably free from typographical or other errors. In § 25 πείθουσι ὑμᾶς holds its own with remarkable persistency in the various editions of the 'Moods and Tenses' and of the Grammar, though in the later issues of the latter book the ν has been added. For εἶσι in § 159 (*c*) read ἔρχεται. The example from Ar. Lys. 511 in § 162 appears without the conjunction "that" after "I hear"—an oversight which occurs in the former editions of the book, and also in the Grammar. On page 143 the late form ἐλοῦμαι is twice given, rather strangely. The same paragraph has δῷ three times without accent, and the next page has δῷ twice without it. On pages 150, 3, and 156, 2, we think καί must have fallen out after εἰ; and a brief paragraph might well have been given to εἰ καί and καὶ εἰ, in regard to which we may observe that Jowett, in his volume of notes on Thucydides, insists very rigidly on the distinction between the two expressions, without observing his distinction by any means in his translation—for the very good reason that it cannot be done.

Several excellent features yet remain to be noticed. The cross-references are unusually abundant. The use of "Notes" and "Remarks" has been entirely discarded, the paragraphs being consecutively numbered instead; so that while the preceding edition had only 114 sections this one has 926. This makes reference to the book a simpler matter. Would it not have facilitated reference if the paragraphs of examples had been lettered, so that a reference to a construction might be more precisely given? The frequent citation of authorities is an extremely valuable feature, and one to be heartily welcomed. The aid and stimulus thus given to students who have scholarly aspirations is of very great worth. In future editions we should like to see an index of proper names. This could easily be added at the end, to form page 465. Few indeed are the books that are over-indexed, and we do not think the addition of this page would overdo the matter, or leave much to be desired in this capital book.

FARMER WASHINGTON.

George Washington and Mount Vernon. A collection of Washington's unpublished agricultural and personal letters. Edited, with an introduction, by Moncure Daniel Conway. Brooklyn: Long Island Historical Society. 1889.

THIS volume of letters of Washington to his overseer at Mount Vernon has a peculiar interest both as regards the writer and the period at which the letters were written. It has long been known that this correspondence was in possession of the Long Island Historical Society through the generosity of its former President, Mr. James Carson Brevoort, but access to it has been granted grudgingly, and special care taken to prevent the publication of even paragraphs. Now the Society has seen fit to publish the whole under the editorship of Mr. Conway, who has prefixed an "Historical and Genealogical Introduction," and added some newly discovered letters from other sources.

With all due respect to the zeal and industry of the editor, we find his introduction neither historical nor genealogical. With a fine-tooth comb he has searched Virginia for bits of unpublished matter, stray anecdotes that still exist in the old regions of that State, as rich in lore as it is in imagination, and the gossipy tales of the oldest inhabitants. He has gathered half-a-dozen curious pieces of correspondence, an even less number of valuable documents, and has surrounded them with a mass of guesses, improbabilities, and idle tales. For example, a very early letter beginning "Dear Sally," "may have been" addressed to Sarah Ball, Sarah Jones, or Sarah Conway, but we do not see that the subject is made any the clearer by this triple conjecture, and no interest is added to the letter. Boucher asserts that Washington was taught by a convict servant, which leads Mr. Conway to say, "The sexton of Truro parish in 1747 was a convict, William Grove. It may be that 'Hobby' was this man's nickname, and that he had previously taught the Washington children; or, 'Hobby' may have been another of the 'convicts'—probably political." He then shows that Hobby was sexton at Falmouth, and not at Truro; and yet it is only a tradition that gives to Washington Hobby as a teacher. Such conjecture only leaves the question an open one, and is better calculated to mislead than to confirm.

Were these isolated instances, it would not be necessary to direct attention to them; but they are unfortunately typical examples of the manner in which the editor has prepared his introduction. He takes up the question of seals used by Washington, but comes to no conclusion, and it is difficult to arrange his statements in such order as to show what he wishes to prove. He hazards a new guess at the source whence Washington drew his "Rules of Civility," but the guess throws no light on the matter. The wretched doggerel found in an early note-book of Washington's is boldly attributed to him, twisted into an acrostic, and gravely made the text for some remarks on the early loves of Washington. While it would be equally venturesome to assert positively that Washington did not perpetrate the acrostic, it is reasonably certain that poetry was entirely wanting in his nature. In the genealogical field Mr. Conway's researches have produced better results, though Mr. Waters's discoveries discredit the earlier statements. The letters in the appendix contain some good matter, but they have no connection with the Mount Vernon correspondence, to which we now turn.

Once a week Washington expected from his overseer at Mount Vernon a full report of what was done on the farm, the prospects of the crops, the preparation of fields, and the distribution of labor; and once a week he wrote in full his wishes and suggestions. It is this weekly letter from the President of the United States, in an exciting period of our national history, 1793–1796, that makes up this volume. Not only does it show the intense love of the man for agriculture and his home, Mount Vernon, but it proves his love of minute detail, his mastery of little things, and his capacity for applying general rules—mental habits that had stood him as well in the management of his army as in that of his plantations. He knows every acre of his farms, the uses to which they are to be put, their relations to one another as well as to his general plan of culture; he knows every field-hand and his capacity, and expects the utmost result from his labor; every fine horse or jack is known by name, and he can estimate

what in an ordinary season he may expect from the whole. This is an interesting phase of Washington's character; but the letters are of far greater interest as showing the change that had occurred in Virginian agriculture during the Revolution.

Before the Revolution the Virginian planter raised nothing but tobacco and maize.

"The cultivation of tobacco," wrote Washington to Arthur Young, "has been almost the sole object with men of landed property, and consequently a regular course of crops have never been in view. The general custom has been, first to raise a crop of Indian corn (maize), which, according to the mode of cultivation, is a good preparation for wheat; then a crop of wheat; after which the ground is respited (except from weeds, and every trash that can contribute to its foulness) for about eighteen months; and so on, alternately, without any dressing, till the land is exhausted; when it is turned out, without being sown with grass-seeds, or reeds, or any method taken to restore it; and another piece is ruined in the same manner."

Tobacco was the commercial crop of Virginia, and all the efforts of Parliament, directed by the selfish policy of the mercantile system, were directed to making it the staple of the colony. It was the planter who suffered, for he was obliged to dispose of his product in a monopoly market and buy what manufactured articles he needed in the same market. Even before the Revolution a change was begun, looking to the culture of grains instead of tobacco, and an export of wheat to the West Indies instead of tobacco to Great Britain. The experiments of Bordley in Maryland were beginning to attract attention, and Washington has left abundant evidence of his close study of such agricultural treatises as were published at that time—studies which were later to result in practice. Of live stock almost nothing was known, and horses and dogs were more important items in the plantation economy than cattle and sheep.

All this was changed after the Revolution, and nowhere can the alteration be more closely studied than in the agricultural letters of Washington. The tobacco-planter and shipper of the colonial day has become a raiser of wheat and a manufacturer of flour. He is no longer concerned with the quality of and market for his fine brands of sweet-scented tobacco, with the problem of stemming, packing, and inspecting his leaves, with the extortions of shipmasters, the sales and charges of his factor in London; but he talks learnedly of wheat, flour, bran, middlings, shorts, and ship stuffs. He cultivates only a few acres of tobacco, and the small number of hogsheads that he obtains are kept in the inspection warehouses for years awaiting a fair price, and constituting an unimportant source of revenue instead of the principal income. He no longer exhausts his lands by successive crops of tobacco, wastefully grown and wastefully gathered; but his efforts are directed to preparing his fields for wheat, the arrangement of proper rotations of crops that will keep his lands in heart, and in experimenting with different seeds to obtain the highest returns, and with various fallow crops to insure a proper degree of productiveness. He no longer pays the expenses of his plantation out of his tobacco sales, but out of his sales of wheat and flour. Under this system, even his choice of lands is modified, and a good mill-site is of far greater value than a comparatively rich plain.

In introducing this new system of agriculture, Washington had enjoyed exceptional advantages. He had covered nearly every State in his marches during the Revolution, and had been observant of the methods pursued in each. He was a careful reader of Arthur Young's 'Annals of Agriculture' and an ardent experimenter in every direction. He had seen the importance of live stock in agricultural operations, and not only sought to obtain fine breeds of cattle and sheep, but paid great attention to the sowing of grasses and laying down of meadows, besides making trials of the various root crops that were valuable both as food for cattle and for keeping the land in condition. He was familiar with the efforts of Robert Bakewell to improve farm stock, the pioneer in the line, who believed that "you can get beasts to weigh where you want them to weigh, *i. e.*, in roasting pieces and not boiling pieces"; while from his numerous correspondents, among whom were such agricultural authorities as Young, Anderson, and Sinclair, he obtained many valuable hints and much assistance.

His one obstacle to success was the quality of labor at his command—slaves; and it is an interesting speculation to make, whether slavery in Virginia could have remained had the State followed what was its natural tendency immediately after the Revolution, that of becoming a wheat-growing State; whether this form of labor, wasteful, costly, and unintelligent, would not have been forced out by the same economic conditions that had made it unprofitable in New England and the Middle States. That Washington was conscious of the difference between the results obtained by slave and by free labor respectively, these letters prove. Near Philadelphia he noted and admired the well-kept fields, and recorded with envy the large crops taken from them as compared with the relatively meagre returns made by his own lands, on which he bestowed so much thought, time, and expense. He mentioned again and again the difference in results obtained in the well-conducted flour-mills around Germantown and at the head of Elk, and in his own, where a comparatively small output was obtained. The laziness, neglect, thievish habits, and ignorance of his help bring out a show of temper on his part, and constitute the burden of his complaints. Hardly a letter is contained in this volume that does not convey some idea of the low opinion he held of slave labor, and its incapacity to meet his wants, which in short involved a change from extensive to intensive farming, a revolution in methods. "My great object (more than making crops) is to preserve the land"; but he would use every acre to its full capacity. "Is it not better to get twenty bushels of wheat (and other things in proportion) from one acre of ground, than from two acres?" This was the key of his system, and, with that at hand, these letters open up a very interesting study in American agriculture of the last century; but the editor of them has missed it all.

Clubs for Working Girls. By Maude Stanley. Macmillan & Co. 8vo, pp. 276.

WRONG as the Socialists are in their theories of human nature, they have certainly done a great deal of good in stirring up the tender-hearted to a feeling of the insupportableness of the existing conditions of the very poor, and of the necessity incumbent upon every woman, at least, who has leisure, of doing something to alleviate them. Time was when English women satisfied their consciences by doles of red flannel and soup to the poor people of their acquaintance, but now the principles of political economy have penetrated the brains of women, even, and no one can engage in relieving poverty without much reflection upon the far-reaching consequences of his acts. The Hon. Maude Stanley, in strenuously advocating the formation of clubs for working girls on a large scale, has other objects in view besides furnishing the girls a pleasant evening and some improvement in their manners and their minds. These objects alone would, of course, be very worthy ones, and these objects are accomplished to a remarkable extent by the London clubs which she describes. The girls include those of the very lowest classes (it is required, however, that they should be respectable)—girls, doubtless, lower than any who could be found in this country; girls who, after the day's work, are always on the street, rude, vulgar, and boisterous.

"Many of my readers may never have seen the class of girls I now refer to—girls who will roll about the pavements three or four together, their hair cut straight over their foreheads, shawls over their heads, insulting every decent woman they meet. . . . In one part of London where a club has been established they have been seen on a Saturday night fighting one with another bared to their waists; and yet even there, by the kindly influence . . . of the club, have been, may we not say? tamed and civilized."

One evening two wild girls came to the door, whom Miss Stanley presently recognized as girls she had known some years before in a school. When asked to come in, they said: "No, they are stuck-up things in there: they would laugh at us"; and the girls of the club said: "O those terrible girls! I hope they are not coming in here." But they came in, and Miss Stanley says:

"Around them were girls who had been at the same school, who lived in the same street, who had worked at the same factories: the one quiet, gentle, refined; the other coarse, loud, blasphemous, and rude. Up to thirteen the same teaching, the same training, but since that for the one the education of the streets and of bad companions, and for the others their club, their friends in the club, and the ladies of the club. No instance has ever so forcibly shown me the marvellous good that a girls' club can accomplish as the sight of these girls thus brought together. As children they had seemed alike in every respect; and now how far apart they were!"

But, besides these immediate results, Miss Stanley has no less an object in view than to transform public sentiment among the poor of London in regard to early marriages. Early marriages have not simply the result of unduly increasing population among the working classes; it is the early married who become the parents of children who are improvident like themselves, and who are, in turn, the parents of a constantly degenerating race. The first step towards thrift is to consider whether there are means at hand to bring up a family decently; and when that step has once been taken, it works doubly—by the decent bringing up and by inheritance. But besides these remoter considerations an early marriage entails immediate suffering. Miss Stanley quotes a passage from Judge Chalmers which is so forcible that we must make room for part of it here:

"I find that the almost universal cause of the indebtedness and destitution of the poor is early and improvident marriage. About 90 per cent. of the judgment summonses are against persons in the receipt of weekly wages. If the artisan would, like the majority of the more educated classes, refrain from 'going into housekeeping' till he was thirty, his lot would be an exceedingly comfortable one. For ten years he would have been in receipt of his full wages, and he could have put by a good round sum to provide against a rainy day. . . . I find that more than 98 per cent. of the judgment debtors are married. . . . Day after day I preach the same sermon to deaf ears. The defendant urges the number of his children as his reason for not paying his debts. Is it the plaintiff's fault, I ask him, that you have got seven children? Because you have got seven children, is it any reason that the plaintiff should supply you with goods for nothing? Not long ago a

wretched-looking lad of twenty was summoned for a debt of two pounds. I asked him why he had not paid and he replied, 'All the children have been ill.' . . . The root of the evil lies in the reckless way in which the working classes marry."

Miss Stanley gives two incidents to show how differently the two races that adjoin the English regard marriage. An Irish laborer was asked, "Mike, why have you married when you had not enough to keep yourself, let alone a wife?" "Well, sure," was the ready answer, "for the bite and the sup the crater ates it's no worth being without her." A Scotch woman, asked why she and her brother, middle-aged persons, had not married, replied, "I had to stay and bide with father and mother, and my brother could not have brought a wife in; there would be no room for bairns with the old folks; he must wait awhile." The idea that children who cannot be supported are a reprehensible possession seems to be making headway in London. The wife of a man who had become blind soon after marriage, and the mother of seven children, said: "I was afraid to ask you for assistance, for I was afraid you might say what the other ladies say—that I have too many children." Miss Stanley believes that a thorough-going change may be brought about in this respect in the opinion of girls and lads. She says:

"It may seem a colossal work to change ideas with regard to marriage, but it is not impossible. Have we not seen a great change take place in the views of girls of the professional and educated classes? When they had no other employment but fancy work, tea parties, and walks on the parade or in the park, what could they think of but flirtations and possible marriage? . . . All these occupations and many more that are now opened to women, have created a very different feeling with regard to marriage. Happier marriages are made when the contract is not entered into by the girl merely to secure a home or a large establishment, and she makes a far better wife than if she had had no training or experience of work."

A similar change can be produced in working-girls, Miss Stanley believes, if they can have their evenings filled with interesting occupation during the years when they ought to be postponing marriage.

"We have now to consider how we can create this feeling among the working-girls and lads of our great towns. We can do so by giving them clubs, and letting them see that life has something in it besides mere larking folly. . . . Some of our girls have been with us for seven, eight, and nine years [it should be remembered that among the poor of London there are almost no women who do not marry], and we can say with confidence that clubs will keep girls from reckless and improvident marriages. If a girl remains single till twenty-four, she will be more likely to make a good choice, and not to take up with the first lad who strikes her fancy because he has asked her to walk out with him. Our girls have themselves told me that they consider this postponement of marriage as one of the best results of their club."

For details of management of these clubs, for an account by Miss Grace Dodge of working-girls' clubs in New York, for descriptions by the girls themselves of their clubs and of the country excursions which they make in the summer, and in particular for an account of a week spent in the New Forest by a working-girl, a lover of nature, we must refer the reader to the book itself. It is a book which one cannot read without a feeling of profound admiration for the working and the thinking that is now being done by Englishwomen for the amelioration of the condition of the unfortunate classes.

Old Country Life. By S. Baring Gould. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

If enthusiastic admiration and unwavering love of the subject-matter are the qualities which determine the man best fitted to write any given book, then surely Mr. Baring Gould is the man to treat of old country life in England—or rather Devonshire, for in the main he confines himself to that county. He quotes with strong approbation the remark of a friend that, "as in all the world there is not a type of man nobler, better, more complete in every way than the true English gentleman, so do I think that nowhere—not approachably even, anywhere—is there to be found a house like the old English country house." This being his creed, he cannot regard any of the changes that have taken place in the building of country houses since Elizabeth's day in the light of improvements. He prefers the trim box hedges to the modern gardens; he looks back with something of regret to the old hunting and drinking country parsons—of whom, however, he tells some unpleasant tales; and he believes the great socialistic revolution will not take place in England till fox-hunting, "that great solvent of all prejudices," is abolished. A most enthusiastic fox-hunter, indeed, is Mr. Gould, and he solemnly declares his belief that the conscience of the wretch who shoots a fox must sting him more than if he had committed a fraud!

Readers who have a more or less clearly defined idea that on the whole the world is becoming better rather than worse, may feel disposed to quarrel with the mental atmosphere of the book, and to laugh at the somewhat unscientific view of the social questions with which it incidentally deals; but nevertheless they will find in it much curious and interesting information. How remarkable, for instance, is the absolute disappearance of so many of the old Devonshire families. At intervals, between 1531 and 1620, the heralds visited the county in order to enroll such families as had the right to bear arms, and it appears that out of one hundred and twenty-four names on these lists under the first three letters of the alphabet, only eleven remain in existence. At an assize in Exeter in 1660, when Matthew Hale was High Sheriff, the entire Grand Jury, numbering about twenty, and all men of substance, bore the name of Hale, and yet to-day there is no trace of such a family. Mr. Gould cannot account for the fact, but he refers elsewhere to what is most probably the true reason, namely, the tendency of country people to move into towns in these later days of educational activity. An examination of last year's London directory in support of this hypothesis results in the discovery therein of eighteen out of the twenty-seven names which Mr. Gould mentions at page 9 as having disappeared from Devon.

It is claimed that the English used to be a dancing and a musical people; that in the time of Henry VIII. and Elizabeth England was in advance of the Continent in musical matters; and that while the Puritans tried to stop all music, they did not succeed, for in Pepys's time we find music and dancing on every hand. Pepys, indeed, constantly refers to musical evenings at his house, and to the fact that all his servants were able to take part in these performances. In accordance with his general theory of cause and effect, Mr. Gould considers that the present musical inferiority of England is due to the abolition of the old country church orchestras, and the disappearance of the old village ballad singers; but others, less attached to antiquity, might argue that the English musical taste clings to the simpler forms of harmony, and cannot attain the more complex results of German inspiration.

All who are interested in old houses, old gardens, old furniture, old portraits, and weird stories connected with them, will enjoy this book and most of its illustrations; and they will probably overlook various old grammatical errors that seem to have escaped the attention of the proof-reader.

The Uncollected Writings of Thomas de Quincey, with a preface and annotations. By James Hogg. 2 vols. Scribner & Welford. 1890.

Mr James Hogg, who was an editorial companion and friend of De Quincey towards the end of the latter's life, has collected in these two handsome volumes various miscellanies which have hitherto escaped the *omnium gatherum* of the publishers. They are upon metaphysics, politics, literature, political economy, and education, in the way of criticism, and comprise, besides, some translations of German fiction and a long story by the author called 'The Household Wreck.' This last is the most important piece; it has the peculiar touch of De Quincey, reads like a bad dream, and is noticeable as belonging to a style of fiction which has passed away, resembling the early work of Bulwer and Poe in the handling of word and phrase. The remainder of the collection is of the same stuff as the voluminous works of the author, with nothing new in thought or powerful in expression. De Quincey was already sufficiently represented, and these additions can only burden the weighted shelf; they are in part reviews of not notable works, letters of a controversial character upon questions of the Malthusian and Ricardian economy now exhausted in discussion, or upon Kantian metaphysics elsewhere better explained, or passages upon the English in India or China in which alone we find instances of his impassioned rhetoric. One early paper upon Greek literature maintains the superiority of modern writers, especially of Chaucer over Homer in picturesque and narrative power, and of the English orators over the Greek; in nearly every department the ancients are decided against, and in the case of Pindar the poet is simply critically annihilated. This is interesting, but it is not enlightening criticism. The general qualities of the author, his subtlety, pedantry, and scholastic arrogance, his rambling of the mind, his diseased imagination and meretricious rhetorical style, are all discernible: but the matter was long ago dry and dead. De Quincey seems to us to have been overestimated in his own day, so far as the mass of his work is concerned, and to live now as the typical opium-eater and by virtue of a half-dozen remarkable imaginative tales and splendid "purple patches" of English. In them his fame lies, and none need seek it further in these "leavings" of the complete works.

Emigration and Immigration. By Richmond Mayo Smith. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1890.

The general question which Prof. Smith puts to himself is, What effect will the constant infusion of new blood have upon the American community? In attempting an answer to this question he is led to inquire into our social ideals, and into the effect of immigration on the growth of population, on the economic condition of our laboring classes, and on our "ethical consciousness." His examination is very comprehensive, but he finds it necessary to take into consideration so many limiting and qualifying circumstances that his positive results are not very clear. The end to be attained is such control of immigration "that elements incompatible with our civilization

shall be excluded ; that the defective and delinquent classes, who are only a burden and a danger to us, shall also be excluded ; and that the immigration shall not be on such a scale as to threaten the integrity of our political institutions, or to cause economic disturbances." But we are not informed how this last result can be obtained, and as to the others the only practical suggestions are that the present laws against the importation of paupers, etc., and against the importation of laborers under contract, should be more rigidly enforced, and that the work of inspection should be transferred to our consuls.

We are not prepared to give our assent to this proposal. It would involve a large expense which should hardly be paid by our Government, and which, if collected from those immigrants certified as desirable, would reduce the slender capital which is so essential to a successful start in their new life. Nor, since our consuls would be dependent upon information furnished by foreign Governments, are we satisfied that oppression would not result. The consular inquiry would be notice to the local authorities as to the persons who intended to emigrate, and in fact Prof. Smith declares that it would be our duty to assist foreign Powers "in their efforts to prevent the evasion of services due the State." In other words, we are to coöperate with military despotisms in the maintenance of their oppression. It is obvious that under this system political offenders would find no refuge here, and our Government would be compelled to reverse its traditional and not altogether inglorious policy. To refuse hospitality to a Kossuth or a Garibaldi would rouse the whole country and upset the strongest Administration.

But while Prof. Smith's conclusions are not particularly novel, the information that he has collected is interesting and well arranged. He points out many conditions that affect the problem and are generally overlooked. Thus, it is commonly supposed that emigration relieves over-population; but, as a matter of fact, the natural increase of the race tends at once to expand into the vacuum. Again, the immigrant is looked upon as adding to the wealth of the country because he brings some capital with him; but, on the other hand, he remits large sums to relatives and friends in his native land. Perhaps the most suggestive chapter in the book is that upon the economic gain by immigration, as to which the author is inclined to adopt a very moderate estimate. It may well be, he shows, that such an influx of unskilled labor as we now behold is as injurious in some ways as it is profitable in others. We are unable to determine from the figures presented here that any deduction from the gross number of alien immigrants is made on account of remigration. This is a very material point, and deserves careful study, but it is doubtful if our statistics throw much light upon it.

God in His World: An Interpretation. Harper & Bros.

We have here plenty of loose thinking and of vague expression, and, nevertheless, an interesting book, written, for the most part, in a style that fascinates not only by its pleasant cadences, but also by its remoteness from the common speech of men. In no respect is it more remarkable than in its frequent surprises of good common sense at moments when we seem to be in regions never visited by it. There are floating echoes of Swedenborg and other mystical writers, but they vanish softly and quickly as they came, and leave us still in doubt how we shall class a book that is so striking in its individual quality.

Many will be deterred by the author's assurance, at the outset, that his book has been "written without previous design as to its undertaking or shaping," and is "not the result of any striving after truth." As we go on, however, we are persuaded that the author has been more deliberate than he imagines, though some of his facts are of the genus of the German's camel. Only in Emerson and Marcus Aurelius shall we find so much praise of Nature, and nowhere else the term so persistently used with so little definite meaning. A faith in Nature so ample makes the supernatural impossible, but it does not prevent—suggesting here the naturalism of Dr. Furness and the late Dr. Clarke—a full acceptance of the New Testament miracles as historic facts. Nature is not reversed, but completed, in Jesus; is for the first time fully comprehended in him, and culminates in his resurrection.

Such failure to distinguish things that differ is an evil sign, but the reader who should allow it to discourage him at the outset would miss a very great number of admirable reflections. It is in these that we are to look for such spiritual value as the book contains, not in its general scope, if any such can be discerned. There is also something charming in the author's occasional naïveté, as for example (p. xxviii., Introduction): "The constantly recurring resurrection of the dead would be regarded as natural. How, then, can a single case be called supernatural?" And this on p. xxix.: "The scientific denial of the resurrection of Jesus rests on the basis of its singularity. If in the course of all astronomical observation but a single comet had been observed, and that two or three thousand years ago, the fact would be denied on the same basis." Nothing is said of the quality and contemporaneousness of the evidence in either case. Surely the naturalness of Jesus would smell as sweet by any other name—for it is a name emptied of all its proper meaning—when it is thus interpreted:

> "He was human, but there was no miracle so impressive as the fact that being human he yet reversed all the processes of a universally perverted human nature. He spoke our speech, but in his utterance all the ordinary currents of human thought gone wrong and turned awry were reversed, so that his sayings contradicted every maxim of human experience, even as does Nature when we comprehend her divine meanings."

An introduction in twenty-one sections resumes, as dimly as an overture the following symphony, the three books which follow: "From the Beginning," "The Incarnation," and "The Divine Human Fellowship." The first of these treats with extreme vagueness of the pre-Christian religions. Where least is known, as in the Eleusinian mysteries, the writer is the most at home, valuing these mysteries above all other products of the Hellenic mind. There are many passages in the second part that are in striking contrast with the traditional interpretations. This for one: "It is one of the limitations of the Incarnation that it cannot manifest that wherein our Lord's Sonship differs from ours, but only its likeness; and while this likeness is so fully revealed, . . . the unlikeness is carefully veiled and guarded." The doctrines of Atonement and Eternal Punishment meet with no favor here. But few of our Presbyterian friends have discovered such a short and easy way out as this: "Who shall say that because a few are chosen all will not be saved? Is it not rather true that because of the chosen there is the greater hope for all?" This also is of interest: "The freedom of the kingdom is a freedom from ethical obligations—from what the world calls conscience." But this only means that

> "Love is an unerring light,
> And joy its own security."

In his concluding part, the author's ideal society is based upon the communism of the first disciples. The estimate of modern society illustrates the author's irrepressible inclination to hear the other side. In this "mystery of ungodliness" he discovers some redeeming traits, but the organization of charity is not one of them. Meantime the faith of the kingdom "is not in the strife against worldliness, nor in an amelioration thereof, or in any attempts to reform it." With so much of paradox and futility there is, nevertheless, much of pungent criticism and suggestion for the reader who can keep a patient mind, and all is very sweetly said. That such a book should now appear is one of many interesting and pathetic signs of the immense disintegration and unrest of our time.

The Colonial Copyright Acts. With an introduction by Frederic R. Daldy. London and New York: Published for the Copyright Association by Longmans & Co. 1889. 8vo, x., 135 pp.

The questions arising out of the copyright relations between the British colonies and the mother country are of considerable interest, and Mr. Daldy, who is the Honorable Secretary of the Copyright Association, and who was a member of the Copyright Commission of 1878, and otherwise has had special opportunities for obtaining a good insight into the nature of the difficulties in relation to literary property which have vexed England or her colonies for the last fifty years, was well qualified to give an intelligent opinion concerning them. It is a disappointment, therefore, to find in the book no expression of his own views regarding the copyright legislation of the colonies. He has contented himself with making a bare compilation of the copyright statutes, and with pointing out, in the introduction, some of the discrepancies existing in the various laws authorizing the importation into the colonies of foreign reprints. Such a compilation of colonial copyright law is not unwelcome, however, for these laws are by no means easy to get at, as they were passed at different times during the last fifty years, and are hidden away in the statutes at large of nearly thirty different colonies.

The volume contains, in the first place, the "royalty" laws, as they may be termed, of twenty colonies, providing for the importation of foreign reprints of books by British authors, upon payment of duties, which are, in whole or in part, to go to the authors of such books, to compensate them for the loss of copyright royalty. These acts, which were all passed under authority of the Imperial Act of 1847, 10 and 11 Vict., chapter 95, are printed without other annotation than a statement of the dates of the imperial orders in council under which they came into operation; but, following them, are printed in full four of these orders in council relating to the acts of New Brunswick, Antigua, Saint Lucia, and Trinidad. Just why these four particular orders were selected for printing and the other sixteen omitted, is left to conjecture, no reason being apparent and none being stated.

Some questions will arise, also, in regard to the statutes which have been printed. Thus, the Jamaica act of 1851 is omitted, while that of 1856 is printed; but both these statutes were superseded by the act of 1858, which is not

printed, and to which no reference is made, although this act alone is included in the revised "Statutes and Laws of Jamaica," compiled by one of the puisne judges and the Attorney-General, and intended to contain only such acts as were then (1874–1877) in force; while the acts of 1851 and 1856 are excluded from the book, clearly showing that the compilers considered these latter acts as inoperative. The Saint Vincent law of 1852 is set out in full, but no mention is made or notice taken of the later law of 1864. The Prince Edward Island act of 1848 would seem to have been passed on August 31, and not on May 4, of that year, and it was reënacted on April 29, 1861, and this latter text ought to have had preference. The first Canadian royalty act of 1850 is given, but this statute was reënacted, with amendments, in 1868, and this text, which would be subject, probably, to the provisions of the new customs act, chapter 33 of the Revised Statutes of 1887, is the one which should have been printed.

In the second division of the volume, under the heading "Local Copyright Acts," are reprinted the Victoria statute of 1869, the Canada act of 1875, and the statute of India of 1847; the last as amended by subsequent legislation. In the introduction it is asserted that the laws contained in the book, together with the Imperial Copyright Acts and the Berne International Convention, "are the only acts affecting copyright in the British Dominions." But this certainly cannot be the case, for New Zealand passed a copyright law as early as 1842, which we believe to be still in force; and in 1877 that country enacted an elaborate law for the protection of works of art. Nova Scotia, also, passed a copyright law in 1851, and has reënacted it in 1859 and 1864. The Cape of Good Hope passed a copyright law in 1873, and New South Wales in 1879, and these laws are certainly still in force, though they are all omitted from the book under notice. And as for Canada, the act of 1875, printed at pages 115–124, was superseded, of course, by chapter 62 of the "Revised Statutes," enacted in 1886, and assented to by the imperial act of 49 Vict., chap. iv., of June 2, 1886, to go into force in 1887; and that chapter should have taken the place of the law of 1875 in Mr. Daldy's book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allinson, F. G. Greek Prose Composition. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.
Arey, A. L. Laboratory Manual of Experimental Physics. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
Aristophanes. The Birds. Part I. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 90 cents.
Arten, Y. L'Instruction Publique en Egypte. Paris: E. Leroux.
Aunt Nabby, her Rambles, her Adventures, and her Notions. 2d ed. Boston: J. G. Cupples Co. $1.
Beach, C. F., jr. The Modern Law of Railroads. 2 vols. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.
Berdoe, E. Browning's Message to his Time. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.
Poole, Mary. Logic Taught by Love. Boston: Alfred Mudge & Son.
Browning, Robert. Principal Shorter Poems. D. Appleton & Co.
Cable, G. W. The Negro Question. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 75 cents.
Cassell's Complete Pocket-Guide to Europe. Revised ed. Cassell & Co. $1.50.
Church, Prof. A. J., and Seeley, R. The Hammer: A Story of Maccabean Times. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Conder, Major C. R. Palestine. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Corneille, P. Horace. Wm. R. Jenkins.
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Djambek the Georgian: a Tale of Modern Turkey. D. Appleton & Co. 30 cents.
Earl, A. G. The Elements of Laboratory Work. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.40.
Easter Day. Illustrated by Frank Bindley. Marcus Ward & Co.
Edkins, Rev. J. Evolution of the Hebrew Language. London: Trübner & Co.

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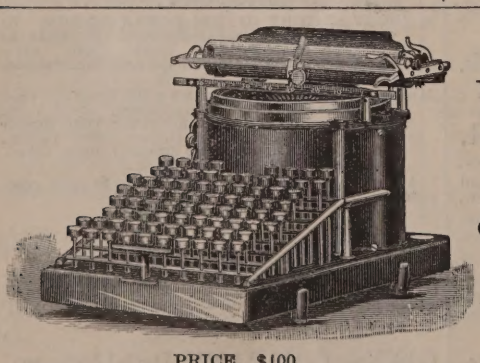

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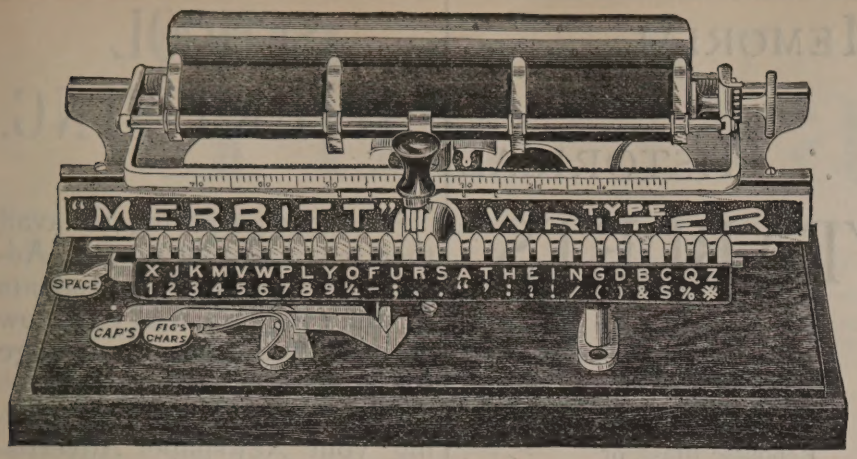

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VOL. L.—NO. 1294. THURSDAY, APRIL 17, 1890. PRICE 10 CENTS.

Money Matters.

CONSOLIDATION OF TWO IMPORTANT INVESTMENT COMPANIES: THE BUNNELL & ENO COMPANY ABSORBS A LEADING NEW YORK CONCERN.

NEW YORK, Tuesday, April 15, 1890.

"In union is strength." This is an era of combination, and the prevailing tendency towards concentration of capital has begun to influence the Western mortgage field. The announcement that the Mortgage Investment Company of New York has been absorbed by the Bunnell & Eno Investment Company of Wichita, Kansas, through whom its transactions in the West have been made, will be read, possibly, with surprise by Eastern readers of the *Nation*, to whom the name of the former has become very familiar during the past two years.

It should be stated at the outset that the consolidation is a complete and thorough one, all the officers of both companies retaining, as nearly as practicable, corresponding positions in the new one. The standing of both companies has been of the very highest kind, and their well-known financial strength, joined to the unquestioned integrity and experience of the respective officers, assured to each company a future of abundant and increasing activity. The union of the two organizations is therefore a measure which appears to spring from the sagacity which has characterized their business operations in the past. In other words, while the safety of investments has been an imperative, controlling principle in the dealings of these companies in the investment field, the consolidation practically makes "safety doubly safe," and entitles the consolidated organization to command implicit confidence to a degree seldom arrived at by an investment company.

The capital has been increased to three hundred thousand dollars (with power to increase to five hundred thousand dollars), and the name under which the business will be done is the Bunnell & Eno Investment Company.

The latter company has for years been one of the safest, most conservative, and most successful of the Western investment companies, its main office being at a point where there have been consummated, during the last few years, some of the soundest investments ever made, outside of Government bonds, in the financial history of the period. In view of the fact that the Bunnell & Eno Investment Company, in carrying on its business at Wichita, had secured valuable European connections, it has been thought best to retain the name of that company. It was, as already stated, through the latter that the Mortgage Investment Company carried on its Western business, and the proposition for consolidation was made by the Bunnell & Eno Company, after several years of mutual business connection. The companies simply join force and forces, not a particle of the elements that made both so effective and successful being lost by either.

The business will be continued in New York City without interruption at the former office of the Mortgage Investment Company, all the offices and connections of both companies, including the main office of the Bunnell & Eno Investment Company at Wichita, being retained, with such extensions of them as may be needed. Under the consolidation William S. Eno is President, Charles R. Otis and G. Livingston Morse are the Vice-Presidents, Luther B. Bunnell is Treasurer, the Hon. Matthew H. Ellis is Secretary, and the Board of Directors is composed of these gentlemen and Sidney E. Morse, Frederick Shonnard, Adam C. Ellis, and William H. Sweeney.

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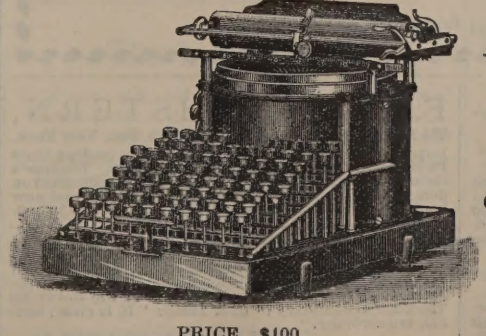

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 17, 1890.

The Week.

We have, during the past two years, at sundry times and in divers manners, asked various Pennsylvania newspapers and other good people of that State to tell us if they knew what the Philadelphia *Press* meant when it said, in 1885, upon Matthew Quay being talked of for the State Treasurership, that his nomination would "take the lid from off the State Treasury, and uncover secrets before which Republicans would stand dumb." This has been an extremely important question ever since Mr. Quay became Chairman of the Republican National Committee and recipient of the vast sums for campaign purposes put into his hands by Wanamaker and others. But we have asked it in vain. The answer, we learned very soon, could have been given by at least 200 respectable men in Philadelphia and by the editors of various papers, including one of such high standing as the *Public Ledger*. But it never came, and Quay kept on growing in power and influence, and Wanamaker in piety, with this extraordinary "secret" in possession of a large proportion of the nominally religious community. The patience of some good men in Philadelphia was, however, at last worn out, and some weeks ago they put the damning facts of Quay's career in possession of the New York *World*, which printed them with substantial correctness. Unhappily, owing to the sensational way in which that paper is edited, its "revelations" do not make the impression on the public mind which in many cases they ought to make, and which in this case they ought to have made. In fact, the story fell rather flat on the public ear. But it ought not to have fallen flat on Quay's ear, or on Wanamaker's, or on President Harrison's. The President in particular ought to have been roused by it into burning activity. He ought not to have delayed one hour after it was brought to his notice in calling on Quay to sue the *World* for libel, or else cease all relations with the White House, and in calling on Wanamaker to say whether he knew of these things, and had reason to believe them true before he took office, and if so to take himself promptly back to his store. The chief charge against Quay, which has not as yet been denied by any one, is that he was guilty of more than one defalcation as State Treasurer, having taken out of the Treasury on one occasion $260,000, and on another $400,000, and used both sums, or a large part of them, in some form of gambling, and that he was helped by party friends, when discovery became inevitable, to make up the amount lost, at least in part, to avoid a great party scandal.

There has not been in the history of reform a happier discovery of a suitable Scripture text for purposes of argument or illustration than that made by Mr. Henry C. Lea in his open letter to the President on the subject of these revelations concerning Quay:

> "The heads thereof judge for reward, and the priests thereof teach for hire, and the prophets thereof divine for money; yet will they lean upon the Lord and say, Is not the Lord among us? None evil can come among us. Therefore shall Zion for your sake be ploughed as a field, and Jerusalem shall become heaps."

Could there be a more vivid description than this of the condition of the Republican Administration? Almost every word of it strikes like the knout and draws blood. Part of its extraordinary appropriateness comes from the fact that the present Administration was really started as a semi-religious enterprise. There was, before the President left Indianapolis, a farewell service in the church of which he was elder, in which the pastor addressed him personally, in the style of Bossuet to Louis XIV., and the audience dissolved in tears. Then there were the family prayers in the parlor-car on the road to Washington, to which Stove-Polish Morse drew public attention as a sign that there was no incompatibility between religion and politics. Then there was Wanamaker's great and much advertised Sunday-school activity in Philadelphia, and numerous newspaper pictures of the good man's rushing home from Washington every week to conduct the Sunday-morning exercises in the institution. Then Private-Secretary Halford started a Bible class, the news of which was telegraphed all over the country, and the New York *Independent* came to the rescue of all these good men, with invective worthy of Tertullian, when any one questioned the mode in which they had won the Presidency, or criticised the way in which they were carrying on the Government. We are not sure whether Clarkson opened with prayer each day in which he decapitated a hundred postmasters in order to show the world the falsity of the President's promises in his letter of acceptance, but we think it very likely. There appears to be hardly any form of hypocrisy in which this venal company have not been indulging, and there was no check to it until Bishop Potter let loose on the President, in Washington's pew, the honest wrath which so many good men were feeling. But it did not affect the President in the least. Why not? Because, like those judges and priests and prophets of whom the text speaks, he leaned on the Lord and said: "Is not the Lord among us? None evil can come among us." But they were mistaken. The Lord will not let people of this sort lean on him.

Samuel J. Randall died on Sunday after a lingering illness borne with great fortitude. He was a man of remarkable ability of the business (as distinguished from the debating or persuading) order. In a committee-room he was all-powerful, as an orator he made no mark. He had a strong character, which impressed itself deeply on those with whom he came in immediate contact, and it was fortified by unblemished personal integrity. Nobody ever accused him of corruption in its minor form. While helping hundreds to make fortunes through the legislation which he promoted, he himself lived modestly and died poor. But he nevertheless set a most corrupting example in politics, for he sat in Congress for years as the Democratic representative of a Republican district, on the unconcealed condition that he should steadily support Republican manufacturers in obtaining profits or in saving themselves from losses in their business through taxation. In other words, he served for years in Congress, nominally as a Democrat, but really as a Republican, doing his best to destroy and bury the old and well-established Democratic tradition touching both the tariff and the limits of the province of government, in the interest of its political opponents. It is difficult to know what name to give to a rôle of this sort without seeming to speak harshly of the dead. If such practices became at all common, they would, of course, not only make party government impossible, but destroy all confidence between man and man in political life. That such rôles are possible is largely due to the great mechanical difficulties in the way of debate interposed by the size and arrangement of the House of Representatives. Speech that will be heard is possible only to the stentorians, owing to the vastness of the space to be filled and noisiness permitted to those who do not care to listen. The result is to give great license to methods which, if they had to be explained and defended in close and sharp debate, would soon be confined to men of less honesty and less ability than Mr. Randall. As matters stand, the Democratic party has not only not lost, but has been delivered from a great hindrance and embarrassment, by his death. But it must be put to his credit that he was the determined foe of corruption and jobbery on a small scale and for individual ends, and he was largely instrumental in bringing about the defeat of the Force Bill; but whether the Republican or the Democratic party profited more by this, it would be hard to say. It would certainly have given the former a deadly blow had it passed.

It is long since there has been a year when the tide set so strongly in favor of one party in the local elections all over the country as has been the case with the Democrats thus far this year. The drift is most strongly marked in the President's own State. In the township elections two years ago, the Republicans secured 514 of the trustees and the Democrats but 490; last week the totals were only 398 Republicans against 608 Democrats. The Republican organs are trying to explain away all these evidences of popular feeling by the claim that, in the words of the Philadelphia *Press*, "local questions are always uppermost in these elections, and this fact was true to an unusual degree in the

municipal and township contests of this year." But this theory is not accepted by such good authority as the Indianapolis *News*, an independent journal which supported Harrison, and which says: "Local questions and candidates were given special consideration, but the general result is due to the prevailing dissatisfaction of the people in Indiana, just as in other States, over a condition of things for which the Republican party, in its heedless adherence to discriminating and monopoly-sustaining legislation, is believed to be largely responsible. The lesson of the election is not alone to be found in Indiana, but it is made equally conspicuous in other States where there was voting yesterday."

The Democratic opponents of the secret official ballot will find little comfort in the returns from the elections in the contested legislative districts of Rhode Island on Saturday. It has been the custom in that State for several years for the Republicans to buy enough votes in these second elections to enable them to secure the Legislature, and thus put in the Governor's chair the man who had failed of election by the people. It is well known that Republican candidates for Governor have been "bled" more generously to carry a few of these elections than they have for an entire State election. The secret official ballot has made further use of this money unwise because unprofitable. It does not bring the votes any longer, for the men who take it cannot be followed to the polls to see if they keep their bad bargain. The result is that Rhode Island is likely henceforth to be permanently a Democratic State.

Ex-Gov. Long, Collector Beard, and other Republican managers in Massachusetts have conceived the idea of making suffrage for women in municipal elections a feature of party policy. In his speech at the conference which brought forward this plan, ex-Gov. Long said that the Republicans had no issue on which to go before the people of the State at the next election, and urged that they would gain strength as a party by taking up this cause. We observe, however, that the Boston *Journal* dissents very pointedly from this theory, and urges the majority in the Legislature not to be carried away by it. The truth is, that experience has shown it to be hazardous business for a party to urge an extension of the suffrage as a party measure. The Republican leaders in Congress gave the ballot to the negro twenty years ago, in the confident expectation that this policy would insure their permanent control of every Southern State; but it was hardly half-a-dozen years before every one of those States was in the hands of the Democrats. It is by no means improbable that if the Republicans in Massachusetts should give women the suffrage in city elections, they would find within a few years that they had only helped the Democrats to recover control of the city government of Boston.

A formidable petition has been sent to Congress from Massachusetts in favor of an increased appropriation for the work of the National Civil-Service Commission. It requests Congress to grant not merely the $53,000 asked for by the Commission, but also the additional sum needed for such extension of the system under the present law as the Commission recommend, and as, with the President's approval, they may be able to effect. The signers, who come from all the cities of the State and 171 towns, number 1,287, and include the Governor and the Democratic candidate for Governor, the Lieutenant-Governor and the Democratic candidate for Lieutenant-Governor, five ex-Governors, the Secretary of the commonwealth, the State Treasurer, the State Auditor and the Democratic candidate for State Auditor, six of the eight members of the Governor's Council, the President of the State Senate and all the Senators, five ex-Presidents of the Senate, the Speaker and 120 members of the House of Representatives, the Chairman and Secretary and 19 members of the Republican State Committee, the Chairman and Secretary and 18 members of the Democratic State Central Committee, the U. S. Collector of the Port of Boston and the ex-Collector, twelve ex-members of Congress, an ex-Secretary of War of the United States, an ex-District Attorney of the United States, and the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the State. No one who is familiar with Massachusetts can question the broadly representative character of the petition. If Congress ventures to ignore it, an additional and powerful influence will be added to those which are threatening to make Massachusetts a Democratic State.

The discussion in the United States Senate upon the Montana election contest is one of the most humiliating exhibitions of partisanship which have been made there in many years. Having decided to seat the Republican claimants without regard to the evidence, the Republican Senators take little or no part in the debate on the merits of the case. They absent themselves in a body for the greater part of the time, leaving the Democratic Senators to make their arguments to themselves alone. Probably this is the most agreeable course under the circumstances, for the Democratic arguments cannot be answered by anybody. The simple fact is, that the Republican majority has decided to "go behind the returns" of the Montana election, and seat two Senators who never were legally elected, and who only obtained their certificate by methods like those of the old Carpet-Bag Returning Boards. Day after day the Democratic Senators have set forth the truth in this indefensible performance with unanswerable clearness and force, and the Republican Senators are merely waiting for them to stop talking in order to vote as they have determined.

The country has grown accustomed to reckless displays of demagogism regarding the Chinese question, but the House of Representatives has recently passed a bill which is calculated to startle the most cynical observer. Under the pretence of amending the Census Act, the lower branch of Congress declared in favor of a new system of excluding Chinese more rigorous than anything heretofore suggested. It was provided that each Chinese person enumerated in the census shall be given an engraved certificate, to be duly numbered and registered in the census office, containing all the particulars necessary fully and accurately to identify such person; that this certificate shall be the sole evidence of the right of such person to be and remain in the United States; and that any Chinese person found thereafter in the country without such certificate shall be either imprisoned or sentenced to deportation. In short, under the guise of an amendment to the Census Act, it was proposed to pass an exclusive law of the most offensive sort imaginable—a law which would constitute an insult to the Chinese nation, and which would be admirably calculated to provoke reprisals upon Americans resident or travelling in China.

Fortunately there is hope that the country may be saved from the disgrace of such a performance. The representatives alike of American merchants and of American missionary societies in relations with China have sent to the Senate earnest protests against concurrence with the action of the House, and a brief discussion in the upper branch the other day indicates that they may prove effective. Indeed, the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations has already modified two or three of the most offensive provisions, so that, for example, diplomatic officers, merchants, students, and travellers are excepted from the operation of the law, and so that a Chinaman found without a census certificate may have the right by competent evidence to show that he is entitled to be in this "land of the free and home of the brave," even if the enumerator, through carelessness or design, neglected to note his presence. At the same time the Senators and Representatives from the Pacific Slope are outspoken against these amendments, and declare their firm purpose to secure the final passage of the law in practically the same brutal form that it went through the House; so that there is still urgent need for an emphatic expression of public opinion on the subject.

Efforts on the part of the House and Senate Republicans to come to an agreement in caucus respecting silver legislation are reported from day to day. The failure to reach an agreement thus far is due in part to the fact that the silver question is not suited to caucus adjustment, and in part to the fact that the differences of opinion in the two bodies are very decided. The Republican party has not put itself on any platform respecting silver which can bind the conscience or the vote of

any member. The House members favor the Windom bill, as modified in the Coinage Committee. The Senators favor the Senate bill, or the Jones bill, as it is sometimes called. The former provides for the issue of Treasury certificates to any extent on the *deposit* of silver bullion at its market price. The latter simply continues the *purchase* of bullion on Government account, raising the monthly purchase to $4,500,000, but not requiring the coinage of the same. There is a marked difference between the two plans, although they will surely come to the same thing in the end—*i. e.*, a parting of company between silver and gold coin and a premium on the latter in the market. Which of the two plans would accomplish this the more speedily no man can say. But the Windom plan is, of the two, much harder to understand. It is complicated and obscure to the common mind. Therefore its chances of passing are not so good as those of the Jones bill, which will, however, meet some obstacles of its own in the course of parliamentary proceedings. There is no good reason for the Government's buying one kind of property and issuing paper money against it, and not buying another kind. Cotton, for example, would furnish as good security for Treasury notes as silver bullion. It fluctuates as little as silver bullion. Much might be said at this time in favor of corn in the crib. It is hardly possible that the Jones bill will get through both houses without having some amendment tacked upon it which will make it ridiculous and nugatory.

It appears now that all the talk about reciprocity in the Pan-American Conference—that is, all of *our* talk—dwindled into a general recommendation that reciprccity treaties be negotiated between the several countries of the American hemisphere, each making tariff concessions so that the peculiar products of each may be introduced free into all the others. It appears, also, that the particular negotiation that Mr. Blaine had in hand with the Argentine Republic was only a fishing excursion to see what he could catch. The American delegates, Messrs. Flint and Coolidge, when asked by the Argentine delegates whether they spoke by authority of the State Department, said that they did not; and when asked whether they could promise the admission of wool free of duty, they said they could not. The Argentines then offered complete and full reciprocity on condition that their wool should be admitted free in our ports. All this is so characteristic of Mr. Blaine that we conclude it must be true. He wanted something to show for his winter's work, and he thought that it would be a good thing to show that he had tried to get reciprocity, but had been balked by the Argentines. In order to get reciprocity, two things were needed, viz.: the consent of the South Americans, and the consent of Congress. He fished in both directions at the same time. It would appear that he failed where he wished to succeed, and succeeded where he wished to fail. The Argentines were ready to meet him, but Chairman McKinley was not.

The Committee on Banking of the Pan-American Conference has recommended the establishment of an international bank, under a charter of the United States Government, to exercise all of the usual banking powers except that of issuing circulating notes. One of our morning contemporaries, discussing this matter, says that "the project propcsed by the committee is that the International Conference should recommend to the Congress of the United States the passage of *a general act* under which an international bank can be organized." We do not so read the report. The despatch on this subject in the same paper says: "The Committee recommends . . . the establishment of an international American bank to be organized under a United States national charter, with branches or agencies in the several represented countries, and, as incident thereto, suggests to the delegates of the United States the desirability of submitting this report to the President of the United States with a view that, should he deem it proper, he may recommend to the Congress of the United States the enactment of a charter for an international American bank, for the benefit and enlargement of the commerce of the Americas." This says nothing about a general act, and it is very plain that a general act is not contemplated. What is contemplated is a special charter of an international bank by the United States Government. That Congress will grant such a charter is not to be supposed. It involves a radical change in our theories of government. The National Bank Act was passed as an auxiliary to the financial arm of the Government in the prosecution of the war, and the theory that the lending of money to the Government is an indispensable requisite to a charter under that act has never been abandoned, each bank being still required to have a certain minimum of its capital invested in United States bonds, whether it issues circulating notes or not. Congress might consent to some changes in the present law to bring it nearer to the views of the Pan-American Committee, but that it will give any serious attention to a special charter for an international bank is most improbable. In our judgment it ought not to do so.

An association has been formed in this country to get up a monster petition to the Czar of Russia in behalf of the Siberian prisoners, which, praiseworthy as its object is, is rather unfortunate in its phraseology. It sets out by informing the Czar that the end of his Government and ours is substantially the same—a proposition which, unfortunately, a great many people would dispute. There ought not to be disputable propositions in a petition. But the passage most open to criticism is that in which his mercy is invoked on account of the sympathy he showed the United States during the war of the Rebellion; and it is hinted that it was the presence of his war-ships "in our harbors" which prevented the interference of foreign Powers in favor of the South. All this seems to us sadly out of place. The one ground of interference in Russian affairs at all is our common humanity, which is shockingly outraged in the Russian prisons. All other claims to a hearing from the Czar on this subject are too trivial for mention. It makes no difference what the aim of his Government is, or what his father did with his little fleet during our war. When a sovereign allows a delicate woman to be flogged to death naked in the presence of soldiers, in spite of the protests of the prison doctor, without punishing or disowning the men who were guilty of such frightful barbarity, there is only one argument which civilized men can fitly use to him. If we petition him at all, we ought not to beat about the bush in search of excuses for addressing him, or cover our appeal with a discourse on political philosophy, or with reminiscences of by-gone civilities. It is as a man, and in the name of outraged human nature, he should be addressed by foreigners. He ought to be told, in courteous language of course, that any one who in our time permits, or connives at, or orders such atrocities is considered throughout Christendom an enemy of the human race.

The German Emperor seems to be revelling in the "glorious privilege"—which the French used to reserve for the rulers of their nation—"of astonishing the world." His mental as well as bodily activity is exciting alarm all over Europe, and is increasing the apprehension of some brain trouble which the family history would seem to justify. He has got rid of Bismarck in order to establish personal as distinguished from ministerial government; has stirred up the Socialistic question as it has never before been stirred up in any country in the world; appears to be disgusting his army by means of startling innovations, and sudden and irritating deliverances on questions of discipline and manners; and has managed to offend the Jews by excepting them from the proposal to admit officers of what the French used to call *roturier* extraction, to regiments hitherto reserved for those whom the Germans, by a droll abbreviation, call "born," *i. e.*, of noble birth. We doubt, however, if there is thus far anything in his conduct to inspire doubts as to his sanity. He is, as has been said, simply acting as a young Prussian lieutenant might be expected to act who found himself suddenly raised to a position of enormous power. In the last century his performances would have excited little or no surprise. What makes them seem queer now is the light which they throw on the hereditary principle when embodied in absolutism, and applied to the government of a highly complex social organization like Germany. The attempt of a heady youth to make use of it suddenly brings out all its absurdity, and will probably greatly hasten its abolition. Its only chance of prolonging its existence in any country lies in hiding itself, as in England, behind a responsible Ministry.

THE FIRST AMERICAN CORRUPT-PRACTICES ACT.

NEW YORK has the honor to be the first State in the Union to put a law modelled upon the English Corrupt-Practices Act upon its statute-books. That Governor Hill, after obstinately refusing for three years to allow the State to secure a Ballot-Reform Law, should have consented to sign such an act, is one of the most inscrutable performances of his public career. In spite of his laborious constitutional objections to ballot reform, there is no doubt in anybody's mind that his real reason for opposing it is, that he and his most powerful party followers believe it would be a fatal obstacle to the political methods by which they have been in the habit of carrying elections. Yet the Corrupt-Practices Act, which was designed by its author, Senator Saxton, as a reform measure sequential to his Ballot Bill, is certain to prove to be a formidable if not fatal obstacle to those same methods. If its enactment had been accompanied by that of the Ballot Bill, the two measures together would have completely abolished the most pernicious evils of our elections.

By itself the Corrupt-Practices Act is certain to accomplish most salutary reforms. Its provisions, which are very minute and stringent, are aimed both against the briber and the bribed. The former is forbidden, either by himself or through any other person, to influence in any possible manner, either by bribery, loan, persuasion, promise of money or office or anything of value, the vote of another; and the latter is forbidden to submit to such influence either by voting in accordance with it or by refraining from voting. The specifications are drawn with great minuteness, and cover any possible form of bribery—influence, betting, intimidation, coercion, or restraint, or threats of reduced wages by employers by the use of "pay envelopes," and all the other familiar methods. Every point seems to be carefully covered by specific mention, except that of "assessments" upon candidates. That is not forbidden in terms, but it is not unlikely that the evil will be found to have been greatly diminished, if not practically abolished, by the requirement of sworn publication of all expenditures after election.

It is this requirement which is, in fact, the vital point of the new law. We have had on our statute-books since 1842 a comparatively stringent law against the improper use of money in elections, but it has been a dead letter, simply because there was no means by which a public accounting could be required of the amount of money actually spent. Now, such an accounting can be demanded in a manner which will make the corrupt use of large sums of money practically impossible without peril of detection and punishment, for the Saxton Law says:

"Every candidate who is voted for at any public election held within this State shall, within ten days after such election, file, as hereinafter provided, an itemized statement, showing in detail all the moneys contributed or expended by him, directly or indirectly, by himself or through any other person, in aid of his election. Such statement shall give the names of the various persons who received such moneys, the specific nature of each item, and the purpose for which it was expended or contributed. There shall be attached to such statement an affidavit subscribed and sworn to by such candidate, setting forth in substance that the statement thus made is in all respects true, and that the same is a full and detailed statement of all moneys so contributed or expended by him directly or indirectly, by himself or through any other person, in aid of his election."

These sworn statements must be filed by all candidates for State offices with the Secretary of State, and by all candidates for local and municipal offices with the county clerks. Failure or neglect by a candidate to file them will be a misdemeanor, punishable by imprisonment in a county jail for not less than three months nor more than one year. Any elected candidate who is convicted of using bribery or any form of undue influence mentioned in the law, either through himself or his agent, not only will be punished by imprisonment, but will have to forfeit his office. Any voter convicted of accepting a bribe of any sort will be punished by imprisonment of not less than three months and not more than one year, and will be excluded from the right of suffrage for five years.

It is easy to see that the sworn publication of itemized accounts of every dollar received, the source from which it comes, and the use to which it is put, will be of enormous advantage to the cause of honest elections. These sworn statements will be open to the public, and the politicians may depend upon it that they will all be published in the newspapers. It will be possible, of course, so long as we do not have a law providing for the printing and distribution of the ballots at the public expense, for candidates to use considerable sums of money for those purposes. They can swear that certain sums were necessary for the printing of ballots, and certain other sums for the hiring of men to distribute them at the polls, but they will have to give itemized accounts in both cases. It will be very difficult for a candidate in this city who has been "assessed," say, for $10,000 or $20,000, to account for the use of all that money without making himself liable to some of the penalties of the law for undue influence of one kind or another.

There are several defects in the law which make it inferior to its English model. The most serious, next to not forbidding "assessments," is the lack of a requirement for sworn publication by campaign committees. This was embodied in the law which passed one house of the Massachusetts Legislature last year, and it would have greatly strengthened Mr. Saxton's measure. The Massachusetts bill not only prescribed a penalty for a failure to make a return, but also for a false statement in a return, which we are surprised to see is wholly lacking in the Saxton Law. In other respects, however, the latter is a much stronger measure than the Massachusetts proposal, and we are confident that in practice it will be found to work well in spite of the defects. Publicity of expenditures is a requirement of infinite possibilities for good. It would have been of great additional advantage if we could have had with it, as the English law has, a provision fixing a maximum of expenditure in all cases. In some recent comments upon the operation of this provision in the English act, we remarked that it had proved unnecessary because in practice the maximum had been found to be at least one-third higher than the actual expenditure. A valued English correspondent, who has the best of reasons for speaking intelligently upon the subject, assures us that what has kept the expenditure so low has been the fear in the mind of the candidate, or of his agent, of exceeding the maximum and of thus causing the former to lose his seat if elected. He says the "maximum limit looms largely in the agent's mind, and is the most useful of weapons to keep down expenses everywhere on everything." That is a very strong argument in its favor.

It will be seen that while the Saxton Law is not a perfect measure, it is a most important step in advance. It will be much easier to amend and strengthen it than it was to secure its adoption.

THE PROPOSED DUTY ON FLAX.

THE howl that is now going up from the Republican manufacturers of New England is likely to cause us to forget that the tariff is being revised by and for its friends, but much information is being elicited showing who are the friends of particular duties and the reasons for such friendships. There has been an occasional suspicion that some of these friends were not entirely disinterested in their affection, and the present action of Mr. McKinley's Committee is bringing to light some dissensions among friends that are distressing. The proposal of this committee to double the duty on raw flax is an instance of this kind. At the series of hearings last January, in which the Committee allowed the manufacturers of this country to march up the hill in order to give them the privilege of marching down again, certain linen-manufacturers asked for free raw material, while others opposed any change in the duties, and even asked for some increase. The latter frankly admitted that the lack of any flax grown in this country suitable for spinning into fine yarn forced them to import their raw material, while they gave no sufficient reasons for their demands. As the Mills bill put flax on the free list, while the present Committee proposes to double the duty, a review of the subject will throw light on the character of the arguments that prevailed with them.

In spite of the tariff, no linen cloth, with the exception of a small amount of coarse towelling, is made in this country, and no flax fit for spinning into linen is grown here. Five or six large mills, and as many small ones, engaged in making thread and twine, represent our linen industry. The total capital invested does not exceed ten millions of dollars, and the annual product of five millions is about the same as the sum annually paid in duties on the imports of flax and linen. This meagre showing is not due to any lack of enterprise on the part of our manufacturers, but the historian of the linen

industry can point to some forty or fifty mills that have sunk several millions of dollars in the vain attempt to make a profit in the manufacture of linen. The American Linen Company of Fall River, the Willimantic Linen Company, and the Sprague Linen Company, not to mention others, are monuments of failure, and largely from the difficulty in getting their raw material. The strength and durability of linen, however, make it superior to other fibres, and a duty of 40 per cent. enables a few mills to make shoe-thread and twine.

There is a great deal of flax grown in this country, especially in the Northwest. Considerably more than a million acres are annually sown with flax, and the crop of twelve or thirteen million bushels of seed brings in the market a dollar or more a bushel. The Western farmer enjoys a substantial protection for this crop in the duties on linseed oil and oil cake, the products of the seed. He uses flax as a first crop on new ground, sows the seed thinly, and the plants grow luxuriantly, without cultivation, bearing a heavy crop of seed at the ends of the many branches. When the seed is fully ripe, the flax is cut by a horse reaper, the seed threshed out by machine, and the straw is left in a tangled mass on the field to be burned; and yet fine-dressed flax is worth from five to seven hundred dollars a ton at the mills, and it is estimated that over a million tons of this Western flax are annually burned to get rid of it. The McKinley Committee is ready to be persuaded that a simple increase of the tariff will enable the farmer to market his flax at these prices, but it is no more possible to metamorphose this straw, which can yield only a short, coarse fibre, into the valuable product than it is to gather figs from thistles, and intelligent farmers know it in spite of resolutions by boards of trade.

Fine flax can only be produced by great care in its cultivation and subsequent treatment. The French or Belgian farmer rarely plants more than a half or a quarter of an acre in flax. The ground is thoroughly manured, and ploughed, harrowed, and spaded until the soil is as light and fine as in a market garden; the seed is sown thickly, and the growing plants must be kept free from weeds. This necessary weeding is generally done by the farmers' wives and children on their hands and knees. As the plants stand thickly together, the stalks grow long and slender, without branches, thus giving a fine long fibre and few seeds. Before the seed is fully ripe, the plants are pulled by the roots from the ground and carefully dried and bound in bundles. This much any skilful farmer, who is able to employ the necessary labor, can do, but the subsequent processes necessary to separate the marketable fibre from the woody pith and outer bark require so much technical knowledge and mechanical skill that the preparation of flax fibre is a trade in itself to be learned. The first process of "retting," by which the fibre is loosened, is accomplished by prolonged action of water on the straw. The success of this often disagreeable operation determines the value of the flax; if the action of the water goes on too long, or if it is stopped too soon, the fibre may be seriously injured. The flax must then be "scutched," or pounded, to remove the "shives" or wood, and this dirty process must be performed by the farmer, as the unscutched flax is too bulky for profitable transportation. The flax is then in a marketable condition, but before it is ready for spinning, it must be "hackled," or drawn over a steel comb until the chaff and tow are cleaned out.

The reader will now see why the American farmer does not grow fine flax when he has so many easier crops. The seed crop gives him sufficient profit, and the fibre can be grown only at the expense of the seed and at an outlay for manual labor that he cannot afford, even if he had the time or inclination to acquire the necessary skill to prepare the fibre for market. It is not surprising, therefore, that although the duties on flax have been considerably increased since they were imposed in 1861, the American farmer abandoned flax-growing as soon as cheap cotton fabrics could be had for domestic use. In 1860, with flax on the free list, the census showed a production of five million pounds. In 1870 the war tariff of 1861 on dressed flax was increased nearly 200 per cent., and the census of 1880 gave a production of only a million and a-half of pounds, and to-day we are entirely dependent on the foreign supply.

When, therefore, a manufacturer asks for an increase of the duty on his raw material under these circumstances, there is some other reason than pure affection for the tariff. In this case, so far as we can learn, the laws of trade have not made an equal division of the business of furnishing linen thread to consumers among the competing mills, and a few manufacturers think they see a chance for Congress to help them in gaining an advantage over successful competitors. The American flax-mills use, for the most part, only the "dressed line," and have comparatively little use for the short fibres or tow combed out in the hackling process, which they are sometimes forced to reexport. Certain manufacturers have intimate connections with large foreign mills which, of course, have ample facilities for buying the best flax from the farmers. These mills dress the flax, use the short fibres for coarse goods, and send the dressed product to their correspondents in America. The mills that rely on foreign purchasing agents or on small foreign connections, or dress their flax here, finding a market for the short fibres they are forced to import, seek to neutralize the advantage their competitors have thus by securing an increase of 100 per cent. in the duty on dressed flax, with a corresponding increase on the finished product, sheltering themselves behind the alleged interests of the Western farmer and American labor.

The consumers of linen thread are, however, beginning to cry out, and the shoe-manufacturers throughout the country are protesting against this scheme. This proposal, if it becomes law, will either increase the cost of shoes or the shoe-manufacturer will seek cheaper and less efficient substitutes in the form of cotton thread or metallic fastenings, already used to a large extent. In the latter case these friends of the tariff will have bitten off their own noses, and in any case it remains to be seen whether the new duty will be omnipotent to equalize all advantages in trade. If it does, these manufacturers may well cry, Great is the tariff, and McKinley is its prophet!

A LITTLE STORY ABOUT ORES.

ANY one who has access to the new tariff bill reported by Mr. McKinley will find under the *free list* a little, unobtrusive, three-word paragraph, "ores of nickel." These ores, under the existing tariff, are subjected to duty when imported of 15 cents per pound on the nickel contained therein, which is the equivalent of a little more than 35 per cent. ad valorem. This provision especially commends itself to all advocates of tariff reform, who believe that all crude substances, like ores, for use in manufacturing should be allowed free importation. But the question naturally arises, Why should ores of nickel be given a privilege of exemption from tariff taxes which is persistently denied to ores of iron; although nickel-mining is comparatively an infant industry which might profitably be developed in Arkansas, North Carolina, and other places, where the United States Geological Survey reports indications of ore, if only a sufficiently protective duty on the importation of ores of nickel were given and continued? Why is it, also, that one man from Pennsylvania can get an exemption from duty payments on the foreign ore that he wants, while hundreds of manufacturers in New England have not the ghost of a chance, under a Republican Administration, of getting a like exemption on a much more necessary foreign ore that they want, and are becoming impoverished from a denial of it? The answer is, Because the one man from Pennsylvania—Joseph Wharton by name—who has before openly confessed that he had fixed a former tariff to suit himself, has again, with Mr. McKinley's coöperation and permission, fixed the proposed tariff.

Mr. Wharton is a pioneer, in the United States, in the working and application of nickel. He fixed the tariff rates before 1883 so high that the importation of the ores and alloys of nickel was practically impossible. He has supplied the United States Treasury, at prices thus made artificially high, with metallic nickel required for the five-cent coinage; he has controlled the price in a large degree to American manufacturers who desired to use the nickel for the production of German silver and for nickel-plating; and he has made a large fortune thereby. It was stated on the floor of the United States Senate in January, 1883, that producing nickel for a number of years at from 50 to 70 cents per pound, he sold it from $2 to $2.75 per pound, "because there was then a scarcity of it in the whole world." Against these exactions the Connecticut manufacturers finally kicked, and, through the efforts of their Senators, Messrs. Hawley and Platt, the duties were reduced in 1883 from 30 cents on the ore and 20 cents on the

alloys of nickel to the existing rates of 15 cents. Pending the action of Congress on this subject, Mr. Wharton published and distributed a pamphlet, in which the efforts of those who were attempting to abate the tariff on his pet product were thus characterized:

"It is pitiful," he says, "to think that the industries of our country should be at the mercy of legislators some of whom are actually hostile, and many of whom are so ignorant as to think that any lie of the busy agents of our national industrial enemies—mostly small barking creatures—should be believed when even not understood, and that the statements of a fellow-citizen should be disbelieved and cheapened simply because he is a fellow-citizen. It would be ludicrous, if it were not lamentable, that a tree bearing good fruit should be cut down by legislators" (*i. e.*, the Senators from Connecticut) "who know little more about the subject than a cow knows about Sunday. I have aided and supported the Government more than it has aided and supported me. I am one of the men who create and maintain the prosperity of the nation, and make it to survive the affliction of cranky legislators. We are the toiling oxen who make the nation's harvest, notwithstanding the gadflies."

Congress, however, reduced the duty, and to this extent Mr. Wharton's "tree bearing good fruit" was cut down. But the tree, nevertheless, continued to flourish, and the domestic demand and consumption of nickel has largely increased.

Nickel, however, is not here an abundant mineral. There are many indications of its presence in the rocks of the United States, but the only mine that has ever had any marked commercial value in this country is one owned by Mr. Wharton in Lancaster County, Pennsylvania; and so long as it was profitable for him to work it, he wanted the highest possible tariff on the importation of all competing ores and products, and Senator Platt of Connecticut was wicked enough to say, in the Senate in 1883, that Mr. Wharton closed this mine whenever an overproduction of its ores threatened to reduce the price of nickel to American consumers. The Lancaster mine was, however, a lean mine under any circumstances—its ores yielding only about 2 per cent. of nickel—and the discovery of a richer American mine was something greatly to be desired. This discovery has now been made; but, unfortunately for Mr. Wharton, the new mine is situated outside of the United States—namely, in Canada, at Sudbury, on the line of the Canadian Pacific Railroad—and Mr. Wharton cannot get its ores without paying the highly protective duty of 35 per cent., for the incorporation of which in our tariff laws in past years he has been mainly responsible. The boot being now on the other leg, Mr. Wharton, so far as nickel ores are concerned, has become a rampant free-trader. He has published a pamphlet setting forth in the strongest terms the great benefit that would accrue from a complete reciprocity of trade and a free exchange of all products between the United States and Canada; but as this event is in the dim distance, he has laudably initiated this good work by persuading the Ways and Means Committee to remove the existing duties on the import of the Canadian ores of nickel.

We do not observe, however, that the Committee propose to abate in any degree the protection now accorded to the products which Mr. Wharton will undoubtedly manufacture out of the Canadian free ores; and yet not to do so will result in increasing such protection from 35 to 50 or 60 per cent., with resulting profit to him which the consumers of nickel will probably not share. We have not noticed, either, that Mr. Wharton's voice has been raised in favor of the immediate free importation of Canadian ores of iron or copper in conjunction with the ores of nickel.

In short, what better example could be afforded of the sectional thimble-rigging policy that characterizes the reconstruction of the existing tariff by the Republican party through its representatives in the present Congress? If Pennsylvania wants anything, its demands are laudable and rational and readily granted. If New England asks anything of an analogous character, its requests are sectional, unpatriotic, and sure to be refused.

But perhaps we do Mr. Wharton injustice. If such is the case, we shall expect to see some of his friends in Congress, when the McKinley bill comes up for discussion, and the paragraph placing nickel ore on the free list is reached, rise on the floor of the House and move that ores of iron and of copper be added thereto. But from past experiences we shall rather expect to see Mr. Wharton rise up and in a forcible letter explain why such a motion would be wholly irrelevant, and the act of "the small barking creatures" that represent New England.

CONGRESS AND PATRONAGE.

THE special Committee of the National Civil-Service-Reform League appointed to inquire into the condition of the Federal civil service and the operation of the reform law, has made a report which is full of valuable and interesting information derived from unimpeachable authorities, being no other than the Congressional dispensers of patronage under the spoils system.

The Committee held its first meeting in Philadelphia on the 15th of February, and outlined its general plan of work, deciding to make inquiries, as early as possible, in regard to the system of Congressional patronage, and ascertain to what extent appointments to office were still controlled by members of Congress, and to what degree this patronage interfered with their proper legislative duties. It is in regard to this branch of the investigation that the Committee now makes its report. Mr. William D. Foulke of Indiana, the Chairman of the Committee, addressed to every Republican member of the House of Representatives a set of five questions, framed to bring out the facts. Of course, many Congressmen sent no reply whatever, and a number of others replied that they had not the data at hand to answer these inquiries, but some twenty-four answers were received which gave more or less completely the information asked for. These twenty-four answers constitute the most valuable part of the report.

The first question was, "How many offices are there in your district or elsewhere, where the appointments depend upon you?" The answers ran all the way up from "ten or fifteen fourth-class postmasters" to "about 800," the average giving about 250 appointments dependent upon each Congressman. "How many applications for office have you received during the past year?" was the second question, and here the answers ranged all the way up from "sixty," through such estimates as "about five hundred," "not far from one thousand," "about two thousand," and "at least eight or nine thousand written applications, to say nothing of the verbal requests," to the discouraged Congressman who replies: "It is impossible for me to say how many applications for office I have received during the past twelve months, but they have been almost innumerable." Averaging the reports of those who use figures, the Committee concludes that the number of applications for offices made to each Congressman is something over 1,700.

The third and fourth questions were with reference to the average amount of correspondence required for each such application, and the amount of time required to conduct this correspondence and attend to appointments. The estimates here vary greatly, one Congressman saying "perhaps two letters each," another "probably five letters each," and another "about a dozen letters each." "About one-tenth of my time," is the most favorable report made by any one, and from this minimum the record runs up, through "about half the time" and "eight to ten hours per day," to "all the time I could get." Two or three replies are worth quoting in full:

> "During the past year more than three-quarters of my time in the day was given to attending to appointments, and late every evening (except Sunday) was given to my correspondence, with the valuable assistance of a stenographer, and even then I found it impossible to answer more than half or two-thirds of my correspondence."
>
> "A low estimate of the average amount of correspondence which each of these applications requires on my part would be five in each case, or between four and five thousand letters in all. If it were not for the distribution of these offices, it would be easy for me to conduct my official correspondence personally, but as it is, a secretary is required, and the burden of the office greatly increased."
>
> "One prolonged and continuous correspondence; the constant and entire time of both myself and secretary would not suffice."

The Committee conclude from these answers that it is not an extravagant estimate to say that "more than one-third of the entire time of these Congressmen (time which should properly be devoted to their legislative duties) is consumed in the distribution of offices," and point out that the condition of affairs in this respect does not seem to have changed very greatly from the time when Gen. Garfield, in his speech at Williams College, said: "One-third of the working hours of Senators and Representatives is hardly sufficient to meet the demands made upon them in reference to appointments for office."

The last question on the list was as to

whether any elections had been held in the Congressman's district to determine who the appointee should be, and, if so, with what result. About half of the twenty-four report experiments in this direction, chiefly in the choice of postmasters, but a number of these report as the result "difficulty and dissatisfaction," "increased strife," etc. "They have resulted in bitterness and strife," says one Congressman, "and did more to engender animosities and ill-will between the patrons of the office than any other method I could have adopted for settling post-office contentions; hence I have not favored them, and henceforth shall discourage them where I can." An account of one such election is so amusing that it deserves to be given in full:

"I have held one election only under this Administration, and that had a most disastrous result. It resulted in several men losing their characters, one or two were turned out of church, and all was turmoil and confusion. Carriages were hired to bring voters fourteen miles distant, and citizens of another State voted. The doors of the polling-places were broken in. Democrats were allowed to vote. There were no safeguards about the polls. No oaths were required, and there was no respect for the election. The judges certified the election of one man, but sent a statement with the certification that the election was carried by fraud, the same name appearing upon both papers. The consequence was, I went outside for the postmaster, and chose a man who had not voted and took no part in the fight. He moved into town and took the office (worth not more than $150 per year); but they would have torn the election nominee to pieces if I had recommended him. I look upon these elections as a party disaster."

The Committee found plenty of evidence that Congressmen themselves are sick of the spoils system. "This patronage business is a great nuisance," says one; "I think that during the last twelve months the lives of most of the Republican members of Congress have been made miserable by the post-office controversies in their Congressional districts," writes another; while a third says: "I gave two hours a day to candidates for office all last summer, throwing open a room to them six days out of the week. Of course it was an imposition, but I do not want to be put in the attitude of complaining of my constituents so long as the system exists."

Every such showing as this is of value, because it throws fresh light upon the odious nature of the spoils system. Publicity is the worst foe to this as to all other abuses, and the best service which reformers can render the cause is to lay before the people such facts as this report contains.

FRENCH INTEREST IN BISMARCK'S RETIREMENT.

PARIS, April 3, 1890.

THE retirement of Prince Bismarck is surrounded with so much obscurity that it is hard to foresee its political consequences. For the present, this great event—for it is a great event, the greatest, perhaps, since the war of 1870—strikes us only on what I might call its dramatic side. Curiously enough, the feeling which is generally felt in France for the German Chancellor is a feeling of sympathy—a sympathy which is hardly confessed, as Prince Bismarck was one of the principal actors, if not the principal actor, in the events of 1870 and 1871. At the same time, rightly or wrongly, the French have always thought that, personally, Bismarck was not in favor of the annexation of the French provinces to France; that he would have been contented with a large war-indemnity. It is difficult to say on what grounds this belief has been founded. Bismarck, after Sadowa, did not take a single village from the Austrian possessions; he contented himself with political advantages: he established the Prussian hegemony in Germany, and forced Austria out of the Confederation; he showed no desire to add to the Prussian possessions any part of Bohemia or Moravia.

M. Thiers and M. Pouyer-Quertier, who were the French negotiators of the Treaty of Frankfort, were not unfavorably impressed with Bismarck. Thiers always thought that he had gained an easy victory over him when he succeeded in retaining for France Belfort and its territory, which commands the entrance to Alsace through the Vosges. A sort of legend was formed, in virtue of which Bismarck had, with regard to Metz and even to Alsace, his hand forced by the military party, by Moltke and the Emperor.

Since the war the chief object of Bismarck has been the preservation of peace. He has always shown the greatest courtesy to all the men, whoever they were, who have been in power in France. At various times he has proved his pacific sentiments by acts, for instance, in the case of the unfortunate Schnaebelé incident, when he did not hesitate a moment to give up a Frenchman unjustly and illegally arrested on German territory. A conviction had thus by degrees been formed in all French minds that the policy of Bismarck with regard to France was defensive, not offensive; he was even anxious to soothe the wounded feelings of France: he was desirous of offering to her political advantages, as long as they were not detrimental to Germany. He had played a friendly part in the events which preceded and which followed the occupation of Tunis by France. When King Alfonso of Spain became the object of a scandalous demonstration, on his arrival in Paris from Berlin, where he had been made honorary colonel of a regiment, Bismarck shut his eyes on what he might have considered an insult to his Emperor and to his country.

It would be idle to discuss here the claims and counter-claims of France and Germany to Alsace. Everybody feels instinctively that the settlement of this question is not definitive; it is mere hypocrisy to say that the tremendous armaments of Europe have no other object than the preservation of peace. It used to be said, "Si vis pacem, para bellum"; we can say now, "Si vis bellum, para bellum." At the same time, we should all like to put off the evil day. Precisely because we are so anxiously preparing for war, because we have made up our minds to bear its terrible consequences, we think we can wait for a good opportunity. A man who has resolved to commit suicide may enjoy life for a few hours more, and look eagerly on all he is willing to lose. The preparation for war is not at all incompatible with the love of peace. In our provinces, the peasantry remember well the sufferings of the war of 1870; the deputies who represent our rural population are obliged to express pacific sentiments. It is only in a few cities that chauvinism finds a few adepts. All these considerations will help to explain why Prince Bismarck, who was known to be sincerely devoted to the cause of peace, had gained in France a certain sort of sympathy, which could not be called popularity, merely because popularity is not unattended with a noisy and outward expression.

The French had come to the belief that Bismarck would never abandon power as long as he lived, and his life was in their eyes a guarantee of peace. Looking back on their own history, they had the examples of the fidelity of Louis XIII. to Richelieu, of Louis XIV. to Mazarin. It was only after the death of Mazarin that Louis XIV. said: "I will govern now by myself." The German Louis XIV. has not had as much patience, he has sent his Chancellor to Friedrichsruhe. It is no secret that the retirement of Bismarck is not voluntary; he never expected that his resignation would be definitely accepted—he thought that the young Emperor would, like his grandfather, write on it "Nimmer!" The ovation which he received, on his departure from Berlin, probably did not console him for what he must consider the ingratitude of his sovereign. To one of his friends he said, in a moment of anger (so, at least, I have heard): "The Hohenzollern made Prussia, I made the German Empire." This proud affirmation is justified by the history of the last forty years. History will always look upon Bismarck as one of the founders, if not as the principal founder, of the new empire. He has varied his means, the choice of his instruments, his alliances; he has never varied his object. He has worked, sometimes by diplomatic, sometimes by parliamentary, means, sometimes with "blood and iron," to give the German people the place which they ought to have in Europe, in order to guarantee the new German unity against all its adversaries. He has realized the dream of all German thinkers, what was in the heart of all the representatives of German culture, and his work was accomplished under the greatest difficulties.

Remember the old divisions of the German princes, the impotence of the Diet, the subserviency of so many courts to Russia. Bismarck found his first occasion in the Danish Duchies; he united Prussia and Austria in a common action. But this union could not long be maintained: the Empire of the Napoleons had been reëstablished in France and was a permanent danger to Germany. Bismarck succeeded in gaining the neutrality of Napoleon III. while he established the hegemony of Prussia, established a new confederacy, and excluded Austria from it. He was, however, after Sadowa, unwilling to seize any of the Austrian provinces; he was thinking already of the necessity of uniting some day the old empire and Prussia, so as to make a great Germany, and to preserve its influence in the valley of the Danube and in the peninsula of the Balkans. I will not dwell on the political events which followed the war of 1870. The new German Empire was founded, and Bismarck was employed in organizing it and in securing it against all possible dangers. So long as Alexander II. lived, the alliance called the alliance of the three Emperors was considered a sufficient safeguard. Alexander had remained neutral during the war, and his respect and affection for his uncle were unbounded; as for the Emperor of Austria, he knew that he had to choose between an alliance with the new German Empire or a total disruption of his own States. Austria is a composite empire; the German provinces can now remain loyal only if their German sentiments are satisfied, and they can only be satisfied if the Emperor of Austria and the German Emperor work harmoniously in the field of politics.

Things began to assume a different aspect after the death of Alexander. We have, ever since that moment, seen the development of the strong enmity of Russia towards Germany. So long as this instinctive feeling found expression only in literature, in the universities, in academic circles, it might be considered

harmless; it became dangerous when Russia had for its sovereign a Czar more Russian than all the Russians, a complete incarnation of all the national feelings and aspirations. The Turkish war and the Treaty of Berlin put an end to the old alliance of the three Emperors. Russia thought herself cheated of the results of her sacrifices, not only by the arrogance of England, but also by the treachery of Germany. Ever since, Russia and Germany have been in a state of latent hostility. Russia has been like a sword of Damocles over the heads of the German people. Bismarck felt the danger. He showed great ability in finding a new ally in Italy, and in determining Austria to accept this new alliance. The Triple Alliance became the substitute for the old alliance of the Emperors, and year by year it was made more binding as the preparations of Russia became more visible. Thanks to the Triple Alliance, to the attitude of the Conservative Government of England, peace seemed assured; and now it seems as if a page of the book of history had been turned. Speculations as to the future have become vague and uncertain. Diplomatically, politically, a great change has taken place. If Bismarck had died, this sensation of uncertainty and almost of awe would not be so great, since death must come for every man; but we cannot help saying: "He is alive, and why is he gone—why is he gone?"

ITALY'S BURDENS UNDER THE TRIPLE ALLIANCE.

MANTUA, March 28, 1890.

"THERE is nothing which the European Powers could agree on to help laborers except the reduction of the huge standing armies. These enormous armaments constitute the only burden on labor which it is in the power of the governments to remove. . . . The occasion might be turned to good account if the small Powers were to join in a vigorous protest against the size of the German, Austrian, Russian, French, and Italian armies."

These pithy sentences, culled from the *Nation* of March 6, sum up all that is written or said, in Italy at least, about the Labor Conference now sitting in Berlin. Naturally, the Italian Government sent representatives, all men of profound economical studies—Senator Boccardo, Deputy Ellena, and the indefatigable director of the Statistical Department attached to the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, Commendatore Bodio; all equally adverse to State Socialism (Cæsarian Socialism especially), and to truckling by the State to any sort or set of demagogues. But the act is simply one of courtesy to a young and friendly ally, and the instructions imparted resemble those given to us in our youth, "to be seen and not heard."

During the last twenty years, and especially since 1882, some excellent laws termed social have been passed to assist the various attempts of the working classes to help themselves—passed after long debates and careful precautions to avoid any appearance of class legislation. The one question which seems to meet with general affirmative sanction at the Labor Congress—the work of children—was debated for years in the Chamber and the Senate. We remember that Senator Rossi, protectionist, and notable for his industrial schemes for the working classes, was strongly opposed to legislation for the protection of children. But in August, 1886, an excellent law was passed, based on the reports of physicians and commissioners of health, showing that deformity, scrofula, chest and brain affections were greatly on the increase, and especially among the children working in mines and in manufactories. According to the new regulations, no child under fifteen should be allowed to work in unhealthy or dangerous trades or industries. Each parish was to furnish every child under fifteen with a ticket or book, to be filled up by the heads of factories or mines, setting forth the age of the children employed, with the health certificate of the parish doctor. It is shown by the recent inquiry made by the present Minister of Agriculture that of 8,257 communes, only 1,640 have in four years furnished children with these books, and that in unhealthy and dangerous occupations children of all ages are still at work. Night work was forbidden to children under twelve; here the protests of the silk-producing industries prevailed, the age was reduced to nine, and eight hours of work allowed. Other trades demonstrated that to take away the children was to stop the work of the adults. In short, though something has been gained, the law is deftly eluded by the masters of industrial establishments who can get cheap work from children, and by the parents of the same, only too thankful to add their earnings to the scant stock of the family.

Only during the last eight years have the working classes and their friends sought for any assistance from Parliament. Until 1882, the political suffrage was restricted to little more than half-a-million. The reform bill of January of that year extended the political vote to all male citizens who could read and write sufficiently to demand the inscription of their name and age on the parish registers. About two millions and a half were thus registered, more than double that number of male citizens above twenty-one years of age being illiterate. The champions of the temporal power abstained, obeying the order from on high ("Neither electors nor deputies"). In agricultural districts the few new electors took little part in the first general election of 1882; in 1886 they bestirred themselves in some provinces. During both, however, the workingmen of the cities availed themselves of their newly acquired rights, and sent up to Parliament Radicals, Republicans, and some bona-fide Labor representatives. Only one avowed Socialist was elected, by the way, Andrea Costa. In this Parliament we see for the first time the principles of coöperation represented and defended by men of different political opinions. These same men we find again present at the coöperative meetings and congresses, where they explain what has been attempted and achieved, and what they still hope to secure for the future, as, to pass over other essential points, the aid which the Government can legitimately give to the coöperative *laborers*—that new and most hopeful form of coöperation which, during the last few years, has taken such firm root in the Romagna.

The métayer system—that half-profit arrangement so admired by Arthur Young and J. S. Mill, and still prevalent in Tuscany—has rapidly declined of late years in the ex-provinces of the Pope. Whole families of once well-to-do peasants were added to the already too numerous list of day-laborers who, first serving as mowers and reapers, are compelled during the winter months to become hedgers and ditchers, navvies, etc. The enormous public works undertaken by the Government—new railroads, the redemption of the Roman Campagna, etc.—gave them hopes of better times; but the method of Government contracts blasted these. The contractors have a system of their own. When a contract is put up at auction at a certain estimate, one big capitalist often buys off his competitors, and, by bidding at a lower price than the Government estimate, gets the contract. How can he make ends meet? By paying the out-of-work day-laborers to do all the rough and heavy, unskilled part of the work during the autumn, winter, and early spring months, paying them in the Romagna 1 franc, in the Polesine as little as 4 cents per day, for seven or eight hours' labor. The turbulent, intelligent, energetic *braccianti* of Ravenna formed a society, their sole capital consisting in their *braccia* ("arms"), a wheelbarrow, a spade and pickaxe apiece. They were 303 in number, and managed to save a franc per month, forming a capital of $120, so as to pay the deposit for the first work intrusted to them. This they executed quickly and well, waging no war against proprietors or capitalists, nor even against their arch enemy the *appaltatore*—the contractor. Their efforts were admired, then assisted: the savings bank of Ravenna lent them money, then citizens took shares "without dividends"—King Humbert, it is said, to the amount of $6,000—the Government gave them work in the Agro Romano. Having gained net $2,000 by works for the commune of Ravenna, with this they set up coöperative stores, an ambulance, an economical kitchen to follow their hands from place to place where work was given them. During the mowing and reaping season, in order to avoid giving offence to land-owners and tenants who had hitherto counted on their "arms," they detailed off by casting lots as many as were required for these operations. During the winter they earned on an average 3 francs instead of 1 per day, and some saved as much as $40 during the year, after contributing their proper share to the reserve fund.

This special society of Ravenna has now more than $40,000 of capital, and consists of over 2,000 members. Other societies were immediately formed on principles more or less soundly coöperative. That of Budrio has many well-to-do citizens among its members, who lent without interest $8,000 as deposits, so that the laborers could at once undertake contracts for a large sum. But these voluntary loans will not always be forthcoming: they are objected to by many as opposed to the true principles of coöperation. So exertions were made by the coöperative deputies to get a little law ("leggina") passed which should enable the Government to contract with the societies themselves on the same terms as with individuals. An article inserted in the new law of State accounts settled the question. The State, provinces, and communes may now concede to cooperative societies of workingmen, duly registered according to the regulations of the (new) code of commerce, public works to the amount of 100,000 francs ($20,000) without preliminary deposits—the payments to be made every fifteen days, one-tenth of each rate being retained until the completion of the works and their approval by the delegate. Hardly was the law sanctioned when the societies doubled their memberships. In the Polesine, where enormous emigration seems scarcely to have lessened the numbers of the day-laborers, the radical members promoted the societies and obtained work. As in the Romagna, the societies pledged themselves to assist one another, not to wage war on fixed wages, to admit even a third of non-laborers, to elect a technical committee, etc. On the other hand, the distrust engendered by the agricultural disturbances in Mantua and the Polesine in 1886 had left an amount of friction between owners and laborers of the soil which it is well should be removed. The question of finding immediate work was soon

solved by the coöperative society of Adria, which had assumed a Government contract including sundry works to be executed on the banks of the Adige at Ca Morosini in the district of Lendinara. Now to go and come from their work would have consumed the profits for the laborers of Adria; hence they ceded it to the society of Lendinara, sending their own president, a workingman, to superintend the work. Every morning at seven the men go in gangs to the banks; the work is paid so much per square metre; at twelve the work ceases and each man goes home to his dinner; then at two you will find most of them at work elsewhere, generally on contract for cutting and propping vines, digging ditches, felling trees, the ordinary winter occupations. Thus the district has few or no disoccupied laborers, and the weekly wages are often twelve francs, whereas in former winters they scarcely reached the half of that sum. Then, when the work is finished, there will be the 40 per cent. of the profits to be divided.

The country at the present moment is in a dismal financial plight. Land and income are overburdened with taxation: every article of common necessity is taxed. The rupture of commercial treaties has ruined many industries, banks have gone under, manufactories and industrial establishments failed; but, since the famous, or rather infamous, 8th of February outburst in Rome, 1889, there have been no violent disturbances, no demonstrations against the Government, no monster strikes or attacks on property. If Italy could be freed from the burdens of the Triple Alliance, she has uncultivated land enough for her surplus agricultural population, sufficient capital for the development of her industries and commerce. But, as the Prime Minister confessed yesterday in the Senate, more money is needed, more taxes must be levied. Hence his popularity of a year ago is on the decrease. Only when proposing a national monument to Giuseppe Mazzini, "the chief factor of Italian Unity in Rome," did the House vote unanimously. On all questions presented it is a house divided against itself. Possibly a dissolution is close at hand; but the electors well know that the new House must vote new taxes. Should the present Ministry fall, and so a Nicotera-Magliani Ministry succeed, the situation remains the same. Hence the resignation of Bismarck, the Labor Conference, have but one point of interest. The very question of peace or war is subordinate to that other question of general gradual disarmament. This peace armed to the teeth, say many, is worse than a short, sharp war; the present burdens are too heavy to be borne; any slightest addition would prove the proverbial feather on this most patient camel's back. Disarm! disarm! disarm! is the entreaty, the prayer of the people, addressed not to their own Government, which cannot back out of the engagements entered into by its predecessors, but to all the Powers of Europe equally concerned if not equally burdened. J. W. M.

P. S.—Even as I write comes the unwelcome news that the municipality of Rome, unable, as has been declared for months, to make ends meet, disappointed in its hopes of what the Government would (I should say could) do to help it, feeling the utter impossibility of filling up the deficit by fresh loans and still less fresh taxation, has resigned *en masse*. Thanks to the efforts of Baccarini and Menotti Garibaldi, the decision is suspended, but the *aut aut* of the Government is, "You must exhaust every effort to help yourselves before we can come to the rescue." The city of Naples also finds itself with a deficit of over two millions and a half. But how can the State, with its deficit of one hundred millions, with its ever-increasing expenses for war material, assist the provinces, the communes? The city of Milan, one of the wealthiest in the kingdom, has hard work to assist its disoccupied workmen. The entire population, rich and poor, aristocratic and ultra-democratic citizens, are straining their every nerve to help them; the King has just sent 10,000 francs from his own purse. But the fact is, that the utter stagnation in the industrial and commercial world cannot cease as long as the enormous burden of taxation continues to weigh on the entire country. The newly proposed tax on the importation of rice, added to the tax on imported grain, is a direct tax on the food of the very poorest, who, limited already in the quality of their food, must curtail the not too abundant quantity. But no legislation can alter these evils until the expenses are lessened by a third.

TOLSTOI'S 'KREUTZER SONATA.'

NIEDERDORF, TYROL, March 29, 1890.

WHAT are the legitimate bounds of realism? To what point is it permissible to describe in repulsive detail the hideous and unseemly things of this world, simply because they exist, when it is quite impossible to say what the effect will be upon thousands of people to whom such description conveys the first knowledge of the existence of evil? It has been proved that public executions, far from inspiring horror of the deeds which led to them, and deterring others from the commission of like deeds, through fear of the result thus presented, actually give rise to crimes copied after those which are thus brought to general attention. The same thing is true in the case of crimes which are minutely described in the newspapers. But books? On the whole, although a sensational realistic book may never reach as many people as an article published in the popular newspaper, it probably produces as much effect because of the weight and respectability which the binding and comparatively high price give to it.

One has occasion to reflect upon this topic rather frequently in these days of "psychological" romances; but it is not often necessary, I think, to meditate so seriously as one is forced to do over Count Lyoff Tolstoi's last story.

When I first reached Russia, in the autumn of 1887, I heard that Count Tolstoi was writing a new tale: it began on the railway, and a man murdered his wife, and it was to be of the searching psychological type exemplified by 'Ivan Ilyitch.' So much seemed to be known in well-informed circles. I asked no questions when I made the Count's acquaintance a year later. But one evening last July, during a visit which I made to Yasnaya Polyana, at the Countess's invitation, the Count spoke to me of his story as being near completion, and asked me to translate it when it should be finished. I promised, and inquired whether it was in a condition for me to read. "You may read the last version if you like," he answered, "but I would rather have you wait." His wife showed me sheets of the fourth version, which she was then copying, and advised me not to waste time in reading it, as it was quite likely that he might suddenly see the subject in a totally different light, and write it all over again from that point of view. So I read nothing, asked no questions, and waited, being informed from time to time that the book was progressing. How many different versions were finally made, I do not know, but this winter one of these versions began to make the rounds in Petersburg. The solitary manuscript flew rapidly from hand to hand. I was warned, however, that it or any copy from it would be imperfect, incomplete, and not approved by the author, who was at work upon the final version. I contented myself with the verdict of those who were too impatient to wait, and who had not been promised the first complete copy, as I had been. That verdict was, "Shocking!" "Beauties mingled with horrors," and so forth. It was said that it was not allowed to be printed—the usual cry; but, as there is nothing religious or political in it, its morality must have been the cause of the prohibition, if true.

At length I received the first copy of the genuine story (the second went to the Danish translator), with the information that, although the substance was nearly identical with that of the version which had already been circulating, and which was said to be in process of translation into foreign languages, the execution had been so altered that "not one stone was left upon another" in some places, while in others whole pages, and even chapters, had been completely rewritten by the author. My copy was corrected by the author especially with a view to translation, and was, therefore, to be regarded as the only one sanctioned by him for rendering into other tongues, and this version is yet unattainable in St. Petersburg.

Why, then, do I not translate a work from the famous and much-admired Russian author? Because, in spite of due gratitude to Count Tolstoi for favoring me with the first copy, and in spite of my faith in his conviction that such treatment of such a subject is needed and will do good, I cannot agree with him. It recalls the fable of his countryman, Kriloff, anent the man who borrowed his neighbor's water cask, used it for wine, and returned it impregnated with vinous fumes to such a degree that the unfortunate lender was obliged to throw it away, after using every possible means, during the space of two years, to expel the taint so that the water should be pure once more.

"Too frank and not decent," was one of the Petersburg verdicts upon this 'Kreutzer Sonata.' This is so true that, although thus forewarned, I was startled at the idea that it could possibly be beneficial, and, destroying the translation which I had begun, I wrote promptly to decline the task. It is probable that the author and his blindly devoted admirers will consider that I have committed an unpardonable sin. But they must remember that his "comedy," 'The Realm of Darkness,' although it was acted in private, in high Petersburg society, and in public in Paris, has never been translated into English, so far as I am aware, at least. I yield to no one in my admiration for and appreciation of Tolstoi's genius, as displayed in certain of his works. I tried to get American publishers to bring out 'War and Peace' and 'Anna Karenin' in 1881, five years before American readers were treated to the mangled versions of those works through the French. They declined, and one noted Boston publisher said, with great frankness: "No one in Russia knows how to write except Turgeneff, and he is far above the heads of Bostonians." I predicted a change of opinion, and if I am now morally compelled to appear unfaithful to my own former admiration, my regret is certainly more deep and sincere than even the regret of those who merely repent their failure to grasp an opportunity for making money, or of those who, consciously or unconsciously, follow the literary fashion of the hour.

But I will turn to the book. After making

due allowance for the ordinary freedom of speech, which has greater latitude in Russia (as elsewhere in Europe) than is customary in America, I find the language of the 'Kreutzer Sonata' to be too excessive in its candor. At the same time I admit that if that subject was to be treated in that way, no other language would have answered the purpose. I mention this first because it is the first thing which strikes the reader, and because it is also the special thing which hovers over the horrors of the tale with an added dread, and lingers long behind in the reader's mind, like a moral bad taste in the mouth. Next, the style and construction. The construction is good, as is usual with the author. The style errs in the direction in which all his books are faulty, viz., repetition. The unnecessary repetition of words or phrases occurs in his greatest works, while in the later, the polemical, writings, it has become greatly exaggerated. It forms a feature of this book, and although it gives strength at times, it is too marked on the whole. One must think that this tautology is deliberate on the author's part, since he is never in haste to publish uncorrected matter; but the result is harshness, which increases with every fresh work. Nevertheless, the book is well written. And the story? It is that of a man who kills his wife out of jealousy for a semi-professional violinist, who plays Beethoven's "Kreutzer Sonata" with her one evening.

The author begins by narrating how he is making a long journey by rail. In the compartment with him are a lawyer and a lady, masculine in appearance and attire, who converse, and a gray-haired man with brilliant eyes, who avoids all attempts to talk with him and utters a peculiar sound from time to time. A merchant and a clerk enter the railway carriage at one of the stations. A partly inaudible conversation between the masculine lady and the lawyer about some woman who has fallen out with her husband, leads the lawyer to remark upon the amount of attention which is being bestowed all over Europe upon the question of divorce, and to say that there was nothing of the sort in olden days. The merchant answers him that there were cases even in old times, but they were less frequent; and people had become too "cultured" nowadays. In the discussion which ensues, the merchant advocates the old-fashioned arrangement of marriages by parents, and strict government on the part of the husband, as most conducive to wedded happiness, alleging that love will come in due season. The masculine lady argues that it is stupid to join in marriage two people who do not love each other and then feel surprised if discord ensues between them, and that the day for such unions is past. The merchant maintains that the day for obeying the New Testament rule, "Let the wife fear her husband," will never pass away; that although unfaithfulness, which is assumed to be impossible on the part of the wife, may happen in other classes, in the merchant class it does not happen, and that the carouses of married men at the fair, which the narrator has heard him relating, and of which he reminds him, form a special topic which must be excluded from the discussion.

Here the merchant leaves the train, but the conversation is continued by the passenger with gray hair and brilliant eyes inquiring to what sort of love the masculine lady has reference. What is "true love," and how long must it last—a month, two days, or half an hour—when it has been defined as the preference for some one man or woman above all other men or women in the world? He contends that only in romances does this preference last for a lifetime, as per theory; whereas in real life it endures for a year, generally much less, and is felt by every man for every pretty woman; also, that this love is never mutual, and if it were, and if it lasted a lifetime on one side, it would not on the other. Identity of ideals, spiritual likeness, he does not admit as a ground for entering upon marriage. He gives a brief sketch of the manner, in his opinion, in which marriages are entered upon, winding up: "And the result of this is that frightful hell which makes men take to drink, shoot themselves, poison, and murder themselves and each other."

The lawyer, with a view to putting an end to the unseemly conversation, replies that "there are undoubtedly critical episodes in married life." Whereupon the speaker remarks: "I see that you recognize me. I am Pozdnisheff, the man with whom occurred the critical episode of murdering his wife." In fact, no one knows anything of him, but the lawyer and masculine lady change into another compartment as soon as possible, while Pozdnisheff offers to withdraw if his presence is disagreeable to the narrator. Finding that it is not, he offers to while away the night by relating the story of his life. I may remark here, in view of the above, that the author gives not a hint of his own opinion as to which is preferable, a marriage of love or a *mariage de convenance*, and also that some of the points suggested do not seem to be answered thereafter.

Pozdnisheff begins his tale with his introduction to evil at the age of sixteen. Shorn of digressions, his story would be brief. But the digressions attack many accepted views of things—or views which he says are accepted. The present order of society and life, modes of marriage, dress, and so forth, form the topics of these digressions. Pozdnisheff states that he has taken to analyzing the subject since his own life reached a climax in his crime. Many of these remarks I recognize as substantially identical with attacks on those subjects contained in all the author's serious writings. The sentence, "I never see a woman clad in ball attire that I do not feel like shouting, 'Police!' and ordering her to be removed as dangerous," closely corresponds to former utterances upon low-necked dresses and so on. He repeats former denunciations of higher education for women, but, astonishing to relate, instead of winding up with the moral that women should devote themselves solely to becoming the mothers of the largest possible families, he praises the Shakers because they do not marry, and declares that woman will only rise to a higher plane, cease to rule in underhand ways as an offset to oppression, and acquire her full rights, when virginity shall have become the highest ideal of womanhood.

I am tempted to a personal digression at this point. Count Tolstoi one day praised the Shakers in this manner before a table full of people. I was afraid to ask him his meaning, lest he should explain in detail, so I questioned his wife in private as to whether this new departure was not somewhat inconsistent with his previously advocated views on woman's vocation. She replied: "Probably it is inconsistent; but my husband changes his opinions every two years, you know." The explanation which I venture to offer is, that just at that time he was reading Mr. Howells's 'An Undiscovered Country,' and that he is impressionable. At all events, however clearly one can understand from these too frank digressions what a man should not do, it is quite impossible to comprehend how he thinks a woman should dress, behave, and live.

Returning to the thread of his story, Pozdnisheff relates how he proposed for his wife after a very brief acquaintance, fascinated by her jersey, her well-dressed hair, and a boating excursion, and adds that, had it not been for the tailors who dressed her well, and the close jersey, etc., he should never have married. This does not agree with the statement that all through his vicious bachelorhood he had firmly intended to marry if he could find any one good enough for him. An interesting point here is that he shows his betrothed his bachelor diary, just as Levin shows his to Kitty in 'Anna Karenin,' and with precisely the same effect, only less well told. The repetition of this incident and the probable rarity of such diaries seem to hint at a personal experience.

They are married. The description of the honeymoon and of their married life nearly up to the date of the final catastrophe is, like what precedes, unquotable. Suffice it to say that they quarrel promptly and continue to quarrel frequently and fiercely, eventually using their five children as moral battering-rams, so to speak, against each other. This last is very well done. At about the age of thirty, his wife becomes plump and prettier, and begins to take an interest again in pretty clothes. His mad jealousy interprets this into a quest for a lover, though there are no proofs of such a thing even alleged. The description of his jealousy is, however, the best part of the book. Presently the object for jealousy for whom the husband has been on the lookout, makes his appearance in the person of a handsome young man, of good family, who has been educated in Paris by a relative, as he has no money, and who has become a very fine and semi-professional violinist. The young man comes to call on his old acquaintance, Pozdnisheff, on his return to his native land. Pozdnisheff instantly fixes upon him, in his own mind, as the fated lover. Nevertheless, or rather in consequence of this, he is unusually cordial, introduces the musician to his wife (quite unnecessarily), and begs him to bring his violin that very evening and play duets with her. The musician comes, behaves with perfect propriety, as Pozdnisheff admits, but jealousy causes him to see what he expects. He urges the musician to dine and play at his house on the following Sunday, still impelled by the fancies of his own disordered brain. The musician accepts; but, having called in the interim to decide upon the proper music to present to the company, he drives Pozdnisheff to such a pitch of unreason that the latter uses vile language to his innocent wife and throws things at her, whereupon she promptly retires and takes poison.

She is rescued, a reconciliation ensues, the dinner comes off, and the "Kreutzer Sonata" in the evening is a great success upon the violin and piano. But the husband's jealousy and imagination are all alive, and interpret every glance of the players to suit himself. On taking leave that evening, the musician bids Pozdnisheff and his wife a final farewell. Pozdnisheff is going to the country on business, and the musician says that he shall leave Moscow himself before the former's return, intimating that he shall not call upon Madame during her husband's absence. Pozdnisheff goes to the country in a tranquil frame of mind, but a letter from his wife, in which she mentions that the musician has called to fetch her the music he promised, sets his jealousy aflame again. He hastens back to Moscow, finds the musician eating supper with his wife, and murders her. On trial he is acquitted on the plea of "justifiable homicide," and when the narrator of

the story meets him in the train, he is on his way to a small estate in one of the southern governments, his children remaining with his dead wife's sister.

The whole book is a violent and roughly worded attack upon the evils of animal passion. In that sense, it is moral. Translation, even with copious excisions, is impossible, in my opinion, and also inadvisable. The men against whom it is directed will not mend their ways from the reading of it, even if they fully grasp the idea that unhappiness and mad jealousy and crime are the outcome of their ways, as Pozdnisheff is made to say in terms as plain as the language will admit of, and in terms much plainer than are usually employed in polite society. On the other hand, the book can, I am sure, do no good to the people at whom it is not launched. It is decidedly a case where ignorance is bliss, and where uncontaminated minds will carry away a taint which a few will be able to throw off, but which will linger with the majority as the wine of the fable lingered in the cask meant for pure water. Such morbid psychology can hardly be of service, it seems to me, much as I dislike to criticise Count Tolstoi.

ISABEL F. HAPGOOD.

Correspondence.

DEMONSTRATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If ever two facts could make up the final arguments to a conclusion, those two facts are the Tariff and the Pension bills. As to the Tariff Bill, there can be no question that it is absolutely a product of the lobby. Not only is the entire mass of consumers deliberately laid under contribution to private interests, but one set of interests—manufacturing and commercial—which does not keep an adequate lobbying force at Washington, is sacrificed to another set which does. And the conditions for lobbying are ideally perfect. The nation, that is, the mass of consumers, is wholly unrepresented either in Congress or in the management of the finances. The whole matter is in the hands of a committee of local representatives, working in secret and perfectly screened from public criticism. The members of that committee would be more than human if they did not keep in view, as their first object, the securing of their seats at the next election. They will do just what promises to promote that end, and they will do nothing else.

It may be thought that this end would be best forwarded by taking care of the interests of the great mass of voters. The Republicans are shrewd managers—probably, with their training of a quarter of a century, much more so than the Democrats—and they have decided the other way. They know that, now that the offices have to a considerable extent been taken out of politics by civil-service reform, money is to play a greater part than ever before, and especially with everything turning on one or two doubtful States. The next election will depend more upon money than anything else. They know, further, that the most certain way to get money in unlimited amounts is to build up an elaborate system of interests based upon artificial privileges, and that when capital in large amounts has been embarked in this, it will pay tremendously, much more than it would at the outset, rather than have the system broken up. With this backing they are prepared to defy any agitation of public opinion, which they know can be frittered away on any number of different issues—civil-service reform, temperance, labor movements, woman suffrage, and so on.

They are quite aware, also, of another result which has followed from civil-service reform, namely, that it is of much less consequence who is President than which party has a majority in Congress. When the President controlled the disposition of the offices, he was an all-important factor in politics, as he still is to the extent to which he controls them. If that power is taken away, as he has no other of any kind, except the veto, which is not of much practical account, it is of little consequence whether he poses as a Democratic or a Republican figurehead. The politicians, therefore, see more of promise in controlling Congressional districts and State Legislatures.

What all these things mean is shown by the fact that the tariff has for twenty years been about as bad it is now, and the only sign or hope of improvement consists in this, that, as it is getting worse almost every year, it may at some future time become so intolerable that the abstract quantity known as the people may rise up and sweep the whole fabric away. The immediate consequence of this would, however, be so disastrous (just as total abstinence is said to be to a man in *delirium tremens*) that no party would dare to undertake it.

The same reasoning applies to the Pension Bill. Close as is the connection between an unjust and oppressive tariff and an equally unjust and dangerous surplus, the public do not see it, because the two subjects are in the hands of different committees, both impersonal, both secret, and both independent of each other. As far as Congress is concerned, both parties must agree cordially in this, that whose turn soever it may be to hold power, it is most desirable to have a large fund disposable for the purchase of votes,and no way could be imagined more perfect than a vast system of pensions. Neither party has, probably, the slightest desire to diminish the surplus except by expenditure, and that expenditure of the kind most effective in local politics.

No kind of agitation of public opinion will be of any permanent avail which does not make as its main object the means of fighting the lobby. And the only means of doing this successfully is to secure the predominance of the public and national over private and local interests; to have in Congress, in the person of Cabinet officials, powerful national representatives who can compel the transfer of business from the secrecy of committee-rooms to an arena where it can be debated upon public grounds and in full view of the public.

O! for some public man of honorable ambition, independent means, and unflinching courage to make himself the Peter the Hermit of a new crusade! G. B.

BOSTON, April 12, 1890.

THE BENNETT LAW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of April 10, you state that the recent municipal election of Milwaukee turned upon the question "*whether education in the English language shall be required in the schools of a State.*"

Allow me to call your attention to the fact that this is not an exact presentation of the *status controversiæ*. If the notorious Bennett Law demanded nothing but the teaching of the English language in all public and private schools of the State, there would be little or no opposition to it on the part of the Milwaukee Germans, who are wide awake to the fact that their children need as thorough a knowledge as possible of the official language of our country, and who, therefore, spare no pains to give them, in their parochial and private schools, a good education not only in the German, but also in the English language.

The Bennett Law, however, demands more than this. It says: "No school shall be regarded as a school under this act unless there shall be taught therein, as part of the elementary education of children, *reading, writing, arithmetic, and United States history* IN *the English language.*" According to the terms of this provision, the above four branches must be taught *through the medium* of the English language, or a school cannot be regarded as a school under the Bennett Law. It does not say: "Only those schools shall be regarded as schools in which *English reading and writing*, etc., are taught," but *it forbids the use of any language but the English in teaching reading, writing, arithmetic, and United States history.* A German child which in a German school is taught to read the German language, must, by the terms of this law, be taught such reading *in* (*i. e.*, through the medium of) the English language, or the school loses its right to exist. Is it to be wondered at that the Milwaukee Germans oppose such unreasonable legislation with all the legitimate means at their command?

Again, by what *right* can the State enact that no language but the English must be employed in teaching arithmetic and United States history? Will the English boy who in his school-days learns the multiplication-table be a better and more loyal citizen on that account than the German boy who learns the *Einmaleins?* Or is it impossible to teach the history of the United States profitably in any but the English language?

In opposing, therefore, the Bennett Law, the Milwaukee Germans did by no means fight against the education of their children in the English language, but against a nativistic Knownothingism and an un-American paternalism.—Most respectfully,

AUGUST CRULL.

FT. WAYNE, IND., April 12, 1890.

[We cannot interpret the Bennett Law to prescribe that German reading be taught through the medium of the English language. The clear intent seems to be to compel every child to learn to read English, to write English, to learn United States history from English-written text-books, and to "cipher" in English terms. How German shall be taught is no concern of the law.—ED. NATION.]

THE PAN-AMERICAN COIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Can you not print something severe as to the absurdity and impudence of the United States, or even Pan-America, proposing an international coin, though only for this continent? The text is at hand, in the fact that in the countries of the Latin Monetary Union, France, Italy, Switzerland, Belgium, etc., one sees handbills with cuts of good and bad money. Among the "pièces à refuser" as not worth five francs are the dollars of Mexico, Peru, Chile, Argentine Republic, New Granada, Colombia, Guatemala, and the United States, which last its friends perhaps fondly believe to be worth 5.20 francs. It is rather mortifying for the average-honest American traveller in Europe to see these handbills, of which I have two different specimens.

Yours truly, W. S. A.

BOSTON, April 5, 1890.

THREE MODERNISMS.—I.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A would-be critic, writing a few years ago, imagined himself borne out in speaking ironically of the "correctness and beauty" of an idiom which Lord Beaconsfield exemplifies in his 'Endymion,' published in 1881, namely: "I *have* never *been* back *to* the old place." That an urchin should say "I *have been to* school," would, accordingly, incur the frowns of this uninquiring fault-finder. The urchin could not have profited by sound teaching, or else such teaching could not have fallen to his unhappy lot. Otherwise, he would have said, "I *have attended* school," or something quite as stately. Though a decemnovenarian, as some would call him, he is not to be allowed to decemnovenarianize in language.

Dr. Murray, under *be*, has, as yet, only just mentioned *been to*, followed by a substantive, in his Dictionary, giving, on his own authority, "*Have* you *been to* the Crystal Palace?" as allowable English; his intention being, doubtless, to return to the point, when he by and by reaches *to*. The present discussion of it will not, therefore, be considered as superfluous.

Among Englishmen, from the highest to the lowest, one now constantly hears locutions like "I *have been to* town," "I *had been to* town," "I *may have been to* town," and so on, with "*Having been to* town, here I am again." In the first of these sentences, the tense is the simple preterite; and, in the others, the last of them excepted, there are modifications of it. And the construction in hand is confined, with respect to tense, within these limits. If, however, a former use of *was*, to be spoken of presently, had survived to us, we might have had "I *was to* town," analogous to "I *have been to* town."

The development of the forms of speech instanced above, "I *have been to* town," etc., can perhaps be made obvious. Of at least somewhat longer standing than Dr. Murray evidences are expressions of the stamp of the following, in which *has been* and *had been*, pointing to motion, precede the infinitive of purpose:

"He *had been to see* the citee of Lacedemon." Rev. Nicholas Udall, *Apophthegmes* (1542), fol. 134*v*.

"He *had been to look* for his Master about Primrose-Hill." Sir Roger L'Estrange, *A Brief History of the Times*, part iii. (1688), p. 172.

"Yesterday in the evening I went to church, and *have been* to-day *to see* the great burning-glass." Dr. Johnson (1783), in Mrs. Piozzi's *Letters* (1788), vol. ii., p. 282.

"My surgeon *has* just *been to look* at my back." Lord Palmerston (1818), in the Earl of Malmesbury's *Letters* (1870), vol. ii., p. 524.

"We *have been to see* the dancing dervishes." Mr. Arthur Hugh Clough (1861), *Letters and Remains* (1865), p. 315.

Much less common, and now obsolete, is the employment, corresponding to that of *has been* and *had been*, just exhibited, of *was*, to signify "went," and also "came." Quotations for it are appended, the second of them being different from anything given by Dr. Murray:

"I *was to see* him this afternoon, & doe fear him." Rev. Philip Henry (1689), *Diaries and Letters* (1882), p. 363.

"Mrs. Wenlock *was to see mee* yesterday, & brought mee a bottle of wine." *Id.* (1685), *ibid.*, p. 341.

(In the first of these two passages, *fear* means "fear for," a sense of it overpassed by the lexicographers. I find, under the date of 1548: "The carefull hen, *fearing* her chickens, dothe clocke them together.")

Nowhere, perhaps, but in America, and among the most illiterate Englishmen, does one hear the like of "I sleep *home*," "I stay *home* on Sundays." Yet, in some cases where, at first sight, *home* may seem to be a barbarism, as it unquestionably is there, the peculiarity lies in the verb which it accompanies. "I *have been home* a year," comparable with "the mercury *is down to* zero," affords afresh an instance of the verb *to be* deflected, unless we suppose a violent ellipsis, from the sense of existence to that of motion. As I proceed to show, this manner of writing and speaking is neither a novelty nor a vulgarism:

"I long *to be home*, and have taken a place in the coach for Monday." Dr. Johnson (1773), in Mrs. Piozzi's *Letters* (1788), vol. i., p. 207.

"Tell him I *am* not *home*." Rev. Richard Graves, *Columella* (1779), vol. ii., p. 103.

"I . . . *shall be home* within three weeks." Southey (1805), *Letters* (1856), vol. i., p. 340. "I *have been home* a few days." *Id.* (1811), *ibid.*, vol. ii., p. 232. "I *shall be home* by the middle of February." *Id.* (1837), *Life* (1850), vol. vi., p. 321.

"I *have been home* two days; but I am not myself yet." Bernard Barton, *Selections*, etc. (1849), p. 73.

"At least when we *are safe home*." Rev. Charles Kingsley, *Hypatia* (1853), p. 267 (ed. 1886).

"Grim and Helgi *will be home* ere men have eaten their full to-night." Sir G. W. Dasent, *The Story of Burnt Njal* (1861), vol. ii., p. 167.

"As soon as Peter *was* well *home*. Paul must set off in his turn." *Id.*, *Tales from the Fjeld* (1874), p. 248.

"Prince Louis-Lucien Bonaparte *is home* again from his long visit to Italy." *The Academy*, October 12, 1889, p. 236.

We also find, where the freedom of conversation is indulged in:

"People *home* on a holiday do not mind what money they spend." Mr. J. W. Sherer, *At Home and in India* (1883), p. 178.

People "that *are at* home" is not to be understood in this place, but people "that *have come* home."

The idiom here touched on is, again, among those which the makers of dictionaries have failed to register, even as they have passed over familiar expressions like "He *is* much farther *into* actual life than I am," "He *was* well *into* the bog,"—respectively from Mr. A. H. Clough and Sir G. W. Dasent—in which, once more, the verb substantive has come to denote motion.

On all fours with "I *have been to* town" is the presumably old "I *have been into* the town"; and so, in one of its senses latterly current, is "I *have been about* the country," with "I *have been across* the street, *among* savages, *before* the magistrate, *down* the river, *over* the mountain, *through* the woods, *up* the tower, *abroad*, *ashore*, *away*, *out*, *farther than* Ipswich," etc., etc. By all these phrases, precisely as in "I *have been to see* the town," good English, at least since the sixteenth century, combined arrival and departure are signified. Nor was less than this formerly intended by "I *have been in* town"; words now, however, generally complemented temporally, and used only by a person who has not yet left town, as in "I *have been in* town *a fortnight*."

In recent times we have thus, to mark a distinction, evolved (and without violation of analogy) a compendious expression the alternative of which could not be obtained except in a periphrasis. We may, therefore, justly give it a welcome, as being equally convenient, on the score of brevity, with *fetch*, instead of *go and bring*.

"He *has been here*"; "I *have been there*"; "No matter *where* they *have been*." *Here*, *there*, and *where* having grown to be often equivalent to *hither*, *thither*, and *whither*, that is to say, to import *to* a place as well as *in* a place, it may be that similar locutions were influential towards engendering those of the type of "I *have been to* town." Quotations kindred to those adduced below might be multiplied to any amount:

"This day I was at Brumm., *where* I *have* not *been* these many days." Rev. Philip Henry (1663), *Diaries and Letters* (1882), p. 144.

"In our return from the Wood, *where* wee *had been* to see your Sister." *Id.* (1687), *ibid.*, p. 356.

"I told Clancy, my landlord, *where* I *had been*." Thomas Amory, *Life of John Buncle* (1766), vol. iii., p. 209 (ed. 1770).

"Returning . . . from Tallow-Hills, *where* I *had been* to see a young lady." *Id.*, *ibid.*, vol. iv., p. 194.

To return to my main subject: wholly untenable, I take it, is the supposition which seems to have been entertained in some quarters that "I *have been to* town," for instance, was suggested by "I *was to* town," an archaism, still existent dialectally and otherwise, for "I *was in* town." Whether invalid historically or valid, that supposition, as in all analogous cases, has no rational bearing, however, on the legitimacy of the mode of expression here discussed, its legitimacy having been determined by a tribunal whose rulings are irreversible. Good usage sanctions it, and, as a consequence, it is safe from all condemnation but that of ignorance or folly.

It is farther observable, that the idiom, an acknowledged modernism, on which I am remarking, where shunned, now-a-days, by the well-informed, is shunned solely on the ground of its being colloquial.

As regards the quotations about to be given, no critical reader of later English literature, especially that dating from about 1830, will require to be told that they might be added to indefinitely:

"The poor thing *has been to* all the baths in the kingdom, you know, except those of Buxton." Samuel J. Pratt, *The Pupil of Pleasure* (1776), vol. i., p. 48.

"After I *had been* up *to* bed"; "Eden *having been to* Shelburne House"; "He *has been to* Christ Church in Oxford." Jeremy Bentham (1781), *Works* (1838–43), vol. x., pp. 99, 101, 104.

"Once I *have* borrowed a horse and *been to* Mr. Dampier's to look at his Devonshire cattle." Rev Mr. Gale (1810), in Southey's *Life of Dr. Andrew Bell* (1844), vol. ii., p. 279.

"After the dancing, the good folks of the cottage sent for a boy out of the village, who *had been to* Malta, which place it was evident, from their manner, that they all looked upon as the Ultima Thule." J. C. Hobhouse (Lord Broughton), *A Journey*, etc. (1812), p. 255.

"Mr. Manning *had been to* the library and consulted the volume in question." *Id.*, *Italy*, etc. (1859), vol. i., p. 222.

"Kinder *had been to* the scene of action, and dined frequently at head quarters." Southey (1813), *Life* (1850), vol. iv., p. 55. And so in letters dated 1815, 1819, 1836, 1838, etc.

"These men were quite persuaded you *could* not *have been to* the top." Rev. Dr. William Whewell (1822), in Mr. I. Todhunter's *Account of Dr. Whewell's Writings* (1876), vol. ii., p. 50.

"I *have been to* several of them, to request," etc. *Id.* (1825), *ibid.*, vol. ii., p. 56. "We *have been to* St. Leonard's." *Id.* (1845), *ibid*, vol. ii., p. 329.

"When he *had been to* court, he drove to the office where his book was printing, without changing his clothes." Lord Macaulay, *Essays*, *Boswell's Life of Johnson* (1831). "This is the first dinner-party that I *shall have been to* for a long time." *Id.* (1833), *Life and Letters* (ed. 1889), p. 243. "I *have been* with George Babington *to* the Asia." *Id.* (1833), *ibid.*, p. 254.

"You know how differently a boy regards home when he *has* once *been to* school." Mr. A. H. Clough (1836), *Letters and Remains* (1865), p. 24. Also *id.*, *ibid.* (1837, 1852), pp. 31, 227.

"A Russian lady who *had* not *been to* the ball." Translation of Custine's *Empire of the Czar* (1843), vol. ii., p. 34.

"I *have been* with Barclay *to* Southampton." Miss Caroline Fox (1854), *Memories of Old Friends* (1882), p. 298.

"*Have* you ever *been to* Hastings, or S. Leonards?" Rev. F. E. Paget, *Owlet of Owlstone Edge* (1856), p. 19.

"I *have* never *been to* Hell in my life." Sir

G. W. Dasent, *Popular Tales from the Norse* (1859), p. 69. "Eric Bloodaxe . . . sailed back from Biarmaland or Permia, *whither* he *had been* on a viking cruize." *Id.*, *The Story of Burnt Njal* (1861), vol.ii., p. 278.

"Tom *had* positively *been to* the house." Rev. James Pycroft, *Agony Point* (1861), p. 91, (ed. 1862).

"Well, I *have been to* Gnadenthal." Lady Duff Gordon (1863), *Last Letters from Egypt*, etc. (1875), p. 268. "As if I *had been to* Lake Ngami." *Id.* (1863), *ibid.*, p. 315.

"He *had been* away *to* Russia to King Jaroslaf." Rev. Charles Kingsley (1874), *Lectures Delivered in America* (1875), p. 76.

"Dolly *had been to* the place." Mr. J. W. Sherer, *At Home and in India* (1883), p. 60. Also at p. 174.

"The Orb of Day has returned. It *has been to* Scotland." Mr. James Payn, in the *Illustrated London News*, vol. xcv., p. 230 (Aug. 24, 1889).

"Hook *had been to* prison *for a month*." So a penny-a-liner delivers himself in a London journal of Sept. 9, 1889. I am not aware that his device for combining what is intended by *had been to* and *had been in* has any authority beyond his own good pleasure. F. H.

MARLESFORD, England.

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT Co., Philadelphia, have in press 'How to Remember History,' a method of memorizing dates, by Virginia Conser Shaffer; 'Historic Note-Book,' by the Rev. E. Cobham Brewer; 'Gleanings for the Curious from the Harvest-Fields of Literature,' by C. C. Bombaugh, M.D.; 'Economic Basis of Protection,' by Prof. Simon N. Patten; 'Messalina,' a tragedy, by Algernon Sydney Logan; and a novel, 'For a Mess of Pottage,' by Sidney Lyon.

'Silver in Europe,' by S. Dana Horton, will be published immediately by Macmillan & Co.

An historical romance, 'The House of the Wolf,' by Stanley J. Weyman, is announced by Longmans, Green & Co.

A new series of standard classics, "Library of the World's Best Books," is projected by A. L. Burt, 56 Beekman Street, New York city.

'Truths to Live by,' a new volume of sermons by Canon Farrar, will be issued immediately by Thomas Whittaker.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, will publish shortly 'A Foreign Match,' by Mme. Charles Bigot (Miss Mary Healey), and 'Russia: Its People and its Literature,' lectures at Madrid before the Spanish Athenæum by Doña Emilia Pardo Bazán, translated by Fanny Hale Gardiner.

Mr. T. W. Higginson and Mrs. S. A. Bigelow are preparing a volume of about two hundred and fifty selected sonnets by American writers, Mr. Higginson furnishing the introduction.

Bernard Quaritch, 15 Piccadilly, London, has made a facsimile of the new-found original letter in which Columbus, in Spanish, announced the discovery of America, and for which Mr. Quaritch asks the modest sum of $8,000, whereas any one of the hundred copies of the reproduction "on two square small folio leaves (four pages) of paper, done up in cloth," may be had for $10.

A much smaller sum will procure the reproduction of a revelation of a New World of English poetry, in the shape of Prof. Dowden's reprint of the 1798 edition of Wordsworth and Coleridge's 'Lyrical Ballads' (London: David Nutt). One knows what to expect when Prof. Dowden puts his hand to a task of this sort—learning, accuracy, and scholarly self-restraint. The reprint is not a strict facsimile, but is a close imitation in respect of type and of line for line and page for page. Prof. Dowden goes so far as to retain in the text the errata noted in the original edition, but inconsistently changes or supplies a point and separates two words that ran together—a liberty which would have justified inserting a colon in line three of p. iii. of the "Advertisement." A brief preface and brief notes, with some account of alterations in the subsequent editions of the poems, impart all needful bibliographical information. The little volume, "which opens with 'The Ancient Mariner' and closes with the 'Lines written a few miles above Tintern Abbey,'" is a pure delight, without and within.

M. Guy de Maupassant's 'Pierre and Jean' is the latest volume in George Routledge & Son's prettily printed and illustrated series of translations. The novel is one of Maupassant's stronger ones, and, in the view of some critics, shows the first indications of its author's moving away from realism and towards psychology. The translator is Mr. Hugh Craig, and the illustrations are by MM. Ernest Duez and Albert Lynch. Maupassant, by the way, is a model traveller, in that he sees things with his own eyes and describes what he sees with extraordinary skill. In 'La Vie Errante' (Paris: Ollendorff: New York: F. W. Christern), he tells us how he ran away from the Eiffel Tower and took a little yacht down the Italian coast to Sicily, whence he went to Algiers and Tunis. Especially fresh are his impressions of Sicily, of which island he writes as though he had rediscovered it; and especially frank is his account of his glimpse of the lower side of life in Algiers and Tunis.

The eighth volume of M. Jules Jusserand's series of biographies of "Les Grands Ecrivains Français" is devoted to 'Vauvenargues' (Paris: Hachette: New York: F. W. Christern). It is written by M. Maurice Paléologue. We shall defer criticism until the publication of the American translation, noting now only the fact that the book has appeared in Paris, and that there is no portrait of Vauvenargues extant, so that the frontispiece of this biography is but the facsimile of a letter of his to Voltaire. Among the other volumes of the series announced for early publication are M. Sarcey's 'Corneille,' M. Brunetière's 'Voltaire,' and M. Gaston Bossier's 'Saint-Simon.'

Two little companion brochures belonging in the "Bibliothèque Photographique" of Gauthier-Villars & Fils, Paris (New York: F. W. Christern) deserve the attention of amateur and professional photographers. The first part of M. Moëssard's 'Le Cylindrographe' clearly describes and figures this panoramic apparatus as a camera having a semicircular back on which the image is thrown; an objective, set in black cloth and pivoted so as to move freely in connection with sights or finders on top of the camera, and traversing 170 degrees. The results of this sweep, which takes in the entire horizon, lacking 20 degrees, on two negatives, are surprising. But this camera is as valuable for groups as for landscapes, and is capable of some extraordinary feats of foreshortening ("en perspective fuyante dans les airs"), when hinged vertically. An appliance of scales and levels produces a *cylindrographe topographique*, described in Part ii. Of this we will only say that it is designed to enable a topographic plotting to be made from the scenic panorama. We call the attention of our friends of the Appalachian Club to this camera.

Few things are more interesting than to watch the growth of our national holidays and fête days. It was a long time before the inherited celebration of the 1st of May was felt to be absurd, but the month was in a way to be acknowledged "a pious fraud of the almanac" when Decoration Day was fixed for the end of it, and now Arbor Day carries us back again to the beginning. This last has already a considerable literature, and we have on our table the New York State Superintendent's Arbor Day circular for the coming month (May 2), an 'Arbor Day Manual,' edited by the Deputy Superintendent, Charles R. Skinner (Albany: Weed, Parsons & Co.), and 'Harper's School Speaker,' compiled by James Baldwin, and adapted for Arbor Day and Decoration Day (or "Memorial Day"). The 'Manual' contains selections and original contributions, in prose and verse, music and songs for the exercises, and some historical data, from which we learn that Nebraska invented Arbor Day in 1872, and has planted nearly 400,000,000 trees in consequence in its own borders. Mr. Baldwin's 'School Speaker' meets as well as could be expected the duty of praising militant patriotism while reprobating war. Its third and final section is headed "Peace versus War," and draws largely upon Sumner's famous oration, "The True Grandeur of Nations."

The series of grammars in French, German, Spanish, and Italian, bearing the name of "Hossfeld's New Practical Method," though each has a distinct authorship, have been put on the American market by the New York School-Book Clearing-House of this city. They agree in the general method of instruction, and also, we must add, in being very unattractive in appearance. Their aim is conversational and commercial rather than literary, and if there be any originality in the method of presentation, it is chiefly in respect of proportion. A little 'Spanish Reader' and 'French Conversations' accompany the grammars.

M. Gastineau's 'Conversation Method for Speaking, Reading, and Writing German' (Ivison, Blakeman & Co.) is a well-executed work, beautifully printed. It is allied perhaps most nearly to the Prendergast system, but with a character of its own, and the conversations are natural, continuous, and free from ineptitude. The grammar is taught incidentally, but its summary formal development is reserved for the close of the volume.

Dr. Solomon Deutsch's 'Drill-master in German' (Baker & Taylor Co.) plants itself on the principles of gradation and repetition. As its name imports, it is a teacher's instrument rather than a self-learner's. The conversation method is not employed to any great extent, and the passages for drill are mostly fragmentary. The explanatory and grammatical notes are excellent, and so is the plan of generally using the Roman letter.

Prof. H. C. G. Brandt's 'German Reader for Beginners' (Boston: Allyn & Bacon) is another well-equipped book, with competent notes referring to Whitney's, Joynes's, and the author's grammars, and a vocabulary in which special attention has been paid to the indication of cognates in other tongues. The selections in prose and verse are fairly divided between the elder and the later classics; one section of the prose has an historical complexion and value.

At least a method of doubling one's vocabulary is offered by Prof. A. Muzzarelli's 'Antonymes de la Langue Française' (New York; Wm. R. Jenkins; Boston: Carl Schoenhof). The drill consists in converting every sentence into opposite terms of its leading affirmation or idea. One cannot, if held up by a teacher, fall asleep over it; but a course of two hundred pages of these substitutions has both a dry and formidable look. The author, however, appeals to his experience.

Prof. Shedd gathers together several articles

and addresses of his on topics connected with 'The Proposed Revision of the Westminster Standards' (Scribners) to make a pamphlet contribution to the permanent literature of the subject. His well-known views are here enforced in his well-known style. We must leave it to others to say if his weakest point is not exegesis—both of the Westminster itself and of the Scriptures—and content ourselves with remarking the lodgment which the liberal spirit has made within even his fortifications: we refer to his concession of universal infant salvation, his admission that many righteous heathen may be saved, and his acknowledgment that it would be difficult to work out a theodicy except on the supposition that the majority of the race will ultimately be saved.

We are glad to perceive that House bill No. 7558 and Senate bill No. 2747, taking away the postal premium on the manufacture of dime-novel literature, have alarmed the manufacturers.

The Providence Public Library seems at last to have caught the attention of the city fathers, and to have turned over a new leaf of material prosperity. Mr. Foster's twelfth annual report shows also, on the spiritual side, that the fiction percentage of circulation has now got down to 56, a remarkably low figure when one considers how much good and wholesome reading is included in it. Seven copies of Bryce's 'American Commonwealth,' we are told, were insufficient for the demand, and volume one was taken out 101 times in the course of the year.

Nos. 1, 2, and 3 of volume xii. of the *American Journal of Mathematics* are on our table. No. 1 is adorned with a fine head of M. H. Poincaré, who contributes to No. 3 an elaborate article of eighty-four pages, "Sur les Équations aux Dérivées Partielles de la Physique Mathématique." The three numbers contain seven articles, filling 322 pages 4to. Five of them are in English, two in French. Two of the five are by English mathematicians, three by Americans. Of the former, one—which for convenience is divided between Nos. 1 and 2—covers 106 pages, and is by A. R. Forsyth of Trinity College, Cambridge. Its title would not be understood, even by professional mathematicians, without reference to the explanation of the author given in a note at its commencement. In the other, Maj. P. A. MacMahon, R.A., who began it as Capt. MacMahon in vol. xi., continues the development of his "New Theory of Symmetric Functions." Of the remaining three articles, in one, Prof. F. Franklin, of whom we have before spoken as one of the most promising of our younger mathematicians, discourses of "Circular Coördinates." In another, Mr. H. B. Fine treats of "Singular Solutions of Ordinary Differential Equations." Lastly, Mr. F. N. Cole shakes the dust of the world of sense from his feet, and, soaring into the regions of pure ideality, expounds the principles that govern "Rotations in Space of Four Dimensions." It is here that the motto of the *Journal*, Πραγμάτων ἔλεγχος οὐ βλεπομένων, is especially appropriate.

A report of an expedition sent out last summer by the Bremen Geographical Society for the investigation of the fauna of eastern Spitzbergen is to be found in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for March. The geographical results only of the expedition are given in this paper, which is accompanied by a remarkably clear map, but there are several interesting references to the bears, of which an extraordinary number were seen. Reindeer were also very numerous on some of the islands, occasionally where they must have been obliged to go enormous distances over the ice. This fact would seem to throw some light upon the vexed question as to the origin of the Spitzbergen reindeer. A supplemental number contains an account of the "Kulturzonen" of Northern Abyssinia by Dr. Karl Dove.

Antonio de Serpa Pimentel was very naturally called to the Prime Ministry during Portugal's recent troubles, as his distinguished public services and special abilities clearly marked him out for the position. Born in 1825, he took his doctor's degree at the age of twenty, and won a professor's chair in the Polytechnic School of Lisbon six years later. Beginning his political career as an editor, he was first elected a Deputy in 1856, and has since been Minister of Public Works, Minister of Finance, and Minister of Foreign Affairs. He was Portugal's plenipotentiary at the Berlin Congress on the Congo territory. As an author, besides some excursions into the fields of poetry and the drama, he has published 'The Eastern Question,' 'Alexandre Herculano and his Times,' and 'Nationality and Representative Government.'

— In the April issue of the Harvard *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, President Francis A. Walker has a paper on "Protection and Protectionists," which deserves to be singled out from the mass of current literature on the tariff. President Walker is always temperate and unbiassed, and the protectionists cannot say that he has failed to treat their cause fairly. Not only does he admit a degree of validity in some familiar arguments on their side, like that for protection to young industries; he notes also for their benefit certain arguments which they have themselves failed to discover, such as the suggestion of the disadvantages which may flow from the indefinite extension of the division of labor. But this very temperateness makes more effective his protest against the protectionist twaddle with which the country has been flooded since the Republicans took up President Cleveland's challenge on the tariff question. Indeed, he devotes his space largely to a simple classification of the protectionists, pointing out how wide is the gap between the Chinese-wall men and the moderate protectionists; and he thinks it "not extravagant to say that there has been more pure Chinese-wall talk in this country within the past two years than during our whole previous history as a nation." In this, and in the presentation and weighing of the arguments pro and con, few sensible men would find occasion to differ with him. The weakest part of the paper, to our thinking, is that which touches the aspect of the tariff controversy now uppermost in the public mind—the pauper-labor argument. President Walker's test as to the validity of that argument seems to be whether an increase of food and luxuries, turned over to the laborers in the form of wages, increases their productive power; whether "niggardliness of expenditure in generating labor power does not meet the same retribution which niggardliness of expenditure generally meets in other directions." To analyze the general reasoning would pass the limits of our space. Some aid in discriminating between what is true and what is untrue in the pauper-labor talk is doubtless got from President Walker's point of view; but we think it an error, looking at the whole field, to consider high wages as the cause rather than as the result of abundant production.

— The New England Meteorological Society has made an arrangement with the Astronomical Observatory of Harvard College by which the tables and discussions resulting from the observations gathered by the Society shall appear in the Annals of the Observatory; and the first product of this partnership appears in a volume for the year 1888. It is chiefly occupied by tables containing a list of observers and stations, with their latitude, longitude, and altitude; then a summary of the records for every month; a table of daily rainfall at a large number of stations; and finally, a series of annual means, normals, maxima, and minima. The tables are preceded by a review of the year by quarters, prepared by Prof. Winslow Upton of Brown University, then acting as Director of the Society, while the tabular matter is the work of several assistants assigned to this duty by the Chief Signal Officer from the men of his corps—Sergt. L. G. Schultz having performed the greater part of this considerable labor. Prof. Upton contributes also a discussion of the cyclonic storms that traversed New England during 1888, and from which nearly all of its rain and snowfall is received. Eighty-eight of these atmospheric disturbances crossed the district during the year, many of them of considerable severity; among the latter being the March blizzard and the November tropical cyclone. Thunder-storms and heavy rainfalls are also briefly discussed. The Society is fortunate in having its records published in so excellent a form.

—M. Lucien Descaves is at the present moment enjoying in Paris the advantages of praise and pudding which come so often to the author of a prosecuted book. About a year ago he published a novel, constructed in accordance with the naturalist formula, called 'Sous-Offs.' This book dealt mainly with the life in barracks of the non-commissioned officers of the French Army, of which it took a very dark view, representing it as sordid and vicious in the extreme. The sub-officers, according to it, "déjeunent de la fille et soupent du soldat"; they are "des proxénètes et des voleurs," as well as a number of other things that are not nice. Touching in this rude way so sensitive a point as the pride of the French in their army, M. Descaves made, what no doubt he sought, a sensation and nine days' talk, and sold enough copies of his rather dull book to bring him in a return of 15,000 francs. It is doubtful if he would have received even so much as this if threats of prosecution had not advertised his novel from the first. These threats have been at last carried into effect, and the cause was tried on March 15, 16, before the Court of Assizes of the Seine. The prosecution was so far under the sanction of the Government as to be conducted by the Advocate-General, M. Rau. The charge against the book was that it was offensive to good morals and insulting to the army. The author was defended by Maître Tézenas, on the ground that he wrote with ample knowledge and in good faith; that his book showed the good side of the army as well as the bad; and that it was a most valuable "document," being the plain truth about the army, told after years of study of it. M. Lucien Descaves was acquitted without delay, and now, as we said, is enjoying a little triumph.

— M. André Maurel makes the acquittal of the author of 'Sous-Offs' the occasion of a brief discourse in the *Revue Bleue* of March 22. He draws from it two morals, or, rather, *moralités*, one addressed to the author, the other to the naturalist school in general. An author who has been prosecuted, he says, runs great risk from the temptation to pose thereafter as

a "martyr of letters"; to act, and perhaps in some measure also to feel, as if his real place was by the side of Flaubert and other masters, who are great not by virtue of the accident of prosecution which he shares with them, but by the production of such books as 'Madame Bovary' is. To the school of Médan he points out that an author ought to have a better excuse for an offensive book than merely to say, "J'ai dit la vérité." That, according to M. Maurel, is not much more pertinent than the child's "I didn't mean to" when he has knocked a grown person's eye out. What is the truth, after all? Do not writers see one aspect of it before breakfast and another afterwards? Is it not contingent upon systems and upon human nature? The truth about the army is one thing to the colonel and quite another to Sergeant-Major Descaves. Which of them has the absolute truth? If the naturalist believes that he has, if he lives by faith, let him not murmur if he has to suffer imprisonment for it, or any other loss, as martyrs and confessors have done in all ages. But the advantage still will lie, in M. Maurel's opinion, on the side of the psychologues. They profess to convey only sensations, and not unchanging truths; and, after all, sensations are about the most certain of the things we know. M. Maurel, it will be observed, joins in the cry that has for some time been increasing in volume against the naturalists.

—We had occasion two or three times last summer to speak of the unhappy differences that had put an end to the long friendship and collaboration of MM. Erckmann and Chatrian. It will be remembered that some delicate questions as to the division of the profits of their work having arisen between the two friends, the private secretary of M. Chatrian, M. Georgel, was so ill-advised as to publish in the *Figaro* an absurd and incoherent attack on M. Erckmann, whom he charged with all sorts of baseness, from cowardice to high treason. M. Erckmann replied by a suit at law, which has just been decided in his favor. M. Chatrian was left out of the case; but M. Georgel is condemned to a month's imprisonment and 2,000 francs fine, M. Pigeonnat of the *Figaro* to 500 francs fine, while the two together are mulcted besides in damages of 10,000 francs. The judgment is also ordered to be printed in ten newspapers in Paris and ten in the provinces.

—The German school-reformers have just scored a great success. It is only five years ago that Prof. Paulsen startled the self-sufficiency of orthodox classicists by advocating, in his 'Geschichte des gelehrten Unterrichts,' the following changes in the curriculum of the German gymnasium: abolition of Greek, introduction of philosophy, increased and broadened instruction in German and the other modern languages. Since then a powerful movement has sprung up directed towards the realization of at least the last point in this programme, which, when effected, will, as a natural consequence, carry the first point with it. Perhaps the most valuable contribution which this reform movement has added to pedagogical literature is the *Zeitschrift für den deutschen Unterricht*, founded in 1887, under the auspices of the venerable Rudolf Hildebrand, a periodical which has already become an indispensable guide for teachers of German, and a most forcible advocate of the claims of native language and literature as a part of national education. The Government until recently maintained a very guarded attitude towards this whole question; but now, it seems, they, too, think that the time has come for decided action. The latest *Armee-Verordnungs-Blatt* publishes a royal rescript, dealing with the instruction in military schools which stand on a level with the Realgymnasien. The rescript announces itself as a forerunner of a decree which is to contain a comprehensive reorganization of the instruction in the e schools. And what this reorganization is likely to be may be gathered from the following passages:

"German is to be the centre of the whole instruction. In every subject the pupil must be directed to make a free and easy use of his mother tongue. In the selection of readings, theses, and other papers to be prepared by the pupils, along with the traditions of antiquity, due consideration is to be paid to the culture and intellectual achievements of modern nations, and special attention is to be given to German folk lore, history, and literature. German history, especially that of modern times, is to take a more prominent part than heretofore; ancient and mediæval history is to be taught in such a manner as to give an idea of the roots and the growth of our own culture."

These are remarkable utterances, and the reported statement of Herr von Gossler, Prussian Minister of Education, that the Government was planning a reorganization of all the higher schools on the basis of this rescript, makes their importance still more far-reaching.

SOME ASTRONOMICAL WORKS.

Azimuth: A Treatise on this Subject, with a Study of the Astronomical Triangle, etc. By Joseph Edgar Craig, United States Navy. John Wiley & Sons.

Old and New Astronomy. (Parts II.–V.) By Richard A. Proctor. Longmans, Green & Co.

Hand-Book of the Lick Observatory of the University of California. By Edward S. Holden, LL.D. San Francisco: Bancroft & Co.

Great-Circle Sailing: Indicating the Shortest Sea-Routes. By Richard A. Proctor. Longmans, Green & Co.

Astronomy Note-Book for High Schools, Academies, and Colleges. By Marion L. Berneike, M.D. A. Lovell & Co.

Astronomy with an Opera-Glass. By G. P. Serviss. D. Appleton & Co.

Star Atlas: Containing maps of all the stars from 1 to 6.5 magnitude, between the North Pole and 34° South Declination. With explanatory text by Dr. Hermann J. Klein. Translated and adapted for English readers by Edmund McClure, M.R.I.A. London: Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge.

THE making of the first book on our list, 'Azimuth,' might well have been omitted—the publication of it certainly ought to have been. It is a laboriously detailed discussion of the problem of determining azimuth from an astronomical observation, and is intended also to point out in some minor respects the false teachings of the text-books. It was an utter mistake, in the first place, to suppose that a subject like azimuth could have a big bookful worthily written about it. A condensed paper in some mathematical journal, or, at the most, a long chapter in a treatise on astronomy, navigation, or geodesy, would meet the necessities of the case entirely, not to say more acceptably. Perhaps this work might have found some use in mediæval times; but, if we do not mistake, our age wants gists, not amplifications. No navigator is going to read such a treatise all through. The results should have been summarized in accessible form; on the contrary, no recapitulation of the work is anywhere given. The learner is warned of a great variety of things he should not do, but it is a day's job to find out from this helpful treatise which one of all the possible things that are left he should do. The book abounds in mathematical platitudes, and the author's style is unfinished and obscure.

In large measure the parts ii. and iii. of 'Old and New Astronomy' are disappointing. They show clearly how completely Mr. Proctor's by-path studies in astronomy and allied sciences have determined his choice of topics and the fulness with which they are discussed in his present work. His pages are, in fact, too readily surrendered to mere discussion, where the bare statement of fact would better have sufficed. It is not implied that his discussion is necessarily uninteresting; but patience and paper will not hold out. Plates iii. and iv. are entire failures—possibly the publishers' fault. The paragraphs on projections are good reading, and perhaps only a little diffuse; but one would like to have seen other subjects have equal chance.

Motions of sun, moon, and planets are clearly set forth, perhaps never in more fascinating form, and Mr. Proctor's interest in cycloids and cognate curves accounts for the full exposition of the epicyclic motions of the planets. His tribute to the astronomers of the earliest times is perhaps fully justified by an examination of the facts in the case. He says:

"It seems impossible to doubt that the keen observers and excellent mathematicians who formed the school of Egyptian and Babylonian astronomers, from which the Greek school derived its chief principles, can have failed to be struck by the exact synchronism between the movements of the five planets and of the sun. It appears probable, indeed, as I have already pointed out, that these old astronomers even adopted the theory that the sun is the true centre of the motions of all the planets, our earth included."

Chapter iv., on the true mechanism of the solar system, is written with discrimination, and sets right many things about the work of the earlier astronomers of the modern era not commonly understood. Now and then an unfortunate slip of the pen occurs, as, for instance, where "square" and "cube" are interchanged in the foot-note on page 184. The story of Kepler's work is neatly told, and Galileo is given all due prominence, while the treatment of Newton is in every way satisfactory and masterful. The attempt at a popular presentation of tidal phenomena is accurate, if not fully successful as such; nutation and precession, too, are explained in Mr. Proctor's original way of looking at things. But fascinating as the proofs of the earth's rotation are, have they not been given too great prominence? And might not the same be said of the complexities of the geometry of the lunar motions?

Coming now to the problems of weighing and measuring the solar system, Mr. Proctor is generally not less thoroughly at home. An occasional digression may be pardoned, even if irrelevant; but not such a palpable perversion of the facts as is implied in the statement that photography was an utter failure in the transits of Venus of 1874 and 1882, "no adequate preliminary experiments having been made by the official astronomers responsible for such service"! Evidently, from what is said later, the author means only the British photographs, and should have said so. The American parties took hundreds of available photographs of these transits by a method distinctly the outcome of the preliminary experiments of their own "official astronomers." All in all, however, such points form but trifling objections to a capitally written chapter on a subject of the highest significance; and one grudges the space which Mr. Proctor offends

good taste by devoting to a last word in his squabble with the Astronomer Royal about the recent transits of Venus. More pages, in fact, are given up to this irrelevant matter than to the entire subject of the relation of the planet Mars to the determination of the sun's distance. The more precise method, by means of the velocity of light, is given due prominence. The methods of weighing the earth are well explained: not only are the older determinations sufficiently recounted, but some useful suggestion and criticism of the newer work are offered. Lunar and planetary masses do not call for special comment. The concluding paragraphs on planetary domain are suggestive and essentially novel. The tribute to the French astronomers and their long labors in the cause of exact astronomy is admirable, and not less just is the slighting allusion to British official action in reference to the theoretic discovery of Neptune. More about this subject, by the way, is promised in subsequent chapters of the work, which it is understood Mr. Proctor had quite completed before his death.

The 'Hand-Book of the Lick Observatory' is a good little manual of information about this institution, and much besides. It tells the little that is known about the strange life of Mr. Lick, and one would naturally expect to find on the most prominent page of the book a fine portrait of this odd and now important personage; but Prof. Holden preëmpts this for a not very good picture of himself. Mr. Lick's remains were in January, 1887, formally deposited in the base of the pier on which the great telescope now rests. The drive to the mountain-top is well worth what it costs, and the guide-book gives an excellent description of it. Following is a concise history of the institution, descriptive notes on the buildings and the water supply, and the instruments, astronomical, meteorological, and seismometric. These last are of Prof. Ewing's design. In a popular and quite readable chapter on the work of an observatory, the sort of work to be undertaken on Mount Hamilton is made plain, as also how the astronomers are to set about doing it. Photographic research will have a prominent place. Telescopes are next treated of historically and otherwise, and a questionable blank-verse apostrophe to the "Unmounted Lens" of the great telescope is allowed the space of a half-dozen or so pages. An article entitled "Photography the Servant of Astronomy" follows, reprinted from the *Overland Monthly* of some years ago, and contains a good historical epitome of the subject, but is unfortunately much rosier as to the outlook than the facts warrant. The remaining chapters deal with clocks and time-keeping, with the Lick Observatory time-service, and with the principal observatories of the world—which latter will bear revising. The illustrations are mostly rather cheap and coarse; but a good index concludes the booklet, which is worth its full cost to any one interested.

Those knowledgeful passengers (and where is the captain who has failed to carry one or two of them on every voyage?) who are so much better informed on navigation than the captain himself, cannot do amiss if they read 'Great-Circle Sailing' on next going to sea. They may then find out one or two things about the apparently erratic nature of great-circle courses, and spare the commanding officer many a needless question, not to say much unearned maligning. It is well known not only that tables have been printed by which great-circle sailing is largely facilitated, but that, by the use of charts on the gnomonic projection, the great-circle course can be indicated by a straight line, just as the rhumb-course is shown on a Mercator chart; also, various approximative constructions have been suggested. But the art of sailing on the shortest courses has made relatively little progress. Mr. Proctor has published charts which are as convenient for great-circle sailing as Mercator's are for rhumb-line navigation; the chief difference is that while the rhumb-line course is a straight line on Mercator, the great-circle course is a circular one on Proctor. It is a matter of high importance. The exposure of life to sea risks and the interests dependent on sea chances are such that a shortening of water routes means diminished danger to life and property and diminished expense of material and labor. For example, take the distance between Cape Town and Melbourne: it is 6,150 miles on the rhumb or usual sailing line, while the great-circle course between the two is nearly 600 miles shorter, meaning a reduction of a voyage by several days. Almost everybody knows that great-circle courses are not always practicable, but Mr. Proctor's charts are quite as useful in selecting the appropriate composite course, and this popular essay cannot fail to serve the interests of all who have to do with long-course navigation.

Little advantage appears from the attempt to teach astronomy in the way dictated by Mrs. Berneike's 'Astronomy Note-Book.' It is only one further effort to make cramming easy and teaching easier; it may be found useful in some high schools and academies, but not elsewhere. The student who wants to acquire a command of the facts of popular astronomy will attain it regardless of the slight obstacles which such a note system is intended to remove, while the pupil not much caring to learn about the stars will derive little assistance, and no incentive, from a system so artificial. The general accuracy of the pamphlet is commendable.

Mr. Serviss some months ago contributed to the *Popular Science Monthly* a series of papers on stellar studies with the simplest of optical apparatus. Those papers form the bulk of the present volume, and it will be found a matter of surprise to many what the capabilities of a mere opera or field-glass are in revealing the more marked objects of the celestial sphere. The author has by no means based his work on mere imagination, but has with his own eyes carefully examined all the objects which his book describes as visible with an opera-glass of good quality. He does not go far wrong in the surmise that the sight of a striking celestial object, even though dimly, will spur on many an observer to become the possessor of more competent optical means. What he advises about the purchase of glasses is well and good, except that we should rather feel disposed to warn the buyer to fight shy of pawn-shops entirely. Being purely arbitrary, the divisions of the asterisms into four classes suitable for observation in the several seasons will occasion embarrassment to the genuine lover of the stars; in fact, almost any other arrangement would have been better. Preferable to a small star atlas, which every one would possess at an early day, would be one of the astral lanterns, several patterns of which are now to be had for a trifle at the shops. The poetic scraps, story-telling, and historic and mythologic padding are a blemish in the working-text; better have relegated them to an appendix or omitted them altogether. The little book is fairly well illustrated, but the pictures of the moon are unnecessarily cheap. All told, the papers on 'Astronomy with an Opera-Glass' are worth having brought together in this more accessible form, but they should have been condensed rather than amplified.

It is an excellent thing to have turned Dr. Klein's capital Star Atlas into English, but it might have been better done than Mr. McClure has done it. The text, which is copious, reaching to seventy or eighty pages, is not always accurate, and betrays a want of familiarity with astronomical investigators and their work. Not having the original German edition at hand, we do not say whose the fault may be—whether author's or translator's; but it is very likely to be the latter's. The elementary concepts and descriptions which precede the charts are well drawn and will be very helpful. The arrangement of the celestial objects in their order of right ascension is good—much better in every way than by constellations, as commonly in works of this sort. The maps themselves are capitally drawn and finely printed. For day-time reference it would be hard to suggest an improvement; but for night use in the observatory, or by any artificial light, the important matter printed in red is legible only with the greatest difficulty, and the strain upon the eyes in consulting the charts seriously unfits them for work at the eye-piece. As a minor matter of convenience, too, it would have been better had these numbers, annexed to the stars and nebulæ in the polar charts, been arranged to read across the page instead of around the pole, about which the book has now to be continually turned in referring to it.

A half-dozen plates of nebulæ and star-clusters follow the general maps of the stars. For the most part these are beyond criticism, and the introduction of the photographic pictures of the more interesting clusters is an especially praiseworthy feature. They show in the most conclusive manner the vast gain to astronomy from the modern applications of photography; and this atlas is in fact the first considerable publication of these results in popular form. All future editions of the Atlas should include the recent photographs of the more remarkable nebulæ as well.

The Life and Letters of Mary Wollstonecraft Shelley. By Mrs. Julian Marshall. 2 vols. London: Richard Bentley & Son.

THE life of Mary Shelley is not wholly new to the world. So much has been written about her unique father and mother and still more unique husband that the reading public has necessarily heard much about Mary herself. But she has always been somewhat obscured by the distinguished personages by whom she has been surrounded. Her pale face and large limpid eyes have looked out at us from the background of the group that fills the family canvas. It has remained for Mrs. Marshall to present us with a portrait of her as a distinct individual, with attitude and coloring of her own.

It must be confessed that her life, looked at from several points of view, was a disappointment. Before her birth she was confidently expected by her parents to be a boy. The letters exchanged at that time by William Godwin and his wife, Mary Wollstonecraft, may be read, by those who are interested in intimate matrimonial chronicles, in Kegan Paul's Life of the former. Mary's birth, when her well-shaped head and delicate frame were presented to the philosopher's eyes, cost the life of her more beautiful and more gifted mother. She could never as a child, in spite of her prettiness and precocious intelligence, win a first place in her father's affections. As a woman, she did not satisfy the expectations that social reformers had formed of the daughter of the

authoress of a 'Vindication of the Rights of Woman.' As a writer, she did not fulfil the promise that Shelley saw in her literary gifts. Godwin pronounced her talents "truly extraordinary," and told her that her novel of 'Frankenstein' was the most wonderful book to have been written at twenty years of age that he had ever heard of. But she never again wrote a book that equalled 'Frankenstein' in power of imagination or in reputation.

One does not feel, indeed, on finishing these two volumes, that Mary Shelley's place is in the literary Pantheon where nicely balanced criticism disputes the claim to a higher or lower niche of the few who find their way thither. She belongs rather to the "choir invisible" of those who have merged their own abilities in promoting the achievements of others. The gift she has left the world is not her work, but the memory of her personality. There is not a page in the whole history of her life that her biographer has had to hurry over, nor an action that she has had to extenuate. Mistakes there were in plenty. She was not quite seventeen when she committed the "imprudence," as she herself termed it later in life, of placing herself in opposition to the laws of society by uniting her fate with that of Shelley, then the husband of Harriet Westbrook. She was not quite twenty-two when, after having been three times a mother, she was made childless by the death in Rome of the blue-eyed boy named William, whose beauty and promise and angelic sweetness had made him her idol. She was not yet twenty-five when the body of Shelley was washed ashore in the Bay of Spezzia, and she was left without money and almost without friends to face the world which had seen in Shelley only an outlaw and a seducer.

The first volume of Mrs. Marshall's ably and graphically written biography closes with the death of Shelley. The second is given to the twenty-nine years of Mary's widowhood, during which she was forced to labor unremittingly with her pen to eke out the scanty sum which Shelley's father, Sir Timothy, reluctantly allowed for the maintenance of his daughter-in-law and grandson. Three novels (not of modern brevity, but of the length of flight expected of a romance of that day), of which 'The Last Man' is the best known, shorter tales and verses, besides innumerable lives of French, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese Men of Letters, written for Lardner's 'Cabinet Cyclopædia,' attest the untiring energy with which she worked. The money which she thus earned would have been more than enough to meet her own wants had she not had a list of beneficiaries longer than that of most men of wealth. Her celebrated but ever impecunious father was unsparing in his demands upon her purse; Claire Clairmont, her evil genius, was always in need of assistance; there was her father's former amanuensis, Marshall, whom she helped to support in his old age, and there were friends poorer than herself who came in for a share of her bounty. One of the most marked traits of Mary Shelley's character was her generosity. Tested by the extreme of poverty and by the sudden rise to comparative affluence, when her son came into possession of the Shelley estate, she never once failed in the open-handed liberality which was as characteristic of Shelley as of herself.

Since Mrs. Marshall has had access to all the journals and letters belonging to Sir Percy and Lady Shelley, one cannot but wish that she had somewhat altered the proportions of her 'Life.' That the time which Mary Shelley spent with her husband is superior in dramatic interest, in picturesqueness of setting, in wealth of emotion, in rapidity of mental development to the rest of her life cannot be denied; but the external history of this period may be learned from other sources. One cannot help wishing to know more of her relations to some of the literary men and women of her day, with whom her celebrity as an authoress brought her into contact later in life. The individuality of the "famous Mrs. Shelley" grows just a trifle shadowy towards the end of the second volume. There is a sense that the biographer has been betrayed by their charm into lingering too long over the earlier years, and has been pressed by lack of space to scant her portrayal at the end.

But on the whole the figure of Mary Shelley stands out clear and distinct from these pages, a being whom we love and admire, and whose history we are the better for following. Hers was one of those rare natures that are capable of a perfect and unfaltering loyalty. That Shelley sometimes tried it, no one who reads this or Prof. Dowden's book can doubt. But Mary's faith in him and in herself was always equal to the demand upon it. It was not the bent of her nature to press her own claims in any relation of life. She was the most serviceable as well as the most unexacting of friends. More than most people, she was called upon to forgive selfishness, hardness, and treachery, but there dwelt neither bitterness nor remembrance of injury in her heart. In that slight, graceful woman, with the fair hair, sloping shoulders, and exquisite Vandyke hands, there existed a force of intellect which no outward circumstances could overcome. With an easier life and with fewer sorrows, she might have developed a genius which would have justified Shelley's early belief.

She died at the age of fifty-four, and was buried in St. Peter's churchyard at Bournemouth, near the home of her son, in Hampshire.

Three Men in a Boat.—The Idle Thoughts of an Idle Fellow. By Jerome K. Jerome. Henry Holt & Co.

EVERY man who writes a book assumes a certain responsibility, both direct and indirect. Not only is he directly responsible for the goodness or badness of his own book, and for its effect on the minds of readers, but, if his book is remarkable or successful, he is quite certain to cause others to seek success by following in his footsteps, and so he becomes indirectly responsible for all the wearisome failures that result from such attempts. In this sense Mr. Samuel L. Clemens may be said to be indirectly responsible for this and a number of other books published of late years by would-be English humorists. When 'The Innocents Abroad' first appeared, several English critics, entirely unacquainted with its peculiar vein of humor, in good faith and with due solemnity pointed out its defects as an adequate and accurate record of places and people. Since that time, however, English readers have become familiar with the various forms of American humor as exemplified in Mr. Clemens, Bret Harte, Artemus Ward, and others, and one of the results of this familiarity is a crop of books —of which Mr. Jerome's are fair samples— which constantly recall the above-named humorists. But these imitations, while doubtless, as such, sincerely flattering to the originals, cannot truthfully be called successful. The flavor of American humor in them is unmistakable, but the solution or trituration thereof is of the weakest, and a large quantity of current English slang is therefore added to give strength and local color to the whole. What could be more side-splitting, for instance, than the suggestion that something is all "*bally* foolishness"? How exhilarating is this historical observation: "She was nuts on public houses, was England's Virgin Queen"! Mr. Jerome's 'Three Men in a Boat' tells the tale of a week spent in going in a boat from Kingston to Oxford—not a strikingly original subject, by the way—and the author kindly varies the serious business of being humorous by poetic rhapsodies over the beauties of nature, and by a number of references to places of historic interest in the Thames valley. These latter passages smack somewhat of the guide-book, and recall the accounts of the Oxford colleges which a certain undergraduate, who disliked original composition, used to copy out and send in instalments to his venerable and confiding mother in lieu of a weekly letter.

So far, most of the humorists of this new school are adventurous people who like roughing it and camping out, and they evidently regard as irresistibly funny the difficulty of packing their provisions, the mixing of strawberry jam and meat pies, the upsetting of salt over everything, and so forth. It may be that such books will give pleasure to those who go down to the sea in ships, or up the river in boats, because as a rule they are very easily pleased; but the ordinary landsman will inevitably class them as "books one would rather have left unread."

In the same category must be placed Mr. Jerome's 'Idle Thoughts of an Idle Fellow,' although for somewhat different reasons. A dozen essays on such well worn subjects as "The Weather," "Shyness," "Babies," etc., etc., are here brought together, and, as they present but little claim to originality of ideas or style, it is difficult to see why they should have been inflicted on the community. Their humor has a strong resemblance to that of the previous volume, but it is somewhat less boisterous, and is, moreover, varied by occasional passages of pathos and cynicism. Sometimes, indeed, Mr. Jerome struggles with thoughts that seem almost poetic by comparison with the general dull level of the book; but on these occasions he comes dangerously near to burlesque. In the essay on "Being in Love," for instance, the reader is informed that "love is too pure a light to burn long among the noisome gases that we breathe, but before it is choked out we may use it as a torch to ignite the cosey fire of affection." This is what Thackeray used to call "the hoighth of foine language entoirely," but why should it appear in book form instead of in the literary corner of a country newspaper? *That* is the true resting-place for such gems of thought, and the friends of Mr. Jerome who, according to his preface, induced him to print this book, would have exercised a wiser discretion if they had allowed matters to take their regular course.

The Modern Law of Carriers; or, The Limitations of the Common-Law Liability of Common Carriers under the Law Merchant, Statute, and Special Contracts. By Everett P. Wheeler. Baker, Voorhis & Co. 1890.

MR. WHEELER has collected in a compact and useful volume some four thousand cases illustrating the modern limitations imposed upon the liability of common carriers, and has given a concise statement of the law of the subject. One of the first principles impressed in every law school upon the mind of the student is that a common carrier of goods is an insurer, his sole allowable excuse for a loss being that it was caused by the "act of God" or the public enemy. He is taught to admire this as one of those beneficent provisions of the

common law which illustrate its tender care for the weak and unprotected. It is only when the student is launched upon the sea of every-day business and litigation that he discovers that a very great part of the modern law of carriers has been developed through efforts on their part to escape from the onerous obligations imposed upon them by the common law—in which they have been mainly successful. The limitations upon the duty have become more important than the duty itself. Partly by statute, partly by means of the introduction of exemption clauses in bills of lading (even the receipt given by an express company is now usually made to take the form of a bill of lading, *i. e.*, of an express contract between the carrier and his customer), one limitation after another has been introduced, until we find, in the form adopted recently by the New York Produce Exchange, an agreement that the carrier shall not be liable, among other things, on account of losses caused by perils of the sea, by fire, by barratry, by enemies, pirates, or robbers, by arrest and restraint of princes, rulers, or people, by explosion by bursting of boilers, by breakage of shafts, by latent defect in hull or machinery, by collisions, stranding, or other accidents of navigation (*even when occasioned by the negligence, default, or error in judgment of the pilot, master, mariners, or other servants of the owner*, not resulting, however, in any case from want of diligence by the owners, or by the ship's husband or manager). It is the right to exempt himself from the consequences of the negligence of his own servants that the carrier is mainly fighting for now, and Mr. Wheeler's book is a valuable contribution to the discussions of this subject. The decisions are in conflict. On the one hand, we have numerous State courts which see no reason why the carrier should not exempt himself in this way; on the other hand, other State courts, notably those of New York, and also the Supreme Court of the United States, which insist that it is against the policy of the law that such an extreme exemption should be allowed. Mr. Wheeler is a strong advocate of the most extreme liberty of contract, but he gives the argument on both sides with great fairness.

Perhaps an inquiry into the reason why the voluminous exemptions of modern bills of lading do not produce any of the serious inconveniences that the fathers of the common law would probably have anticipated from them, may throw some light upon the point at issue. It is usually said that the rigid rule of the common law originated in times when transportation was insecure, and the risk of collusion between carriers and pirates or thieves was great. But is not this one of those theories which are handed down from text-writer to text-writer more because they sound as if they stated a reason than because there is really any basis for them? What means have we of comparing the risk of collusion between Dick Turpin and the common carriers (*i. e.*, the owners of stage-coaches) of his day, and between Western "road agents" and Jay Gould or C. P. Huntington in our times? We know nothing about it. The real reason, we take it, why the shipper of to-day cares comparatively little about the old liability of the carrier as an insurer, is that he always insures his freight or cargo elsewhere. In other words, the insurance companies assume the risks which the common law undertook (and very wisely, as there was, in the days when the rule was first laid down, no other insurance) to impose upon the carrier. If this view is correct, and the insurance companies are ready to go on insuring on such bills of lading as Mr. Wheeler approves, it may be that the argument derived from the "policy of the law" is not so impregnable as it has seemed to some judges.

Our space forbids us to review in detail the many interesting points raised by Mr. Wheeler's treatise. There are valuable chapters on the Law Merchant, on procedure under the United States Statutes, the Conflict of Laws, and other technical subjects. Numerous as are the text-books on carriers, we know of no other treatise which covers precisely the same ground. It will be found a useful addition to the learning on a subject of constantly increasing importance.

Journal of Researches, etc. By Charles Darwin. New edition, with illustrations by R. T. Pritchett of places visited and objects described. D. Appleton & Co. 1890.

Mr. Murray's preface to this new edition of the 'Voyage of the *Beagle*' bears date December, 1889, but makes no allusion to the fiftieth anniversary of the original edition, which has in fact been celebrated by publisher and artist in the beautiful volume now before us. Nor is it wholly accurate to say that "no attempt, however, has hitherto been made to produce an illustrated edition of this valuable work." Such an attempt, in connection with a classified abridgment, was made during Mr. Darwin's lifetime, and with his hearty approval; and for ten years the youth of this country have (as any public library will testify) been enjoying the handsome volume, abounding in cuts, issued by the Messrs. Harper, under the title 'What Mr. Darwin Saw in his Voyage Round the World in the Ship *Beagle*' (New York, 1879). The number of cuts (upwards of 100) is almost identical with that which Mr. Pritchett has got together, and while the subjects of course sometimes agree, there is a wider range in the American volume, which in particular is strong on the side of ethnology. This branch has been decidedly neglected by Mr. Pritchett, whose non-use of the camera is nowhere so keenly felt. Nor can the English edition be much preferred to the American in respect of zoölogy. Portraits, too, are altogether wanting in the former, Mr. Darwin himself being unpictured, whereas the interesting assortment of naturalists, navigators, and rulers in the Harper edition is led off by Kruell's first (and still admirable) engraving of the beardless Darwin of 1854, made expressly for the work which commemorated the fortieth anniversary of the 'Journal.'

We make this comparison not invidiously, but to claim for Americans a proper share of the world's appreciation of the greatest book of travels yet produced, and one of the most charming; whose observations time has done so little to invalidate, and which will be for ever interesting as the unrecognized herald of the doctrine of evolution. The English publisher has been mindful of what was due to it in the matter of typographical openness and elegance, and the artist has left little to be desired in the care he has bestowed on the natural scenery of the voyage. The rarely visited solitary ocean islands, the banks of the Rio Negro, the waters and mountain barriers of the Straits of Magellan, the raised beaches of Patagonia, the Chonos archipelago, the Uspallata Pass, the Keeling atoll, may be singled out for mention as of prime value. At the same time we should have been better pleased if photography had supplemented the pencil wherever it was available, and if wood-engraving had been employed throughout. Such pains and expense must be, perhaps, reserved for the hundredth anniversary edition, when doubtless mere correspondence will suffice to procure, even from the least frequented regions, authentic photographs of everything delineated in this edition, and more. Meanwhile the public is to be congratulated that the *Beagle* renews its Voyage under such favorable auspices.

Delicate Feasting. By Theodore Child. Harper & Bros. 1890.

This is a very taking, indeed one may say a very appetizing, book. The eye is pleased at the first glance by the pretty yellow-brown cover with its agreeable decoration in silver, gold, and black; and although the print and paper inside do not quite bear out the cover's promise, still they are not wholly bad.

Every man of middle age is less wise than he ought to be if he is not in some degree a cook, or at the least a critic of cooking. Dietetics are becoming more and more every year a recognized department in medical science, while as a fine art cooking won its undisputed place centuries ago. In literature, indeed, its place never has been challenged. There is the record of much good eating, though too little refined, in the Hebrew sacred books, and in fact in world-literature everywhere. The best novels and the best poetry contain much more than mere allusions to it. Not only in the books of earthlier writers, like Dumas and Thackeray, does the charmed reader find records of feasting, but in Scott's novels and in Milton's verse there are precious passages for him who of such delights can judge. As one may say of biographies, so one may say of books on the table, that there never was one written that is not worth reading. If it does not tend to edification, at least it serves for reproof.

Mr. Child has written a good book. One may dissent from him in some points; one may not like his nonsense about "P. Z. Didsbury," the Dryasdust to whom he dedicates his volume; one may hesitate now and then and doubt if he is right about this or that detail; one may reject with horror what he says about the public use of toothpicks and mouth-bowls; but all these are minor matters. He has a firm grasp of the main principles of cookery. He has an intelligent and sympathetic understanding of food. He gives a few admirable receipts, notably those for a *matelote* and for *court-bouillon*. He has much good and sensible advice as to dinner-giving and dinner service. He abounds in interesting quotation from the literature of his subject, and altogether has made a book "full-worthy on the self shelf to be upset" with the best cookery books, with Kettner's 'Book of the Table,' with Thackeray's 'Memorials of Gormandizing,' and with Prof. Mattieu Williams's admirable 'Chemistry of Cookery.'

A Memory of Edward Thring. By John Huntley Skrine. Macmillan & Co. 1890.

It appears that we are to wait somewhat longer for a biography of the remarkable educator who refounded Uppingham School, and gave to it a high place among the public schools of England by dint of his energetic and original individuality. Meanwhile, the present volume is a tribute of remembrance by one of his pupils and sub-masters, who was evidently filled with Thring's spirit and moulded by his influence. The volume is curiously mingled of eulogy and reminiscence, and varies between the fiery declamation of a skald and the tender affection of a disciple. The one thing kept before the reader is the figure of Thring himself; and whatever may be thought of him, there can be no complaint that he is not truthfully and

powerfully portrayed, first as the master among the boys, and afterwards as the man fighting for his own among High Commissioners, Directors, town officials, and all others whom he was compelled to meet with. He was a man who did his own thinking, and reduced the results to explosive epigrams, often worded with a kind of violent felicity. He had a theory of life and duty of a most imperative and energizing sort, and he stamped it upon his boys with all the force he could bring to bear. He was rough in his outward seeming and knotty in inward composition, severe in method and arbitrary in disposition, but thoroughly penetrated by great ends and practical thoughts; with something of the poet also in his madness, a sacred fury coming upon him and expressing itself in rude but genuinely noble ways; an enthusiast, of course, who believed in himself and always contemplated himself as a host militant against the dull, stupid, wrong-headed, and devil-doomed world. So, at least, he is drawn here, in page after page of striking anecdote. After reading, one understands the criticisms of his enemies as plainly as the praise of his "boys"—those who thrived under such vigorous treatment. The volume stimulates interest in Thring's personality, and is an excellent prologue to his promised life by another hand.

Register of the University of Oxford. Vol. II. (1571-1622.) Part IV. Indexes. Edited by Andrew Clark, M. A. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1889. 8vo, pp. 466.

We have already reviewed this admirable work, in reference to vol. i. (one volume), 1884, and the three preceding bound parts of vol. ii. Nothing can easily be said of an index, except as to its thoroughness, and in the present case too much praise can hardly be given. It is a suitable capstone to the monument raised to the diligence and precision of the editor.

On pp. 36–49 will be found careful tables in regard to the Christian names of some 20,500 graduates, which the editor well terms "more representative of English names than any list yet published." The most used names are:

John	3,826	Henry	908
Thomas	2,777	George	647
William	2,546	Francis	447
Richard	1,691	James	424
Robert	1,222	Nicholas	326
Edward	957	Edmund	298

—a total of over 16,000 names, or 80 per cent. of all. Arthur, Christopher, Hugh, Ralph, Roger, Samuel, and Walter each claim about 200 names, or 1 per cent.

Among the unusual names we find some which have since become favorites, or have been borne by noted men. Alphabetically these are, Aquila 1, Arthur 98, Brian 21, Charles 139, Clement 16, Ferdinando 16, Elihu 1, Frederic 2, Gerard 12, Geoffroy (Jeffrey) 38, Godfrey 8, Herbert 16, Hector 2, Kenelm 7, Lawrence 90, Launcelot 23, Lionel 12, Lewis 78, Martin 44, Michael 103, Marmaduke 18, Miles 24, Patrick 6, Percival 9, Peregrine 5, Reginald 20, Roderic 11, Roland 65, Swithin 3, Theodore 8, Theophilus 19, Tristram 13, Valentine 18, Vincent 15.

There are many names, especially Scriptural ones, not occurring 200 times, and yet not very rare. Then there are family names used as "given" names, and some almost inexplicable. As to double Christian names, six instances are cited, of which four are probably not to be so classed. The other two are Thomas Postumus Hobbie (mentioned in Camden's 'Remains,' p. 49), and Thomas Pope Blunt, in 1573, "in the degree lists given as Pope Blunt, without the Thomas." This Blunt example may therefore fail, as Camden writes, "Two Christian names are rare in England, and I only remember now his Majesty, who was named Charles James, as the Prince, his son, Henry Frederic; and among private men Thomas Maria Wingfield, and Sir Thomas Posthumus Hobby."

As to surnames, it would be impossible to make a selection. Every class in the community is here represented, from the peer to the charity student. Families are often represented in different generations, and certain localities favor special colleges or halls. The whole series will be indispensable in every large library; and we hope a continuation will be made, covering, at least, the remainder of the seventeenth century.

Prominent Incidents in the Life of Dr. John M. Wieting, including his Travels with his Wife round the World. By Mary Elizabeth Wieting. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1889.

A very large part of Mrs. Wieting's book is devoted to an account of her travels round the world with her husband, and to a second journey in which only Europe was included, and only a very insignificant part to a general account of his life and its "prominent incidents." The journey around the world was of nearly a year's duration. It was a splendid opportunity, but, apparently, both Mr. and Mrs. Wieting brought to it little or no preparation on the æsthetic side. The treatment of art matters is singularly unsympathetic and remote, the writer giving us the opinions of the guide-books rather than her own. Dr. Wieting was intensely practical, and his disposition was dominant in what was most enjoyed. We have here a great deal of useful information, which is probably quite as reliable as the guide-books from which it has been studiously gleaned. The second journey was intended to make up the deficiencies of the first. It is more elaborately described than that, but, as it deals with more familiar ground, and brings to it no special gift of apprehension, the description is less interesting. There is a healthy common-sense vigor in Mrs. Wieting's writing, and a flow of animal spirits that keeps us always in good company, and reconciles us to the absence of any genuine literary touch.

In the few pages devoted to Dr. Wieting's life we are left to infer the date of his birth (1817) from a statement, well along, that in 1837 he was twenty years old. The bantling was early cast upon the rocks, the sickness of his father devolving on the boy the support of his parents, and he grew beneath the burden, as so many boys have done in similar circumstances. He studied medicine and began the practice of it, but in 1843 he resolved to enter the lecture field, and there is an intimation that no American lecturer, not even Beecher, reaped so large a pecuniary harvest. His subject was physiology, and his advertising was after the manner of Barnum and other dealers in unparalleled attractions. The text of one of his big posters is given, and it is a model of its kind. As a citizen of Syracuse, N. Y., Dr. Wieting was evidently much esteemed. Under a rough exterior he carried a warm and generous heart. It is evident, between the lines, that it would have been easily possible for any one, painting him as Cromwell wished to be painted, to make a picture of much individuality. The line engraving of his face suggests no fineness in the intellectual or spiritual man, but plenty of rude force. The Wieting Block, in which was Wieting Hall, the scene of many a political gathering, was of his building. Burned in 1856, he built the first theatre and opera-house of Syracuse upon the lots, and when this was burned, in 1881, under great difficulties and embarrassments he built another larger and finer than its predecessor. These were the most "prominent incidents" of his career, and went far to give him his local standing as a man of energy and public spirit.

But altogether the most interesting incident in the volume is one that illustrates his generosity and divination of character. At one of his lectures in Boston he saw in the audience a tall, lank, awkward-looking man, who soon after turned up at a lecture in Philadelphia, made himself known to Dr. Wieting, and requested a loan of $1,000 with which to go to California—it was in gold-fever times—agreeing to send the doctor half his earnings. The latter consented. After a while came $1,000 back, and then in different instalments $9,000 more, whereupon the Doctor cried, Hold! but the stranger wrote that he did not propose to break his bond. Soon, however, he wrote requesting a fresh loan of $20,000. The Doctor's friends protested that the $10,000 was only a decoy, and that if the Doctor sent the $20,000 he would never hear of it again. Nevertheless, he sent the money, and there was an awful pause; but after a time the returns began, and finally mounted up to $50,000, after which the honest man was never heard of more.

By "Sims, the Pirate," spoken of as sailing the seas in the later course of these events, is the Confederate captain, Semmes, intended? The reproductions of photographs which illustrate the travels are a very beautiful and valuable addition to the text.

Freiland: Ein Soziales Zukunftsbild. Von Theodor Hertzka. Leipzig: Duncker & Humblot. 1890. Pp. 677.

The writer of this stout volume, after many intellectual wanderings, has reached his goal He began many years ago as a member of the optimistic school to which the Germans apply the epithet, now opprobrious, of *Manchesterthum;* he has gradually drifted away from this point of view, and now appears as the guide to a complete and beatific reorganization of society. The root of all evil, we learn, is overproduction; from which arise protective tariffs, Trusts, combinations, and strikes. "All these are but so many phases of the desperate struggle of every class against the inevitable concomitants of the one phenomenon, so anomalous and yet so real, that the steady advance in the facilities for producing wealth has brought in its train ruin and misery."

So far, we hear the old story. Consumption has not kept pace with production, supply has outrun demand; the poor cannot buy commodities, while the rich will not, but heap investment on investment. This is the sort of reasoning which crops out whenever the complicated machinery of production undergoes a far-reaching change. It appeared in the beginning of the century, when the great inventions were transforming the industrial system, and when Malthus, Say, Sismondi, and the rest of them threshed out the discussion as to overproduction with an ardor which leaves Mr. Hertzka and his fellows little to say that is new. But the remedy which he proposes for the evils that are supposed to flow from this one cause, while it has a family resemblance to the schemes which the enthusiastic followers of Mr. Bellamy are pressing on us, has certain features of its own—if in no other way, in that his experiment is worked out in the heart of Africa. Thither, to the mountain region under the equator, goes a band of colonists. They apply

the simple remedy (how simple these remedies always are!) discovered by Herr Hertzka. The result is peace, plenty, prosperity, perfect justice, perfect happiness.

The gist of this latest panacea can be put in a few words. The land and the capital belong to the community : so far we seem to be in the familiar domain of Socialism. But this is *Freiland*, and the land and the capital are not managed by the community; they are turned over gratuitously, without rent or interest, to associations of individuals. Every person is free at any time to join or leave any of these associations. The only thing required by the State is absolute publicity. The hateful element of private and business secrecy must go; your association must tell all the world how much it produces, earns, divides. Thus we have perfect competition, and so perfect justice. Within each association—they are organized somewhat on the plan of coöperative production—the members share their produce according to their works (*Leistungen*); which seems to be a simple principle enough, and enables the author to brush away at once all the difficulties of distribution. Around this kernel gather a multitude of details and episodes, from descriptions of African scenery to considerations of the law of marriage in Freiland ; from accounts of victorious yet merciful wars with the Abyssinians to conversations with visiting Europeans, who are so rash as to suggest possible difficulties, and, of course, are triumphantly refuted. The innocent fiction of the adventures in Africa no doubt was intended to allure readers ; but it has not the spice of reality, and very few, even among those to whom such speculations afford either amusement or stimulus, are likely to read all the pages of 'Freiland.'

On the whole, the sober-minded reader must feel that he is hardly called on to meet seriously the challenge with which the eager author submits his book to "the searching criticism of the professional economists." It requires no great discrimination to see wherein his principles contain "something other than what sound common sense must admit to be self-evident conclusions from justice and from enlightened self-interest."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Baldwin, J. Harper's School Speaker. Part I. Arbor Day. Part II. Memorial Day. Harper & Bros.
Belcher, Rev. T. W. Robert Brett (of Stoke Newington); His Life and Work. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Blackall, C. H. Builders' Hardware; a Manual for Architects, Builders, and House Furnishers. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $5.
Boisgilbert, Dr. E. Cæsar's Column: A Story of the 20th Century. Chicago: F. J. Schulte & Co. $1.25.
Burnett, Mrs. F. H. Little Saint Elizabeth, and Other Stories. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Cherbuliez, V. Une Gageneure. Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern.
Child, T. Delicate Feasting. Harper & Bros.
Crooks, Rev. G. R. Life of Bishop Matthew Simpson. Harper & Bros.
Daniell, M. G. Exercises in Latin Prose Composition. Part II. Boston: Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.
Dowden, Prof. E. Lyrical Ballads, reprinted from the first edition of 1798. London: David Nutt.
Drumont, E. La Dernière Bataille. Paris: E. Dentu; New York: F. W. Christern.
Ellis, H. The New Spirit. London: Geo. Bell & Sons. New York: Scribner & Welford. $2.75.
Ely, Prof. R. T. Problems of To-day. New ed. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Farmer, J. S. Slang and its Analogues, Past and Present: a Dictionary. A to Byz. London.
Fernie, Dr. W. T. Influenza and Common Colds. London: Percival & Co. 2s.
Fitch, J. G. Notes on American Schools and Training Colleges. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Forsyth, Miss. An Awakening. John W. Lovell Co. 25 cents.
Four Songs of Life, by Matthew Arnold, J. G. Whittier, W. E. Henley, Lord Tennyson. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 25 cents.
Frederic, H. The Lawton Girl. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Freytag, G. Aus dem Staat Friedrichs des Grossen. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Friese, P. C. Semitic Philosophy. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.
Gardner, Celia E. Seraph—or Mortal? G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Geddes, Prof. P., and Thomson, J. A. The Evolution of Sex. Scribner & Welford. $1.25.
Girard, J. Recherches sur les Tremblements de Terre. Paris: E. Leroux.
Gooch, F. P. Miss Mordeck's Father. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Harlow, W. B. Songs of Syracuse, and Other Poems. Syracuse, N. Y.: W. B. Harlow.
Henderson, J. C. Thomas Jefferson's Views on Public Education. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Hicks, W. M. Elementary Dynamics of Particles and Solids. Macmillan & Co. $1.60.
Hoffmann, F. Historische Erzählungen. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents.
Huss, Prof. H. C. O. Sesenheim. From Goethe's 'Dichtung und Wahrheit.' Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents.
Ibsen, H. The League of Youth; The Pillars of Society; A Doll's House. Scribner & Welford. $1.25.
Johnston, G. The Poets and Poetry of Chester County, Pa. Leonard, Pa.: Francis C. Pyle. $1.65.
Jones, E. E. C. Elements of Logic as a Science of Propositions. Scribner & Welford. $3.
Kendal, Mrs. Dramatic Opinions. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Kimball, A. L. The Physical Properties of Gases. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Kingsley, C. Two Years Ago. Macmillan & Co. 25 cents.
Lessing, G. E. Minna von Barnhelm. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Light on the Way: Four Favorite Hymns. Marcus Ward & Co.
Lindsley, D. P. Elements of Tachygraphy. 13th ed. Fowler & Wells Co.
Littell's Living Age. Jan.-Mar., 1890. Boston: Littell & Co.
MacQueary, Rev. H. The Evolution of Man and Christianity. D. Appleton & Co. $1.75.
Maupassant, G. de. Pierre and Jean. George Routledge & Sons. $1.50.
McCormick, S. D. Spoliation; or, The Follies of a Nation. St. Louis: A. R. Fleming & Co.
Medical Annual and Practitioner's Index. E. B. Treat & Co. $2.75.

Walker's Simpler Political Economy

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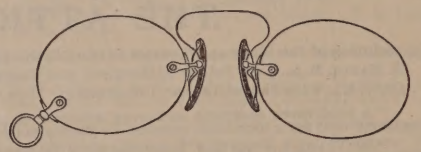

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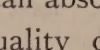
There is no branch of industry, except the manufacture of Silver ware, where the maker's name is not used by the merchant as a sure guarantee for good quality of the merchandise bearing the mark; but there has been inherited by the silversmiths of our time a pernicious system of stamping the name of the dealer in the place that properly belongs to that of the manufacturer, as the maker is the only one that can absolutely guarantee the quality of the goods, as that is the important use of any stamp used on silver ware, so that purchasers will do well to look for the Trade Mark of the maker, in addition to the name of the dealer; and if that mark should be the  which

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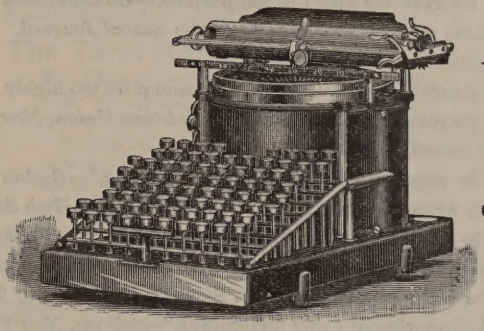

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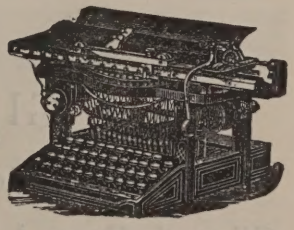

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 24, 1890.

The Week.

THE Tariff Bill of the Committee of Ways and Means has been reported at last, after throes and spasms the like of which have never been seen or felt in the construction of any similar measure. Nobody could have imagined beforehand that the principle of bounties from the Treasury would be admitted into the bill. The duty on hides has been juggled with to such an extent that one juggle more or less could not cause any surprise. But that it should be seriously proposed to pay a bonus of two cents a pound to anybody who chooses to grow sugar, and one dollar a pound to anybody who chooses to grow raw silk, would not have been believed had not the bill been actually presented in that form. Alongside of these propositions we have an increased duty of 120 per cent. on tin-plates, of which none are produced in this country, and of 200 per cent. on carpet-wools, of which practically none are produced. The argument for bounties applies to both these things with as great force as to sugar or silk. The encouragement given to the production of those articles by a bounty would be equally as great as by the tariff, and the consumer would not be taxed in the unconscionable manner proposed. One feature of the bounty on sugar is, that it commits the Government for fifteen years, regardless of the complexion of future Congresses. In other words, it appropriates public money for half a generation in advance of the occasion for using it.

Publishers of newspapers and of books, and the printing trade in general and paper-manufacturers, should take notice that the McKinley Tariff Bill more than doubles the duties on blankets and felts for printing and paper-machines. The present rate, reduced to ad valorem, is 52.87 per cent. The bill raises it to 108 per cent. This is done by the cunning device of striking out section 379 of the present tariff, which reads as follows:

"379. Endless belts or felts for paper or printing machines, 20 cents per pound and 30 per cent. ad valorem."

By striking out this section these articles are thrown into the category of manufactures of wool and hair not specially provided for, the duty on which is advanced to the following rates:

"Valued at not more than 40 cents per pound, the duty per pound shall be three and one-half times the duty imposed by this act on a pound of unwashed wool of the first class, and in addition thereto 40 per centum ad valorem; valued above 40 cents per pound, the duty per pound shall be four times the duty imposed by this act on a pound of unwashed wool of the first class, and in addition thereto 50 per centum ad valorem."

In order to ascertain what the duty is, reference must be made to the duty on unwashed wool of the first class. This is fixed in the bill at 11 cents per pound, the present rate being 10 cents. The duty on blankets for printing-machines is therefore a "triple expansion" tax, amounting to 38½ cents per pound and 40 per cent. ad valorem if valued at not more than 40 cents per pound, and 44 cents per pound and 50 per cent. ad valorem if valued at above 40 cents. Who conceived this intricate device for increasing the taxes on knowledge and adding to the cost of every school-book, newspaper, and Bible, and every scrap of printing or writing-paper and envelope in the country, we do not know, but we think that it is the duty of the press to find him out. When found, he will probably say that the duty will only amount to a few cents per head of the population, and therefore ought to be disregarded.

The theft of two Senatorial seats from the new State of Montana was consummated on Wednesday week, when the Republicans of the Senate voted solidly in favor of seating the two Republican contestants who were never elected by any legally constituted Legislature. The Republican Senators have confessed judgment by their conduct during the so-called debate which preceded Wednesday's vote. They were unable to meet the Democratic arguments against the committee report in favor of the Republican contestants, and their spokesmen, including Messrs. Sherman, Hoar, and Evarts, cannot be said to have done anything more than quibble over the points at issue. The simple fact is, that the Republican majority decided to seat the Republican contestants before the committee had reported, or before even an inquiry had been held, in accordance with the Republican "plan of campaign" to secure so large a party majority in the Senate as to make it impossible for the Democrats to gain control of that body for five and possibly ten years to come. If the party can thus get the means for blocking legislation for an indefinite period, its leaders do not care how many States they may lose in the meantime because of their partisan course.

The Republican majority in the upper branch is now ten, that party having forty-seven Senators against thirty-seven for the Democrats. If Wyoming and Idaho are admitted and elect Republican Senators, according to the party programme, the majority will be increased to fourteen. As matters now stand, the majority is larger than either party has had for a number of years, the upper branch having been very close ever since the Republicans recovered it, through the help of Mahone, in 1881, after the Democrats had held control for the two previous years, by ten majority when David Davis voted with them, and eight when he cast his vote with the Republicans. From 1861 to 1879 the Republicans had held uninterrupted control of the Senate, and for much of the time by at least a two-thirds vote. The "tidal wave" of 1874, which wiped out the Republican majority in the House, left the party still with a good working majority in the other branch, and it was four years later before the change in popular sentiment was fully reflected in the Senate. In like manner the Democrats may sweep the country in the elections for Representatives next fall, and yet leave the Republicans from 1891 to 1893 with a good majority in the Senate. Indeed, it will require almost a revolution in public sentiment to shake Republican control of the Senate before 1895, so strongly is that party now intrenched.

The closing scene of the Pan-American Conference is said to have been extremely affecting, Mr. Blaine being almost moved to tears when he gave the word of parting. If the emotions of the conferees were due to the small results achieved, they were fully justified. The ostensible object of the Conference was to promote reciprocity in trade. Its real object was to enable a few steamship-owners to get their hands into the United States Treasury. Reciprocal trade relations have not been advanced an inch. Steamship subsidies have been advanced an inch or two, but are yet far from attainment. When the South Americans get home and recover from the effects of Mr. Blaine's benediction, they will probably perceive that there is not much to be gained by voting *their* money to carry on trade in the face of a tariff that increases the duties on their coarse wool about 200 per cent.

Whatever may have been Mr. Blaine's connection with the bejuggled duty on hides, it is certain that he has had nothing to do with the proposition to make raw sugar free. If that proposition becomes law, it will destroy all his chance of concluding a treaty of reciprocity with Brazil. With that country alone of all the South American nations has he made a serious and persistent attempt to negotiate such a treaty. The negotiations are now pending, and it is no great secret that their success depended upon Mr. Blaine's ability to induce the Senate to ratify a treaty giving Brazil the privilege of free raw sugar. That is the only trade concession we can grant to Brazil, and the only one she asks. In return for it she would abolish or lower duties now affecting American exports. But if Congress makes all raw sugar free, it takes the last card from the Secretary of State's hand, and gives the Brazilians all they want with no need of paying anything for the new advantage. As it is not to be supposed that Mr. Blaine has been insincere in his approaches to the Brazilian Commissioners, the conclusion is inevitable that he must look with extreme displeasure upon the free-sugar clause of the McKinley bill. This lends plausibility to the theory that the Committee on Ways and Means has treated him as cavalierly as it has the rest of the Cabinet, and that he really had no hand in the affair of the duties on hides. Indeed, why should a

committee that deliberately declares its intention of destroying our foreign commerce, go out of its way for the sake of a beggarly treaty of reciprocity?

Secretary Windom has written a letter for publication defending his Silver Bill, in which he enumerates "the extraordinary concessions which are offered to the silver sentiment of the country." These constitute exactly the reason why the bill ought not to pass. The Secretary of the Treasury is the very last man who ought to make such concessions. He, of all others, ought to set the example of rigid adherence to correct principles of finance, because any bending, any fluctuation, in that quarter will be taken (as it has been) by the silver fanatics as proof that they are wholly right. Regarded as a "back fire" to the silver craze, the Windom Bill has been a failure. The true policy of the friends of sound finances is to fight on the front and not on the flank. If the silvermen are the stronger party, let them have their way, after the best resistance that can be made. They will be cured of their folly after they have had a taste of it. If the American people want to see all the dollars in their pockets turn into 70-cent pieces, it is much better to let them try the experiment than for the Secretary of the Treasury to make the "unparalleled concessions to the silver interest" which he so plumes himself upon.

Another pension job was all but carried through the House of Representatives on Monday, in the shape of a bill proposing to put on the pension-roll every Union soldier who was made prisoner during the war. This would be equivalent to a proclamation to soldiers in any future war that the surest pathway to the financial gratitude of their countrymen lay through surrender to the enemy. Nevertheless, this absurd proposition almost secured the two-thirds vote required to carry it under a suspension of the rules, and would have gone through without opposition if there had been no Democratic members.

It took only five minutes' time for an impartial jury, after hearing evidence and arguments on both sides, to decide that worsteds are not woollens under the tariff laws of the United States. The verdict is that Secretary Windom's decision on this question, whereby worsted coatings and suitings were lifted out of one section of the Tariff Act and put into another section, was contrary to law, and that the Government must pay back the money wrongfully extorted from importers of worsted goods together with interest at 6 per cent. It is to be assumed that the Administration will say all kinds of things now of the counsel for the importers, the jury, and the judge, and will, on some pretence or other, carry the judgment to the Supreme Court on a writ of error. Anything for delay, and a concealment of the Treasury nakedness, and a warding off of the sharp condemnation, by removal from office, which should, by an honest President, be visited on Windom, Tichenor, and Hepburn.

The result will be used as an argument for McKinley's Administrative Bill, on the plea that Government judges and New York jurymen cannot be trusted; but the truth is, that if the worsted case had been tried under the fourteenth and fifteenth sections of that bill, the importers would have been beaten, and for the simple reason that they could not have got out the facts. There could not have been an adequate application of that tremendous corkscrew of cross-examination of witnesses, and no compulsory attendance of witnesses before the general appraisers. There could not have been the exclusion of incompetent and illegal evidence, and the inclusion of that of an opposite character. What general appraiser, likely to be appointed, could have fitly presided over such a trial, as did Judge Lacombe, ruling under the peril of a humiliating wigging by the Supreme Court if he erred? There is no especial moral victory for anybody in this decision, excepting for those who pointed to the Treasury decision as evidence of a corrupt bargain for votes for Harrison.

In so far as the organs of the Administration notice the charges against Quay at all, they treat them as an attack of British free-traders on a great American protectionist, and they rely for "vindication" on the fact that Quay has been elected to various high offices since the date at which he committed his offences. The steady reliance of organs on this line of defence for criminal politicians is one of the most curious phenomena of our time. In fact, it furnishes a study in morbid psychology. You say to a man, "On such a day, in such a place, in the presence of such and such witnesses, you stole a thousand-dollar note. You were pursued and captured, and the money was found in your boot."

Ans. "I know very well what your views are about the McKinley Bill regulating the administration of the customs, and, therefore, your accusation makes no impression on me whatever. After hearing what you say about Maj. McKinley's mode of appraising goods, I feel sure I cannot have committed the offence which you describe, and decline to put in any defence."

Accuser. "Is it possible this is all you have to say to the witnesses who saw you in the act, and to the officer who found the money in your boot?"

Ans. "By no means. I have also to say that since they caught me I have been elected to more than one place of trust and emolument, which could not have happened if what these witnesses said about me was true."

Acc. "But why could it not have happened? Did the voters who elected you know anything about the charge? Had they heard the proofs and your defence?"

Ans. "No, they knew nothing about it whatever, which shows that it was a lie. Vindication at the hands of persons who have examined your case is of very little importance compared to that of persons who have never heard of it, or have heard only your own story. Hearing both sides confuses the mind and destroys the judging capacity."

To say that the Working-Girls' Convention held last week was one of the most remarkable we have ever had in this city, would be saying something very commonplace. It is in reality the outward and visible sign of an extraordinary change in the outlook of a class which was, perhaps, less considered and in many ways more helpless than any other portion of the community—the young girls dependent on the work of their hands for their own support. That they should have come up out of the dull and dreary and lonely obscurity of their homes, have organized themselves into clubs for mutual assistance, enjoyment, and improvement, have provided themselves with comfortable club-rooms, where they get hopeful and elevating glimpses of all that is going on in the great world outside the humble sphere in which they live, assurances of sympathy, hints about life, manners, dress, and cultivation, from women more fortunately situated, and possessing a larger experience—that this movement should have spread widely, and should have resulted in the meeting of several hundred delegates to talk over common interests and experiences—is certainly a very singular and most hopeful phenomenon. Most of the large cities were represented in the Convention, as, Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Pittsburgh, Chicago, San Francisco; and many smaller places. The movement, we believe, originated in New York, and was due to the initiative of Miss Grace Dodge and Miss Clara Potter; and it is a movement which of course could not have succeeded without the display by these ladies of extraordinary tact as well as practical wisdom in winning and justifying the confidence of the girls in their sympathy and coöperation.

The three things which a Tammany leader most dreads—we give them in the order of repulsiveness—are the penitentiary, honest industry, and biography. It is not always in the power of decent people to condemn him either to the penitentiary or honest industry; but painstaking and courageous reformers can always write his biography. In fact, the rise into power of the gang who now have possession of the city government is due solely to the fact that their biographies had not been published. Grant never could have been elected had the lives of himself and his companions been laid before the public by careful and competent hands. It is the obscurity which veils the earlier portions of their career which enables these men to live on the city. Public spirit in New York is not very strong nor active; but that portion of the community which follows honest callings is not so bereft of self-respect, of love of country, and of reverence for the moral government of the world, as to accept with eyes open a municipal administration composed of men taken largely from the class of criminal or shiftless

adventurers. Therefore we say that anybody in this city who has heart or energy or time for the work of reform cannot do better than get up the record or biography of each Tammany politician as he comes to the surface of affairs and either gets an office or becomes entitled to "divvies" from the party funds. Of course he must be watched for, and have his portrait taken the minute he rises out of the slime of crime and lawlessness in which he is apt to be originally bred, and the work is not pleasant; but we fear it must be done steadily and persistently, if this city is to be saved from becoming a disgrace to American civilization, and an aid to the enemies of popular government all over the world. Considering the frightful demoralization of the poor foreign population which our present city government works as soon as they come in contact with it, the standing denial of God and the mockery of justice, of truthfulness, honesty, and purity which it seems to represent to them in all the branches of it which touch them, the indifference of the religious and well-to-do class in this city to what is called "politics," and their frequent readiness to sacrifice the city to the Federal questions, are both painful and astonishing.

Mr. Dana, the editor of the *Sun*, is laboring to prove that somebody called him "a dirty liar and thief." Indeed, he is hardly satisfied with that. If there are any words more vituperative, he wants the public to understand that they were applied to him. Paul Pry solicited the favor of a booting. Dana insists that he has already received one, and he implies that he would like to have another. It all grows out of the interview with ex-President Cleveland in the *World*, which that paper acknowledged was fictitious. Most people who had been led to believe that they had been called "dirty liar and thief," would be glad to know that no such terms had been applied to them. Not so Dana! He rejoices to believe that they were applied to him. He hugs them. He glories in them. They are a decoration to him provided only that Mr. Cleveland applied them to him. Anybody who can prove that Mr. Cleveland said that Dana was a dirty liar and thief, will hear of something to his advantage by applying at the office of the *Sun*.

Mr. Goschen's budget speech shows that the British finances are in a flourishing condition, and that although the laboring classes have been relieved of all taxes on the necessaries of life except tea, there is a surplus in the treasury of more than $15,000,000. It is proposed to reduce the duties on tea (now 6d. per pound) to 4d. What a contrast this budget presents to our tariff, with its monstrous exactions on the clothing and other necessaries of the people, which the McKinley bill proposes to increase instead of diminish! Among other items in Mr. Goschen's speech of present interest to us is his statement that the postal receipts exceeded the estimates by $500,000. Included in the estimates of expenditure are all the so-called "subsidies" for ocean mail service. The receipts for mail service have exceeded the payments for all such service, including ocean mail-carriage, every year for a very long time past, and now we are told that there has been a net gain in one year of half-a-million dollars. What will the sagacious Farquhar and the subsidy-beggars at Washington say to this?

Affairs in East Africa have taken a very curious turn. Emin Pasha, whom Stanley went to rescue, has turned his back on his rescuer and gone back, or is trying to go back, to his old dominions, in the service of Germany, whereat there has been a good deal of excitement in England. They say there that Emin is ungrateful, after so much pains was taken to rescue him, to go back to the place from whence he came without as much as saying thanks to his rescuer, and in taking service with the Germans, who have now become England's rivals in East Africa, after England had furnished the expedition which went to his aid. The truth seems to be that nothing has ever been truly known about Emin's views in the whole matter. There can be little doubt that he enjoyed his pashalik in the Sudan mightily. He ruled over a large extent of territory and a submissive, if not attached, population. He had a small standing army, and lots of ivory, and was able, like the German Emperor, to receive any one who wished to help him with open arms, and smash to pieces any one who tried to hinder him. He held his ground very well until the Mahdi, away down at Khartum, got his power sufficiently consolidated to send a force up to reduce Emin to submission and to defeat him in several encounters. Emin then not unnaturally began to sigh for civilized life, and probably heard with relief that Stanley was coming. But as soon as he got out of the Mahdi's clutches, and reached Stanley, and found himself as it were under another man's orders, and on the point of becoming a simple doctor, or literary man, or returned traveller in Europe, his feelings naturally underwent a change. He found he would sooner be a prince in the desert than a short-lived lion in London or Berlin drawing-rooms. So he wavered and doubted, and provoked Stanley by his vacillation, and was not very grateful for being rescued, and finally decided to take service under Germany and go back to his old throne if he could get there under German auspices. All this is very natural and innocent, and why the British public should be provoked over it it is hard to see.

A lively turn was given to Spanish politics in the last days of March, by the case of Gen. Daban. A member of the Senate, as well as a General in the army, that gentleman wrote a circular letter to all his brother officers severely criticising the military policy of the Government, and asking for information which might be used against the Minister of War in the coming debate in the Senate. The letter leaked out, of course, and the Minister of War considered it a grave breach of discipline. He at once issued an order for the General's arrest and imprisonment for two months on the charge of insubordination. Notice of the order was transmitted to the Senate, that the acquiescence of that body in the punishment of one of its members might be secured. A great cry was immediately raised that the Government was overriding parliamentary privilege and going in the teeth of the Constitution, which expressly declares the inviolability of members of the Cortes. But the Minister of War maintained that he was proceeding not against a Senator, but against an insubordinate member of the army, and that if it came to a question of the relative importance of army discipline and a strained parliamentary privilege, he should decide for the former. The heated debate which followed left the Government with a comfortable majority, and when Gen. Cassola took the matter up in the Chamber, in the hope of making a point against the Administration, he had no success whatever. Spain has suffered too much from insurrectionary military men not to have a wholesome prejudice against them, and Sagasta's fervent assertion of the supremacy of the civil power, and his declaration that insubordination in the army must be punished at all costs, have won him new popular favor.

A highly valuable report on the economic movement of Mexico since 1885 has been sent to the Foreign Office by the British Minister to Mexico, Sir Francis Deny. He records the gratifying increase of revenue which has gone steadily on, even with the remission of some taxes, and notes the march of public improvements with which we are so familiar in this country. A fact of special significance is the falling-off in the proportion of silver to the general body of exports. Though still the principal article of export, it now constitutes but five-eighths of the total exportations, whereas not long ago it amounted to seven-eighths. This fact implies a considerable quickening of agricultural production of various sorts. Sir Francis calls attention to the chronic deficit in the budget —an element of the financial situation which somehow never gets telegraphed from Mexico —and says that the swelling railway subventions are the sword of Damocles hanging over the Mexican Treasury. He is decidedly of the opinion that railroad building has been overdone, at least in comparison with other public improvements. He thinks that the pressure on the Treasury caused by the service of the present foreign debt and the increasing payments to railroads will make a new and larger foreign loan necessary. This prediction is borne out by the presentation, in this very session of Congress, of a proposal for a new loan of $40,000,000 to fund all outstanding debts. Still, it is gratifying to know that this cautious Englishman, who looks on all sides of the question, believes that the country is in a sound and progressive condition, and that its financial future is secure.

A FARMER'S TARIFF BY R. P. PORTER.

THE governing principle, we are told, of the McKinley Tariff Bill is protection for the farmer. At least this was the talk while the duty on hides was retained. To support this doctrine various misleading statements have been published lately, the most deceptive being one which we find in the *American Economist* of April 11, signed by Robert P. Porter, who seems to find time, amid his duties as Superintendent of the Census, to do a good deal of falsifying outside of his own bureau in behalf of those who put him there. In this statement Mr. Porter, in order to show the farmer how much he is protected by the tariff, says that "last year the agricultural products imported on which duty was levied, aggregated in value over $250,000,000." Then he gives a list of what he calls "imports of important agricultural products," as follows:

Sugar	$93,000,000
Animals and products, except wool	41,000,000
Fibres, animal and vegetable	60,000,000
Fruits	19,000,000
Barley and cereals	9,000,000
Tobacco leaf	11,000,000
Total	$233,000,000

It will be a pleasant surprise to the farmer to be told that the duty on sugar is for his benefit. It will be a valuable instruction to him and to his representatives in Congress who have been clamoring to have sugar put on the free list, and have succeeded so far as raw sugar is concerned, to be told by Porter that they have been mistaken all along, and that they ought to consider the duty on raw sugar an advantage to themselves and not a tax on their earnings. If the farmers and their representatives in Congress really understand their own interests in this matter, we may safely begin the task of pruning Mr. Porter's table by striking out "sugar, $93,000,000," and leaving his total for the present at $140,000,000.

The next item is "animals and products except wool, $41,000,000." The word "products" is rather vague, but we suppose it means animal products. Of animals dutiable we imported in the year ending June 30, 1887, $4,677,997 worth. Of animal products, dutiable, not including wool, we imported bristles $1,174,333, ivory (we do not produce elephants in this country) $485,508, meat products $434,853, dairy products (principally foreign varieties of cheese not produced in this country) $1,371,386; total animals and animal products dutiable, $8,144,077. But of this amount we must subtract bristles, ivory, and foreign cheese ($874,261) as non-competitive products, leaving only $5,609,975 upon which the American farmer gets any protection, instead of $41,000,000, as stated by the Superintendent of the United States Census.

His next item is "fibres, animal and vegetable, $60,000,000." Even this large item does not include wool, for Mr. Porter says in the next paragraph:

> "With such an array of important products protected, to say nothing of wool, of hops, of hay, of eggs, of vegetables, of seeds, and of a score of minor products, is it likely the American farmer will give up the tariff because the free-trade shouters are loudly proclaiming against the iron and woollen barons?"

The principal items in this list are flax $1,922,182, hemp and all substitutes $4,041,522, jute $2,616,128, sisal grass and other vegetable fibres $3,733,001, rags, shoddy, and waste $1,843,823; total $14,156,656. If we have omitted any "important" dutiable fibres, Mr. Porter will favor us by stating what they are. It is well known that flax is not raised in this country as a fibre, although there is a duty of $20 per ton on it. Therefore the duty is not protection to the farmer. On the contrary, it is an injury to him as a consumer of linen goods. The same may be said of jute and sisal grass. As for hemp, we have had a protective duty on it ever since 1824, and what has been the result? According to the late Judge Kelley, there are 24,000 acres of land in Kentucky on which hemp is grown, and that is all. Is the American farmer protected by a duty on woollen rags? Most of his woollen clothing is either in that form now or fast going that way, but he would scorn the suggestion that he was protected by a duty of ten cents a pound on his clothes after they will no longer hold together. In short, in the whole $14,000,000 of imported fibres the farmer does not get a cent's worth of protection, except possibly in the little item of Kentucky hemp. As to Mr. Porter's $60,000,000, it is mere coinage and invention.

What about "fruits $19,000,000"? The dutiable fruits are figs, oranges, lemons, limes, prunes, raisins, Zante currants, dates, and pineapples. How much is the American farmer protected by a duty on pineapples or on anything in the whole list? The California and Florida fruit-growers are not usually classed as farmers, although they do cultivate the soil, as the vine-growers of the former State do also. It would be just as proper to put in Mr. Porter's list all the foreign wines imported as the foreign fruits, since some few of our agriculturists grow grapes.

There remain the items of barley and cereals and leaf tobacco, amounting together to $20,000,000. On neither of these is the duty protective to any appreciable degree, because the kinds of barley and of tobacco imported are different from those grown in this country. But we will give Mr. Porter the advantage of these in the summing up. It appears that the table, if truthful, would have been constructed as follows:

Animals and animal products, except wool	$5,609,975
Fibres, animal and vegetable (hemp)	4,041,522
Barley and cereals	9,000,000
Tobacco leaf	11,000,000
Total	$29,651,497
Porter's statement	233,000,000
Difference	$203,348,503

The fact is, as everybody knows, that the only farmers who are protected under the tariff are a few on the Canadian border in New England and northern New York. The wool imports are not included in Porter's table. There is good protectionist authority for saying that even the wool duties are a damage to the farmer, and this is our opinion; but we will allow that the importations of clothing and combing-wool (but not carpet-wool) are competitive. These amount to about $6,000,000 in value, hops about $4,000,000, hay (what an absurdity is a duty on hay!), about $800,000, and seeds, including flaxseed, about $850,000. Add all these to the total above, and we have $41,000,000 in place of the $250,000,000 with which Mr. Porter seeks to bamboozle the American farmer. What confidence can be put in the forthcoming census in the hands of such a falsifier?

THE VOTE OF THE FARM.

THE present year is the year of the Federal census. Evidently it is also a turning year of the tariff controversy—a year when the minds of voters are swiftly changing on the subject of our "protective" tariff policy, and changing in the direction of tariff reduction. The coincidence is peculiarly opportune for a condensed review of the absolute strength of the vote which comes from the American farm. No doubt, the coming few years will show great changes for the good in the old manufacturing States, particularly among that class of factory producers which each day grows more and more clearly defined as the "raw material" group. But, highly important as that class is, it is relatively small compared with the farmers, among whom, unless all signs deceive, the richest fruits of the reform are to be harvested very soon.

Although most persons have a general notion of the great strength of the farm vote, yet few have a clear conception of its real dimensions and relative importance in the country both as an industrial and political factor. The census of 1880, which on this point must be nearly accurate, fixes the male population engaged in all occupations at 14,744,942 out of the total working population, male and female, of 17,392,099. Of the last-cited number, 7,670,493 were classed as agricultural, and of the males in that vocation there were 7,075,983. That is to say, if we carry out the ratios, nearly one-half of the population of the whole country was agricultural, and, consequently, one-half of its vote came in 1880 from the farm. The total population of the country is now approximately 65,000,000. During the last decade it is probable that the growth of the farm class has at least kept pace with that of the other industrial groups. While farming has relatively declined at the East, the decrease has been made good in the newer States of the West and Northwest. Out of our whole present population of, say, 65,000,000, we may assert with confidence that at least 32,000,000 are agricultural. Our total vote for President in 1880 was 9,218,550, or about 1 to 5.4 of population. This ratio would give about 12,000,000 as the total vote that would reach the polls if a hotly contested Presidential election were to be held to-day. The number is probably a little too small, since the ratio of 5.4 is that for the Hancock-Garfield campaign, which did not draw out a very full vote. But, accepting the figures, the agricultural part in this vote would be, say, thirty-two sixty-fifths, or about 5,900,000.

This, then, is the vast group of voters

whom no sophistry of the protectionists ought for an instant to delude into the belief that a high tariff is for their benefit. They are *a priori* "unprotected," the victims of a system of free-trade selling and "protected" purchasing—in their economic relation as consumers paying heavy prices for high-tariff goods, and as producers most of them selling against the competition of the world's markets.

Let us pass from this analysis of the farmer vote of the whole country to a more critical survey of its dimensions in particular States. We select for this twelve States, of which all but one (Connecticut) voted for Harrison in 1888. They are chosen with especial reference either to the already observed tariff changes among the farmers, to the narrow margins of party majorities in them, or to both:

	All occupations (male).	Farmers (male).
California	348,303	78,785
Connecticut	192,663	43,936
Illinois	893,679	433,796
Indiana	583,658	329,614
Iowa	483,457	302,171
Massachusetts	546,591	64,746
Michigan	514,191	239,346
Minnesota	230,048	130,817
New Hampshire	112,340	44,299
New York	1,524,264	375,213
Ohio	881,836	396,120
Wisconsin	371,062	194,380
Total	6,682,092	2,633,223

The twelve States named are doubtless to be the pivotal farm States in the near future of the tariff conflict. It will be seen how the relative size of the farming workers in them as compared with the whole country is lowered by such States as New York, Massachusetts, California, Connecticut, and New Hampshire, with their large comparative population of workers outside the farm. Nevertheless, about five-thirteenths of all these workers are males upon the farm, and of these probably three out of five are Republicans whose votes thus far have been cast under the party momentum to sustain a high tariff. Using the proper ratios derived from the election and census returns for 1880, we find that the farm vote of the twelve States is now about 2,200,000, probably divided as about 880,000 Democratic and 1,320,000 Republican. Certainly the Republican farm vote of the twelve commonwealths does not fall at the present time below a round million and a quarter of votes. Of the twelve, Connecticut went for tariff reform in 1888, New York went Democratic last year, and with her Ohio and Iowa gave their sharp signals of the great tariff change that is coming by registering their Democratic majorities. And the local elections which have been held since in nearly all of them show the strong political trend in the same direction.

Thus, from whatever point of view we observe it, the size and drift of the farm vote are deeply significant. They indicate the direction in which the labors of the tariff-reformers must be most strenuously pushed; they show the magnitude of the political convulsion that is surely coming so soon as the farm movement against the tariff gets fairly under way; and they move our wonder to think of the length of time that it has taken such an immense body of sincere voters, ground down under tariff impositions, to awaken to the national evil which has been "loaded" upon them like patient beasts of burden by the Republican protectionists. This long patience is the more amazing from the fact that in so large a number of the "pivotal" States of the past the change of votes needed to rebuke the high-tariff policy could have been reckoned in fractional percentages of the total farm vote. However, when the impending recoil of the farm vote comes, we do not believe it will be a matter of small percentages.

A VERY QUEER BILL.

THE fact is familiar that with the assembling of the Legislature of New York begins a time of anxiety for all honest men who care for the public welfare. One never knows what objectionable bills, under the most innocent appearance, may be voted through. Instead of using their power to forward wise schemes for the benefit of the city and State, citizens therefore are forced to spend it in detecting the presence of danger and in preventing the fulfilment of unwise or corrupt designs. The present Senate bill No. 568, introduced by Mr. McNaughton, which is so peculiar that it would seem to mean more than it shows on the surface, provides for the creation of a board of five persons whose duty it shall be to "designate the text-books to be used in all the public schools of the State." On and after September 1, 1891, no text-books are to be used in any public school of New York except those designated by this Board, which "may adopt any books already published, or prepare or cause to be prepared by experts suitable text-books." This experiment has already been tried since 1883 in California with disastrous results, and New York had better profit by California's experience in this case as in the case of the code. One trouble with our whole system of public schools is that we have already too many boards, too much dictation, and too much machinery. The protective and paternal system works evil in education as well as in law or in trade.

But a more curious provision follows. The State is to own the copyrights of all books thus prepared by its "experts." But if the Board shall prescribe the use of any books the copyright of which is held by a publisher, "the owner of the copyright shall grant, through contract with the Board, to any other publisher the privilege of competing for its production and supply on payment of a royalty not to exceed 10 per cent. of the selling price." Four of the largest publishers of school-books have just formed a combination—a sort of league, offensive and defensive—which will control the production of three-fourths of all the school-books published. In case, therefore, that any book belonging to one of these firms should be designated for use by this supreme Board, that firm, under the terms of this "privilege," would be protected from competition of the other three, while all other publishers would have no such advantage. The two facts of the Text-book Bill at Albany and the combination fit curiously together, whatever doubt may be entertained as to any power of taking away copyright under a New York statute. In any case, it is improper that five men should have power to impose text-books of their selection upon all the public schools of the State. In fact, the agreement of only four of these men could bind all the schools to the use of the books for four years, without possibility of change within that time except by a unanimous vote of the Board. The education of live human minds cannot be carried on by any such cast-iron system as this. What is required is more flexibility, not less—more wisdom and experience than is contained in any five heads, and more opportunity for open and free competition with regard to school-books, if the best are to be had.

All this on a general consideration of the bill. But when we come to specific points, it seems still more objectionable, and the conviction is irresistible either that it intentionally covers much more than it shows, or that it has been so carelessly framed as to be in fact very dangerous in its possibilities. In the abolition of all local authority, it presents one manifestation of the paternal principle which in so many forms threatens the maintenance of any real vigorous life in the country. The tendency will be to produce an apathetic feeling towards the school in all the country towns, whereas the only safeguard of the schools is a living interest concerning them in the minds of all good citizens. The clumsy construction of the bill makes it impossible to determine whether the Board to be created may not prescribe a different set of text-books for every individual school. It says only that "it shall be its duty to designate the text-books to be used in all the public schools of the State." Apparently the intention is that they shall designate one set which shall be uniform everywhere. The very fact that the bill is so carelessly worded that it is capable of two such different interpretations should be enough to condemn it. It is not said that the Board shall designate *one* set of text-books, but simply that they shall designate text-books. If we accept the apparent intention of the bill, we must dissent from the opinion that it is desirable to have the same text-books always used in bucolic communities and in cities. Books which may be the best for the city will not be the best for country children, and a text-book is a thing absolutely of no value except in its adaptability to the pupils; if it be considered abstractly, and apart from this relation, it has the same significance as Emerson's umbrella considered as alone by itself, in a universe without men or rain or sun.

Then another point: The five who are *ex officio* to constitute this autocratic Board may

be to-day men who are capable of assuming its duties; but what are they to be to-morrow? Some of them hold their offices by appointment of the Governor, and the Governor of the State of New York, we know, does not always necessarily belong to the most judicious, intelligent, trustworthy, and conscientious class of citizens. The State Association of Teachers may elect one of their number for President out of personal favoritism or for other motives than their respect for his professional excellence, and, moreover, they may, and probably will, elect a new man every year. Our immediate acquaintance with school superintendents does not warrant us in resting with assured confidence on the man whom the Association of Superintendents may annually select for their President, and the Principal of the Albany Normal School holds his place virtually under the authority of the State Superintendent, who is one of the Executive Committee of that school. It is well known, so profitable is the sale of text-books, that there has always been a lively competition among rival firms to secure the supply for any one large city. The agents of these firms have not scrupled to approach members of city school boards with tempting inducements to secure their votes for the adoption or retention of their particular book or books. Where the principals of schools have had any influence in the selection of books, they too have been subject to pressure. The agents have even gone further than this, and have actually become wire-pullers in the election of city superintendents, so that a superintendent of schools in some large city may be and actually has been elected or deposed through the influence of men whose only interest in the matter is the pecuniary gain of the publishers whom they serve. This is bad enough. But now it is proposed to put this enormous patronage of the school-books for the whole State of New York—containing nearly 2,000,000 children—into the hands of five, or, as we have noted, perhaps of only four men. Without personal disrespect to any one of the five men who fill at present the offices which would constitute them members of this Board, we say that it is far safer for the public schools to have the pressure which comes from school-book politics distributed over a greater area. The bill, if allowed to become a law, will introduce school-book politics not only into the matter of appointments, but also into every meeting of the State Association of Teachers and of the State Council of School Superintendents.

We greatly mistake the temper of the Town Committees, of the Boards of Education of the cities, and of the Principals of the large schools, if it shall prove that they will not oppose such a despotic measure as this bill, which practically impeaches and overrules their ability and judgment. It is time that the intelligent teachers and the parents of the children in the schools should see in what direction all these things point, and should express their convictions in some voice that will be audible at Albany.

THE MARRIAGES OF WOMEN COLLEGE GRADUATES.

THE *Overland Monthly* for April contains an interesting study and classification of the statistics of marriage of women college graduates. The statistics are derived from the Register of the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ, and in some small part also from the Register of the University of California. The most striking point brought out by the statistics is the marked difference, in the ratio of marriages to graduates, between the coeducational colleges and the colleges devoted exclusively to women; and as regards the comparison between college graduates and other women, it seems to be made plain that the marriage-rate for women who are graduated at coeducational colleges is not distinctly lower than that of the population at large.

A close study of the data in question gives rise to considerations some of which appear to us to be not without interest in themselves, while others are instructive as showing the pitfalls to which even careful and conscientious reasoners from statistics are exposed. First, then, as to the main point discussed by the writer, the difference in marriage-rate between the graduates of coeducational and those of women's colleges. Taking the whole mass of graduates, without distinction of time or locality, the percentage of marriages among the "coeducational graduates" is far greater than that among the "separate graduates." But the writer justly points out that this is not a fair comparison, since the separate colleges are all in the East, while the coeducational ones are mainly in the West, where the marriage-rate is higher than in the East. He therefore proceeds to make comparisons between the two kinds of colleges in the same section. He finds that among the women who have been graduated in the New York colleges during the last twelve years, the married ones comprise 25.7 per cent. of the coeducational graduates and 20.6 per cent. of the separate graduates; while in the New England colleges the corresponding percentages are 24.7 and 14.8 respectively. These last figures seem to show an overwhelming difference in favor of the coeducational graduates, and the *Overland* writer thinks they afford a more trustworthy basis of comparison than the New York colleges do, because the clientèle of the New England colleges is the more homogeneous.

It struck us, however, that there was probably something wrong about the matter, and, in fact, there is a grave oversight. The coeducational colleges run through about the same years as the women's colleges, but the number of graduates from the latter has been growing much more rapidly than that from the former, so that the proportion of recent graduates is much greater in the women's colleges than in the mixed colleges. We have taken the trouble to ascertain the mean date of graduation in both classes, and the result is that the coeducationals were graduated, upon the average, 6.9 years before the date of the Register, while the separates had had, upon the average, only 4.6 years of post-graduate life. If allowance be made for this difference, the superiority of the coeducational marriage-rate in New England would seem nearly, if not quite, to disappear, and with it the main support of the writer's conclusion, that there is a very marked difference between the probabilities of marriage for women educated in coeducational colleges and those educated in women's colleges.

Upon the whole, taking as a basis graduates prior to 1876, the figures given in the *Overland* seem to indicate that about 50 per cent. of the women graduated from Eastern separate colleges marry sooner or later, and about 70 per cent. of those graduated from Western coeducational colleges; and that the difference is due in about equal parts to difference of residence and to difference in the nature of the college. This result is not to be looked upon as conclusively established, for a variety of reasons, the chief of which are that the number of cases is too small (although the *whole* number of members of the Association exceeds one thousand), and that it is not certain that the married and unmarried graduates are equally likely to become and remain members of the Association.

Assuming that the marriage-rate of college-bred women is distinctly below that of other women in the same classes of society, does this justify the inference usually drawn from it? That inference is that a college education either makes women less inclined to marry, or makes men less inclined to marry them. We say without hesitation that the inference is unwarranted; the making of it involves that most usual — though perhaps most easily avoidable — error in reasoning from statistics, the overlooking of the part played by selection. There is, in every modern community, a very considerable number of women who are still young, but who, for one reason or another, do not expect to marry. Is it not obvious that these women have special incentives to seek a college education over and above those that apply to other women, and that consequently they will be disproportionately represented among college graduates? In point of fact, one might reasonably expect from this consideration alone a greater lowering of the marriage-rate than can possibly be deduced from the statistics, so that there is standing-ground for the contention that going to college actually promotes marriage. At all events, it may be confidently assumed that whatever deficiency there may be in the marriage-rate of women college graduates shows rather that women who will not marry go to college, than that women who go to college will not marry.

But, waiving now all these questions of accurate determination, one cannot leave the subject without commenting on what would have been considered a generation ago so astonishing a phenomenon as is presented by the little difference that exists—if any exist—between the college woman and the non-college woman as a candidate for matrimonial happiness. That there is no startling difference is shown not only by statistics, but still more conclusively by the experience of every one whose circle of

acquaintances includes college-bred women. One would naturally have expected that these bold innovators would have to go through a long period of probation, during which they would be looked upon as *lusus naturæ*, and any man so infatuated as to seek marriage with one of them would be held an object of compassion by his normal male friends. But no such thing has taken place. The "sweet girl graduates" who, forty years ago, existed only in Tennyson's prophetic fancy, have quietly glided in among us and become familiar figures; they seem to find lovers and husbands in the ordinary course of nature, and among men who are not looked upon as visionary or eccentric; and as to the happiness of the unions which they form, we feel sure that no one who has observed many instances of them, needs any statistical evidence to convince him that there is no class of marriages more uniformly happy than are those of women college graduates.

PALÆOLITHIC MAN IN OHIO.

OBERLIN, O., April 14, 1890.

Two or three weeks ago, Mr. W. C. Mills, Secretary of the Archæological Society of New Comerstown, Tuscarawas County, Ohio, sent to me a flint implement which, according to his description, seemed to have been found in the undisturbed gravel of the glacial terrace which everywhere lines the valley of the Tuscarawas River. In order the more fully to judge of the significance of the discovery, I visited the locality last week, together with a small party of Cleveland gentlemen. The result of the investigation cannot fail to be of considerable public interest.

The flint implement referred to is a perfect representative of the palæolithic type found in northern France and southern England. It is four inches long, two inches wide, and an inch and a half through at its larger end, tapering gradually to a point and carefully chipped to an edge all around. Fig. 472 in Evans's 'Ancient Stone Implements of Great Britain' would pass for a very good representation of it. The material is black flint, or chert, such as occurs in the "Lower Mercer" limestone strata not many miles away, and has upon all the surface that peculiar glazed appearance which indicates considerable age.

New Comerstown is situated upon the right bank of the Tuscarawas River, about one hundred miles directly south of Cleveland and forty miles south of the glacial boundary in Ohio. The latter part of the journey from the north to reach the place is such a complete demonstration of the now accepted theory concerning the origin of the terraces along this river, and others similarly situated, that a brief description of it will be profitable.

The headwaters both of the Tuscarawas itself and of the several branches which unite with it before reaching Canal Dover are all within the glaciated area, thus affording access to an unlimited quantity of débris brought by the continental ice-sheet from the Laurentian region in Canada. Immediately below the glacial boundary, all these streams are bordered with extensive terraces, the material of which consists of assorted matter from the glacial drift such as would naturally have been carried down during the closing floods of the glacial period.

From Canal Dover to New Comerstown the Tuscarawas River makes a long bend to the east, but the railroad cuts across the elbow, and for twenty miles or more finds its way through two small valleys tributary to the main line of drainage. The course of the railroad first strikes up the valley of Stone Creek, following it for several miles. But no sooner does it enter this tributary valley than it leaves behind the terraces and other gravel deposits which mark the main valley and every tributary further north. At length the road, after passing through a tunnel, strikes into the headwaters of Buckhorn Creek, which runs southward to join the Tuscarawas at New Comerstown. Here, too, for several miles, there is a total absence of terraces or of any deposits of gravel. On approaching the mouth of the creek, however, a vast gravel deposit derived from the northern drift is encountered, in which the railroad company is making extensive excavations to get material for ballasting their track. Thus, in this short journey, there was demonstrated before our eyes the limitation of these peculiar gravel deposits to the main valley of the river, and so, by consequence, their glacial age and origin.

It was in this last-named gravel-bank, on the 27th of October, 1889, that Mr. Mills found the palæolith above described. The surface of the terrace is at this point thirty-five feet above the flood-plain of the Tuscarawas. The valley of the river is about a mile wide. This gravel had been deposited in a recess at the mouth of Buckhorn Creek, where it was protected from subsequent erosion, and extended up the creek about a quarter of a mile, but, according to the law of such deposits, with gradually diminishing height as one recedes from the main line of deposition. The implement was found by Mr. Mills himself, in undisturbed strata, fifteen feet below the surface of the terrace; thus connecting it, beyond question, with the period when the terrace itself was in process of deposition, and adding another witness to the fact that man was in the valley of the Mississippi while the ice of the glacial period still lingered over a large part of its northern area.

The importance of this discovery is enhanced by the fact that this is only the fifth locality in which similar discoveries have been made in this country, the other places being Trenton, N. J., Madisonville, Ohio, Medora, Ind., and Little Falls, Minn. But in many respects this is the most interesting of them all, especially as connected with previous predictions of my own in the matter, though it is proper to say that Mr. Mills was not, at the time he made the discovery, aware of what had been written upon the subject.

When, in 1882, after having surveyed the glacial boundary across Pennsylvania, I continued a similar work in Ohio, I was at once struck with the similarity of the conditions in the various streams in Ohio flowing out of the glaciated region (and especially in the Tuscarawas River), to those in the Delaware River, where Dr. C. C. Abbott had reported the discovery of palæolithic implements at Trenton, N. J. Attention was called to this similarity in various periodicals at the time, as well as in my Report upon the Glacial Boundary made to the Western Reserve Historical Society in 1883 (pp. 26, 27), where it was said that the Ohio abounds in streams situated similarly to the Delaware with reference to glacial terraces, and that "the probability is that if he [man] was in New Jersey at that time [during the deposition of the glacial terraces], he was upon the banks of the Ohio, and the extensive terrace and gravel deposits in the southern part of the State should be closely scanned by archæologists. When observers become familiar with the rude form of these palæolithic implements, they will doubtless find them in abundance." Whereupon a dozen streams, among them the Tuscarawas, were mentioned in which the conditions were favorable for such investigations. The present discovery, therefore, coming as it does in addition to those of Dr. Metz in the Little Miami Valley and of Mr. Cresson in the valley of White River, Ind., has great cumulative weight, and forces, even on the most unwilling, the conviction that glacial man on this continent is not a myth, but a reality.

A glance at the physical features of the region in Ohio and Indiana where these palæoliths have been found, shows their eminent adaptation to the primitive conditions of life indicated by the implements themselves. The Tuscarawas valley has been formed by erosion through the parallel strata of sandstone and limestone here composing the coal formation The summits of the hills on either side rise to heights of from 300 to 500 feet, and their perpendicular faces abound even now with commodious shelters for primitive man. But in pre-glacial times the trough of the Tuscarawas was 175 feet deeper than at present, that amount of glacial gravel having been deposited along the bottom, thus raising it to its present level. Hence in pre-glacial times the opportunities for shelter must have been much superior even to those which are now in existence. The present forests of the region consist of beech, oak, tulip, maple, and other deciduous trees. Evergreens are now totally absent, but the advancing ice of the glacial period found here vast forests of evergreen trees. Not many miles distant, terraces of the same age with this at New Comerstown have, within recent years, yielded great quantities of red-cedar logs, still so fresh as to be manufactured into utensils for household use.

The relation of glacial man to the mound-builders is so often made a subject of inquiry that a brief answer will here be in place. The above relic of man's occupancy of Ohio was found *in* the glacial terrace, and belongs to a race living in that distant period when the ice-front was not far north of them, and when the terraces were in *process of deposition*. Thus this race is unquestionably linked with the great ice age. The mound-builders came into the region at a much later date, and reared their imposing structures *upon the surface* of these terraces, when the settled conditions of the present time had been attained, and there is nothing to show that their occupancy began more than one or two thousand years since, while their implements and other works of art are of an entirely different type from the rude relics of the palæolithic age. If, therefore, interest in a work of art is in proportion to its antiquity, this single implement from New Comerstown, together with the few others found in similar conditions, must be ranked among the most interesting in the world, and will do much to render North America a field of archæological research second to no other in importance.

G. FREDERICK WRIGHT.

ANTIQUITIES IN EGYPT.

CAIRO, March 6, 1890.

THE Egyptian Government, and especially the Egyptian newspapers, are somewhat disquieted on the subject of antiquities. The condition appears more serious since the recent removal of the Bulak Museum to Gizeh, and it may be worth the while to note some of the causes therefor. It is natural that the interest which foreigners show in discovering and removing the antiquities of a country

should awaken the Government of that country to the importance either of taking the matter into its own hands, or of at least retaining what may be found. Persia—a comparatively new field—still grants leave to excavate with possession of the objects found, whereas the jealous and repellent attitude of Turkey is well known. The monuments of Italy and of Greece have been brought thoroughly under Government control. The defence of Egypt against plundering and harvesting of the kind implied was undertaken, not by the natives against foreigners, but by the French in the person of a noted Egyptologist, Mariette, who aimed to serve the highest interests of science. He was amply supported by the Khedive Ismail, and from 1861 until his death in 1881 he was the chief of the new Department of Antiquities.

It was Mariette who put an end not merely to the most ruthless destruction of architectural monuments, which had been wrought by natives and by tourists, but especially to the indiscriminate sale and exportation of antiquities of all kinds. The soil of Egypt was replete with material relics of a remote past, which, when once beyond the reach of air and water, seem as permanent as the sand that covers them; but they were fast being exhumed, and were here represented in no collection, nor protected by any laws. Before the time of Ismail, foreign explorers—Minutoli, Lepsius, De Rougé, and others—removed to European museums whatever portable object they thought worthy, rejecting, however, much that is now greatly prized. Individuals bought without hindrance, and native diggers had full right to what they found. When, therefore, Mariette took his official position, his influence with the Government soon effected a new branch of legislation. A national museum was created. The exportation of antiquities became illegal; only under the Museum seal, which might be granted for duplicates, could a package containing antiquities pass the customs; only by order of the Museum could such a package be received at any railway station, and the classification as freight brought it under the highest special tariff. The Government claimed the first right to purchase at one-half of its estima'ed value all antiquities by whomsoever found, and any native caught offending was liable to fifty blows with the kurbash—to be repeated after a week unless full surrender had been made. This law was frequently enforced. Beyond the limits of their private lands the natives had no right to dig at all, and many ancient sites came directly under Government control. For it should be noted here that all *tells* (that is, all mounds of ruined villages) are inalienable Government property. The Nile-mud bricks composing them afford, when pulverized, a valuable dressing for the fields, and so the tells are kept to serve this purpose freely. For the rest, no excavations were to be made even by competent persons, except as undertaken by Mariette, representing his department in the Government service. The police still have permanent orders to stop excavations wherever seen.

It would be an error to suppose that all of these rules were rigidly enforced, or that they could be, although Mariette was keen to detect offenders, whom he treated with the utmost sternness. An excellent museum was built up; the grossest forms of desecration were checked; the trade of the town-dealers was for the moment almost destroyed. The notion spread among the native population, and possessed the minds of persons of high rank, that all "antikas" have a high money value, increasing with their size. On the other hand, free exportation was replaced by the smuggling of objects of no great bulk, which still exists for the benefit of foreign museums and of individuals who dare not comply with the rule.

During the decade that has passed since Mariette's death, the laws have been relaxed, not tightened. Whipping as a punishment for crime has been abolished under the British occupation, and, no substitute having been provided, the natives risk only the confiscation of their finds. It results that the dealers, all of whom are foreigners, are quite beyond the control of the Museum authorities, who, moreover, are no longer too zealous to make their collection as complete as possible; and many probably unique objects pass for ever out of the country. Architectural monuments when no longer protected by the sand often tend rapidly to perish or to fall. Variation in the temperature and humidity of the air and of the contiguous soil is often distinctly harmful to what has been long under the surface. Further, these monuments being scattered over a vast extent of territory, constant effort must be made to protect inscriptions, statues, and paintings from wanton and often superstitious defacement. Formerly the mudirs, or provincial governors, were personally responsible to the general Government for the detection and arrest of criminals within their respective provinces, but increased centralization under British influence has made it often impossible to trace an act of depredation to its source. A few incidents will show what power the Government really has, or what attitude it maintains.

(1.) The mutilation, demolition, or displacement of Muslim tombs is not only a grievous offence against the Faith, but is further punishable by imprisonment according to the civil law. No human hand may disturb this final rest of a follower of the Prophet. The archæologist has explored many cemeteries of the ancient civilization, but none of the purposes of science can get for him the right to excavate a Muslim grave. It is not the customary chronological line that is here drawn, but a purely religious one. I went the other day to a burial-place of the old town almost in sight from the roofs of the modern one, which is now traceable only by the burrowing of a few Arabs for inscribed tablets of marble. They know the nature of their offence against their religion and the law, for the work is done most secretly, and the workers are off when any one approaches. It appears that these are Kufic monuments of the ninth century, of a type that is rare and not well known. These hunters are of course incapable of such considerations; but they have worked for months, and so barbarously that it is next to impossible after them to make out the construction of the vaults or to get certain details which might add much to our knowledge of the art and customs of the people there interred. The case has been reported, and perhaps the work will stop. The bones show white where the sand is broken down, and I am told that many of them have been sold to a sugar refinery. But the marble slabs—the output of this vandal industry—to the number of several hundreds have for months been quietly bought through a middleman by the director of the Museum, who admits that he has not once paid a visit to the spot, which is only half an hour distant from the Museum!

(2.) It is only about two years since Riaz Pasha, the Prime Minister, made a contract with an English firm allowing them to dig *for bones* in ancient cemeteries, bringing to the Museum any other antiquities that might be found. But that provision of a Khedivial decree was cited forbidding the excavation of any site supposed to contain relics of antiquity, except by consent of the Director of the Museum, which in this case being withheld, the contract was abandoned. The report is confirmed that many tons of bones from the great cat cemetery have lately gone to Liverpool to be used as manure.

(3.) A permanent guardsman is stationed at an important site only to be presently convicted of thieving for himself.

(4.) A town policeman goes repeatedly to a place of excavation, seizes the person in charge, who holds a formal permit, and takes him before the mudir. The person thus annoyed finds the policeman one day boldly at work there with a dealer.

(5.) Certain stones which were reserved among the discoveries of the Egypt Exploration Fund, presently appeared in the garden of an Italian consul, en route, no doubt, for Turin.

A number of temples and tombs have either been placed under guard or walled about and so put under lock and key. Less than two years ago a Society for the Preservation of Ancient Monuments of Egypt was formed in England, and it has already offered to the Egyptian Government both counsel and funds to effect its purpose. In November, 1888, a Government tax of one pound Egyptian (£E1) was levied upon travellers visiting the monuments of Upper Egypt, and the sum of more than $5,000, accruing up to July, 1889, has been devoted to the further excavation and repair of temples, especially those at Thebes. But the inadequateness of present methods is apparent.

In the Museum, Mariette as Director was succeeded by Prof. Maspero, now of the Collège de France, who, knowing the country, the people, and their language, continued an excellent administration. In the excavations which he completed, and in the works which he published, he was, as he is now, one of the chief contributors to Egyptological knowledge. He permitted excavations to be conducted by outsiders under such conditions as best to serve the interests of the Museum. The Egypt Exploration Fund and Mr. W. M. F. Petrie have been granted this privilege, but the enjoyment of it is attended with great difficulties, which do not arise merely from the limitations and restrictions at present imposed. The native officials are extremely reluctant to allow such work to go on, or to see any "antikas" taken publicly out of the country. It matters not how many duplicates may remain, for even the Prime Minister asserts that all antiquities are unique. The officials are thus led into an elaborate system of intriguing—creating obstacles at every point. Prof. Maspero also greatly increased the usefulness of the Museum collection to visitors and others by publishing a descriptive guide.

The present Director, M. Grébaut, has expressed himself as personally opposed to admitting foreigners to make excavations, although he has granted the permission to certain resident dealers; and he has made no extensive excavations himself, nor even reported upon what little has been done. But important excavations have been carried on for many months under his authority without his having knowledge of them by a moment's personal inspection. One is reminded of the idea urged in ministerial quarters that the work should be kept in native hands, following the example of Italy and Greece. In fact, a school of Egyptology for native students was kept alive for a few years while Henri Brugsch was in Egypt, being generously supported by Ismail Pasha; and when it expired there was left, it is said—a pupil. Few objects in the Museum are labelled in any way, and no progress has been made in

this respect, nor in the making of a catalogue, since Maspero's day. Even the visitor's 'Guide' cannot be used in the new quarters, and one who seeks for information gets therefore little help.

The authority of the Director was supplemented two years ago by the appointment of an advisory commission for antiquities; and it has lately been in the air that there is to be appointed from England an Assistant Director, with administrative power.

FARLEY B. GODDARD.

THE LOWER AND MIDDLE AMAZON.

TABATINGA, BRAZIL, January 10, 1890.

IT is usual to think of the Amazon as a single splendid river wending its way through a level, half-marshy plain reaching from the Andes to the sea. Instead of this it drains a basin possessing features which vary so conspicuously in different parts that it was regarded by the Indian, and is likewise considered by the white, as consisting of three separate rivers. The Indian names for these have been retained, so that to-day the ancient designations of Amazonas, Solimões, and Marañon, are applied as they have been for ages past. The title of Marañon is restricted to the river from its source in Lake Lauricocha, sixty miles from the Pacific Ocean, on the western or Pacific slope of the main cordillera of the Andes, to its junction with the Rio Napo, three hundred miles from the Brazilian frontier. Within this distance it is augmented by the waters of twenty-two tributaries, the chief of which are the Rios Huallaga and Ucayali. From the Napo to the Rio Negro, a distance of a thousand miles, the river is known only as the Solimões, and receives contributions in this portion of its course from fourteen tributaries, several of which themselves exceed a thousand miles in length. From the Rio Negro it becomes in very truth the mighty Amazon, expanding now with the floods of twenty affluent streams, until at last, instead of a river, it resembles more a great brackish sea, studded with innumerable islands. This is often called the Amazon delta, an appellation given in ignorance of the rock-ribbed foundations of many of these islands. Hills fringe, or lie close to, the northern shore for several hundred miles from the sea, and it is useless to seek an analogy between the mouth of the Amazon and the Missi sippi. There is much land on the lower reaches of the river subject to annual overflow, but it is not marsh, for gigantic forests hold possession here instead of grass and rushes.

It is not until you have passed Gurupá and the Island of Tucuyús that the archipelago is fairly left behind. Here are high banks. Gurupá itself is high and dry on a hill of sandstone; has a crumbling old fort built of this brown-stone; has also a church, and pretty houses, and a dock. Beyond Gurupá for sixty miles the country is flat, resembling traditionary pictures of the Amazon. The trees are lofty and weighted down with vines and orchids. Strange trunks have many of these trees; indeed, because of some tropical danger, perhaps that of hurricanes, it is quite universal for them to throw out buttresses on three sides —mere flat projections of the wood of the tree, and of so firm a texture that they are utilized for making table-tops, a single round slab being often seven feet in diameter.

Suddenly now the country becomes hilly. The land to the northward is traversed by a succession of low-lying ridges, level on top and dropping down at singularly regular angles into the surrounding plain. For a hundred miles there is little change. Settlements are few, and the *fazendas*, or plantations, are inferior. The little huts contain amazing populations of children; seldom are there less than six or seven naked babies to be seen in one of them, and often more. The absence of larger children and the enormous protruding stomachs of the infants cannot but excite surprise. This leads to an explanation of the fact that the population of the Valley of the Amazon does not increase. It is only the strongest, the *very strong*, who can reach maturity through the evils of hunger and hardship, exposure and recklessness, which compose existence here. Out of a family of ten children the Cabucla, or half-breed Indian, does well to raise one. It is phenomenal for him to raise two. There is nothing to eat but bananas and fish and a bit of farina. There are no clothes to protect against chilly winds, which do actually blow in the tropics as well as in more rigorous climes. The roof of the hut is leaky. Often there is no hammock for the unclad little creature—nothing but a cold clay floor to lie on, with no covering at night. The whole refuse of the household, the dirt and filth, which in other lands is hurried out of sight and smelling distance, is allowed to accumulate outside the door. The damp forests hug close and even overhang the huts, breeding other germs of disease. Who dares wonder that the most common words on the tongues of Amazonians are *febre, sezões; sezões*, dread fever and ague, repeating its attacks at regular intervals for a month or two, until the patient grows bloated, and bluish-white, and dies? The starved child, to satisfy its hunger, eats the clay on the banks of its river home, grows large-paunched, wastes away from poverty of blood, and dies. Even the adult at last, enemic from want of food, takes to earth-eating, and meets a like end. It is pitiful, and yet the native will loaf in his canoe day after day, too lazy to catch sufficient fish for himself and his family from a river teeming with them; too lazy to plant bananas and mandioca, or to cut down a few trees and let in sunshine upon his hut. Instead of this he will work in an indolent sort of way for a few months gathering rubber with which to buy the farina he should raise himself, and the cachaça, or native rum of sugar cane, which he should do without.

At a distance of somewhat less than two hundred miles above Gurupá begins one of the pleasantest portions of the Valley of the Amazon. Mountains rise high above the plain, and curve away to the northward until lost in the distant blue. A grassy plateau bounds their bases, offering wonderful pastures and splendid sites for towns. The peaks of Paytuna, Errere, and Jaury stand abruptly out of this plateau, their mammoth heads upheld, like the roof of an Egyptian temple, on clustered basaltic columns. These columns are so large as to be clearly distinguishable with the aid of a glass at a distance of twenty miles. Conspicuous and remarkable as these mountains are, it is said that no one has ever been known to ascend them, or even to approach so near as the open plateau at their bases. From this point the country immediately improves. Fields with cattle and horses grazing become frequent. Thrift is apparent in the fazendas, in the people themselves, in the use of whitewash on the houses, and in the cultivation of pretty gardens. This is in the vicinity of Montalegre. The efforts at husbandry, which had confined themselves to the north shore, soon become transferred to the south side, following the hills, which there form a series of ridges and valleys reaching to the Rio Tapajóz. It is worthy of remark that throughout the Valley of the Amazon it is precisely where Nature is least prodigal of her bounty, where hills, and clay, and rock raise obstacles in the way of man, that he exerts himself and prospers most.

The country drained by the Tapajóz is a favored region. It has a foundation of solid rock. It has fertile valleys and rich uplands. Rice, sugar-cane, cotton, corn, the best of the Northern vegetables, and all the tropical fruits constitute a portion of its productions. When certain disaffected Southerners fled to this spot after the fall of Richmond, rather than struggle with poverty in their devastated Northern homes, they evinced good judgment in their choice of land. They chose one of the garden spots of South America, but they reckoned with undue haste upon the possibility of enjoying it. Man is ever too prone to believe that the stubbornness of his fellows will yield to persuasion, and that to facilitate the development of a region he has but to call a mass-meeting and arouse enthusiasm with some stirring oratory, after which the matter will quickly get itself adjusted through the proper official channels. This is well enough in the United States, but it fails with a completeness, and man remains stubbornly opposed to progress with a persistency, in Brazil, which utterly confounds an American. It not only confounded, but handicapped and ruined, the unlucky emigrants to the Tapajóz. The city of Santarém, standing at the junction of this river and the Amazon, bears evidence of their presence in such things as the construction of a house heterodox in plan according to Brazilian standards; in a cart of improved design; in a Yankee windmill; in a man *on horseback;* and in certain other hints of a remembrance of whilom comforts in imitations and excuses for the originals exposed in the stores for sale. The new-comers tried to ship produce, but the export duties proved prohibitive; they tried to procure machinery for their own use, and the import taxes broke their purses. Goods were not allowed to go to Santarém in bond, and were pillaged by unscrupulous authorities of the Imperial Custom-house in Pará. Those who could, fled back again, preferring Northern poverty with the blessing of deliverance from such a Government. Those who could not flee have struggled on, seeking, if not to increase in riches, at least to build up homes where nature should yield plentifully, and distinguish them by their abundance from the shiftless race around them. There are said to be about sixty families of these Southerners and their descendants still living in the neighborhood of Santarém.

The country continues high on the northern shore, with an occasional broad, treeless savanna, all the way from here to the Rio Negro. The southern shore varies, now being hilly and having fine plantations, and again low and densely wooded. The whole region is underlaid by a brown vesicular sandstone, which strongly resembles lava on a first glance. It is so very rich in iron as to lead, together with other indications, to a suspicion that iron ore might be found if looked for, and if so it might be smelted by the coal said to exist along the Rio Tapajóz.

At present the towns of Obidos and Serpa, the chief settlements between Santarém and Manáos, depend upon cattle which are raised for the Pará market. The beeves are small, but very fat, and the meat is tender and good. Midway between Serpa and the Rio Negro the Rio Madeira enters the Amazon, a broad stream, flowing down between low, marshy islands. This is one of the most im-

portant rivers in South America, already famous for its rubber and tobacco, and destined to be the avenue to the fertile plateau of Bolivia, when a railroad or a canal shall have been constructed around the rapids which now interrupt its channel. Thus will communication be established with the Rio Beni, a tributary of the Madeira, navigable for steamers far into that land-locked republic. The Rio Negro, about sixty-five miles west of the Madeira, comes down from the north, between hills of no mean height. Its waters, the color of strong Oolong tea, refuse at first to mingle with the yellow Amazon, and the two tides roll for some distance in alternate patches. This river also offers possibilities for future development. Its bounding forests produce the sweet, refreshing guaraná, so highly prized in Matto Grosso, the sarsaparilla, the native nutmeg, vanilla and tonka beans, piassaba, a strong elastic brown fibre from the palm Piassabeira, rubber, and infinite fruits, together with the Marapinima, or snake wood, and many of the finest timbers for nautical and cabinet purposes in the southern continent. The Rio Branco, descending to the Negro from the northeast, opens up a means of navigation almost to the Rio Essequibo in British Guiana. It has been suggested that, by means of a canal for barges of eight feet draught, goods could be sent from Georgetown via the Essiquibo and Branco into the Negro to Manáos, and thence up the Madeira into Bolivia, and also up the Amazon, or Solimões, into Peru. Along the Branco are extensive grassy plains where cattle are already raised, and these plains also strike southward in a broad belt through the interior, to within so short a distance of Manáos that there would be no great difficulty in constructing a railroad from ports in the Guianas to that city. The distance would be probably eight hundred miles, and the road would open up a region which might vie with the Argentine pampas for cattle, as well as affording access to the Mond and Tumac-Humac Mountains, whence much of the gold found in the sands of the rivers of Guiana is supposed to come. An English company had at one time subscribed capital for the initiation of this enterprise, but, failing to secure a favorable concession from the Imperial Government, the project was abandoned.

As previously stated, the Amazon above the entrance of the Rio Negro is called the Solimões. This part is properly the "basin" of the Valley of the Amazon. The land is submerged during several months of each year, causing a stunted growth of timber, and a considerable change in the aspect of vegetation in general, the prevailing tint of the forests here being a pale grayish green. The tributaries, however, descend from higher ground where conditions are more propitious. On the north side the Solimões receives the Japurá, a river fifteen hundred miles in length, and the Içá, or Putumayo, of eight hundred miles. From the south enter the Purús, fifteen hundred miles long, the Juruá and the Jutahy, each between five hundred and eight hundred miles, and the Javary, which for more than five hundred miles forms the boundary line between Brazil and Peru. All are great rubber-producers, and the output from the Purús is uniformly the best of all the rivers of Brazil. Formerly large quantities of sarsaparilla and salt fish were exported also from this region, but these industries have ceased. The bulk of all the rubber of Brazil comes from the Madeira and from these tributaries of the Solimões, and large quantities of it pass through the hands of Manaenses before reaching Pará. It will be perceived that Manáos is situated so as to command the choicest trade of the Valley of the Amazon, and according to that law of the growth of cities which affirms that it is the port admitting ocean-going vessels—and vesels of twenty-four feet draught can ascend to Manáos at all seasons of the year—which is at the same time nearest to the objects of trade, rather than the one nearest the foreign market, which naturally takes the lead, it was to be expected that Manáos would wrest the supremacy away from Pará. The only obstacle to the actual accomplishment of this is the lack of telegraphic connection with the outer world, and Pará, foreseeing the danger to her own interests, has determinedly refused to permit the laying of a cable The Amazon, however, is open to the flags of all nations. Pará may prohibit a cable, but she cannot hinder a ship from the free use of the river. The chance Manáos has, then, is for some enterprising company to run a line up the Rios Negro and Branco, or across the plains into Guiana, and perhaps construct a railway for the sake of protecting the telegraph as much as for the trade the road would obtain. A cable, however, following the rivers Essequibo, Branco, and Negro, would require guarding for only a few miles across the mountains, where there are already many settlements. It would require less courage to carry this into execution than capitalists are now displaying in Peru, and the prospects of profit are almost, if not quite, equally tempting With daily market reports from the great commercial centres of the world, Manáos would become one of the most important of the great cities that are certain to arise in the new era which is dawning upon South America.

Correspondence.

TO THE VOTERS BELONG THE SPOILS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Christopher Mamer, President Harrison's Collector of Internal Revenue for Chicago, recently discharged three women clerks from his office. Several friends of these women, knowing them to be competent and efficient clerks, went to Mr. Mamer to inquire the cause of the dismissal. The reply was that the women must all go; that the places were wanted for voters who could help the party. President Arthur's Collector left three women in the office; President Cleveland's Collector left eight; President Harrison's Collector has already discharged three of these, all of whom are Republicans in sympathy, and has declared to several well-known citizens his determination to send them all away, as he wanted the places for voters.

These facts coming to the knowledge of the Chicago Women's Club, a society of more than four hundred women, a delegation was sent to President Harrison with a remonstrance against Mr. Mamer's policy of excluding women from Government offices because they could not assist their superior officers with votes. The delegation was introduced by Congressman George Adams. President Harrison promised to give the subject careful consideration, but declined to state his own principles in regard to the matter. X.

Chicago, April 14, 1890.

THE DIME NOVEL AND THE POST-OFFICE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to say that all fair-minded men rejoice with you to see the alarm expressed by the manufacturers of so-called yellow-backed literature on account of the House Bill No. 7558, and Senate Bill No. 2747, mentioned in your issue of April 17, "taking away the postal premium on the manufacture of dime-novel literature."

It is a well-known fact that the publication and distribution of this kind of cheap trash literature is the worst temptation and curse to which the youth of America are at the present time exposed. Nearly all their crimes may be directly or indirectly traced to its subtile and corrupting influences. I have before me an article clipped from Wednesday's issue of a Chicago daily, that bears the heading, "In Search of Adventure." It is the case of a bright, energetic youth of twelve leaving his home in Rochester, N. Y., and starting for Montana to kill Indians, rescue fair maidens, and to find gold nuggets. When intercepted by an officer at Chicago, and searched, there were found the usual equipments for such an enterprise: a 38-calibre revolver, a box of cartridges, and *four yellow-backed novels* with thrilling titles, only one of which I will give here: "Old Kit Brandy's Deliverance; or, Banner Ben, the Wildfire of the Prairie." It is needless to add, the boy was speedily returned to his parents.

This is but a mild case among the hundreds that occur constantly. It is to be regretted that your notice of the action of Congress on the matter of dime-novel literature is so brief. It certainly deserves a larger share of your attention than you have given it thus far. May we hope to hear more from you through your columns on this matter soon?

Yours very truly, Fred C. Clark.

Ann Arbor, Mich., April 18, 1890.

"A LESSON IN PHILOLOGY."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Dr. Klemm's 'European Schools,' already reviewed, I think, in the *Nation*, is a very stimulating and suggestive book. There are American teachers who, in comparing methods and results set forth in the book with our own—at least in less favored parts of our country—will doubtless feel the chill of discouragement. To any such readers there is a crumb of comfort to be got out of "A Lesson in Philology" (p. 416), in a school of Alsace. More lessons than one might be gathered from this chapter.

The word in the sentence that called out the German teacher's display of philological learning was *Kleinod* (jewel). With the first part, *klein* (little), there was no difficulty. To explain the last part, the pupils were led, by a skilful use of the Socratic method, to *Odin*, the greatest god in German mythology, from whose name *od* was derived. To make plausible the connection of ideas, they were next made to see that *God* (*Gott*) and *good* (*gut*) were originally the same word; that *good* meant also a possession, as *Landgut*—from all which it was easy to see how *Kleinod* came to mean "a little possession."

Such guessing as this calls to mind Carlyle's derivation of *king* from "*kŏnning*, which means canning, able-man"; or his half-hour discourse, as related by Mr. Conway, on "*fee* as derived from Latin *fides*."

The last syllable of *Kleinod* is, in fact, the old Saxon or Low German *ôd*, meaning, 'property, wealth.' In Anglo-Saxon it appears in the form *ead*, as in *Eadweard* (Edward), the guardian of property. *Eadig* means wealthy, as in 'Beowulf,' line 2472, where it is said that Hrethel to his sons "laefde, swa deth eadig man, lond," etc. (left, as doth a wealthy man

land, etc.). Another Low-German word in which this form appears is *allod* (all+od), in Med. Latin *allodium*, whence the adjective *allodial*, "held in absolute possession." The etymology of both these words is disputed, I know; but the derivation here given has the support of such high authority as Dr. Murray's New English Dictionary.

Of course, an inspiring teacher can make anything interesting, but the surprise is in this case that, almost in the very home of modern philology, popular etymology should have lingered so long in class-room instruction. A comparison of the forms in the various Teutonic tongues will show that *god* and *good* are quite different words. The word *god* was in use long before the conversion of our forefathers to Christianity, and in their primitive conception of a god or gods the quality of goodness was not conspicuous; in fact, the adjective *good* had not, at that early time, its present ethical sense.

If this friendly criticism, by calling attention to the book once more, will induce teachers to get it and read it, the lesson in philology will not be altogether without value.

Edward A. Allen.

University of Missouri.

THE ACADEMIC SURPLUS OF GERMANY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It has for years been universally known that Germany is encumbered with an academic surplus from which she apprehends serious danger. The question has been before the eyes of the public for the last fifteen years, but not until recently has it been subjected to a thorough examination by competent authorities. The Allgemeine Deutsche Realschulmännerverein, after having offered, a few years ago, a prize for the best essay on "The Afflux to the Learned Professions, its Causes and Possible Remedies," divided the prize between two papers, one by Fr. Pietzker and the other by P. Treutlein, both of which have now appeared in print (Brunswick: Otto Selle).

We learn from them that the number of students in the German universities was, in 1870, about 14,000, a number which had, in 1888, risen to 29,267. Considering that the population had, in the interval named, grown from 100 to 115 per cent., the number of students rose from 100 to 212 per cent. The number of available positions having practically remained the same, this caused a great excess of the supply over the demand in all the learned professions except the clerical. There are now barely enough Protestant clergymen, whereas it has been, down to the present day, impossible to supply the demand for Catholic priests. Most overcrowded are the *juristische* and the *philosophische Fakultäten*. The number of *Referendare* was 3,937 in 1883, and fell to 3,554 in 1887. Nevertheless, the number of *Assessoren* has been steadily growing. The Kultusminister von Gossler said, two years ago, in a session of the Prussian Chamber, that the Prussian State had at its command the "stately army" of 3,985 *Referendare* and 2,185 *Assessoren*. Treutlein calculates, with the aid of these figures, that every assessor has to wait at least six years for an appointment as judge, which makes a total of fifteen years from the day on which he graduates from the university!

Still worse off are, however, the candidates for positions in the higher schools. There were examined in 1879 384 candidates *pro facultate docendi*, in 1885 628, and in 1888 469. In 1887 there were, still according to Minister von Gossler, 1,834 candidates available for positions in the higher schools who had been duly on trial for a year, but were not appointed; of whom only 551 were regularly employed as assistants, 517 temporarily, and 769 not at all!

Both authors name as the first reason for the afflux to the learned professions the security of existence guaranteed by them even in cases of illness or disability to serve, and, after death, by virtue of pensions paid over to the families. Besides, the learned professions are, in Germany, a really privileged class, offering ranks and titles, and enjoying such consideration as is never bestowed upon the merchant or the manufacturer. The higher schools, our authors contend, are monopolized by the State. They have practically no other end than supplying the State with its officials. The State refuses to admit others to the universities than the graduates of the *Gymnasien*. Every ambitious youth desirous of acquiring the highest education his country affords is thus systematically driven to the gymnasium. There were in Germany, in 1886, 339 *Gymnasien*, 47 *Progymnasien*, 136 *Realgymnasien*, 107 *Realprogymnasien*, against only 16 *Oberrealschulen*, 67 *Realschulen*, and 87 *höhere Bürgerschulen*. It is only natural that many students enter the gymnasia, not for the love of study, but on account of the social and material advantages offered to the graduate of these institutions. The number of bona-fide students, of young men who bring to the school a disinterested love for study, is, besides, steadily increasing in this age of scientific research. It is, therefore, not astonishing that the higher schools should be overcrowded.

Both Pietzker and Treutlein deem a reorganization of these schools upon a different basis the only effective means for the prevention of a further growth of the "learned proletariat." Although differing as to minor details, they contend in the main for an abolition of the monopoly of the gymnasium, and a coördination of the "realistische" with the "humanistische" education. This, the authors think, would deprive the humanists of their prestige, encourage technical studies, and put an end to the odious classification and gradation of culture into "humanistisch" and "realistisch." It is, however, necessary to note that neither Pietzker nor Treutlein cherishes any hope for a realization of his plan in the near future, the Government standing tenaciously by the "alleinseligmachende" humanities.

T. H. C.

Boston, April 17, 1890.

THREE MODERNISMS.—II.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: *Ever* is a word which would call for a long disquisition, if it were undertaken to treat of all its various uses, and to bring out how, originally importing time only, it got to import ideas having no obvious connexion with time. These matters being here waived, notice may, however, be taken, incidentally, of *ever now and then*, dating at least from the fifteenth century. For, from this, by corruption, came *every now and then;* and, in the wake of *every now and then*, followed *every here and there*, which has no support from *everywhere*, whose etymology, as is well known, is indicated by *ever-ywhere*—that is to say, if we trace its constituents back to Anglo-Saxon, 'continually in every place.' And bare mention may also be made of occasional obsolete substitutes for *whoever* and *whatever*, namely, *who that* and *what that*, the former of which is found as late as 1612.

But my present concern is with *ever* as circumstanced in the sentences subjoined:

"*How ever* should I be able . . . to make room?" Sir G. W. Dasent, *Popular Tales from the Norse* (1859), p. 263.

"The Troll began to wonder . . . *how ever* they could be rid of the lad." *Ibid.*, p. 163.

"*What ever* has become of my eye?" *Ibid.*, p. 129.

"I wonder now *what ever* there can be inside this chest." *Ibid.*, p. 215.

"*Where ever* in the world have you been?" *Ibid.*, p. 12. Also at pp. 134, 269.

"The kitchen-maid clapped her hands in wonder, asking *where ever* he got all that gold and silver from." *Ibid.*, p. 136.

The idiom thus exemplified is a very modern one, and has, as yet, little currency other than conversational. In England it is freely employed, orally, by the educated, especially women, and even more freely by the uneducated, among whom, most likely, it originated. Its differentia consist in attaching to *ever*, after *how*, etc., the force of "indeed," "to be sure," or the like. That, in other contexts, as in the old "*or ever*, or *ere ever*, he came," and in "go as soon as *ever* you can," *ever* has this equivalence, is a point which it is needless to dwell on.

How ever, etc., and also *when ever*, *which ever*, and *who ever* (where *ever*, implying enforcement, is adjoined to principal or subordinate interrogatives), evidently are not compounds. Consequently, for distinction, it is advisable not to write them as if they were of that character. In putting *how ever*, I have followed Sir G. W. Dasent; and elsewhere, though deviating from him, I may appeal to his *what ever*, in *Gisli the Outlaw*, p. 95, and in *Tales from the Fjeld*, p. 305. We do not write *into*, where *in to* is meant, or *upon* for *up on*. On the other hand, the new preposition should be *onto*, not *on to*. In passing, *forever*, instead of *for ever*, is now peculiar to Americans; the old *can not* would well be reestablished; and the Scotch *daresay*, a reminder of the *shalbe* of former days, deserves no favour.

To, as in "I have not spoken to him, but I mean *to*," admits of being despatched at the expense of a very few lines.

The elliptical style of expression thus instanced, which does not seem to have been at all common until within the last generation or two, is perhaps traceable to a misunderstanding of constructions like those in the passages following:

"I intreated Aristides and Ariana to give leave that I might returne to succour you, *which they were very willing to*." Anon., *Ariana* (1636), p. 122.

"Having enquir'd of me *all he had a minde to*, I satisfied him with the most respect I could." *Ibid.*, p. 218.

"There are a thousand artful ways by which subtle orators may prepossess men, raise their pity, anger, jealousy, or *any passion they have a mind to*," etc. Bernard Mandeville, *Free Thoughts on Religion*, etc. (1720), p. 322 (ed. 1729).

In these quotations we have obsoletisms, but, in those now to be given, mere slovenliness:

"And look you, continues he, how those Gypsies manage the People that came in first, and lead them whither they have a mind *to*." Rev. Jeremy Collier, *Marcus Antoninus*, etc. (1701), p. 246.

"Going no oftener in to the shore than we were obliged *to*, for fresh water," etc. Daniel De Foe, *Robinson Crusoe* (1719), vol i., p. 33 (ed. 1840).

"Certain it is that I compose much more slowly than I was wont *to*, when younger." Southey (1823), *Letters* (1856), vol. iii., p. 385.

"You may laugh, if you want *to*, very much, John." Charles Dickens (1836), *Plays and Poems* (1882), vol. i., p. 187.

"You may keep it; I don't expect *to*."

Anon. (1839), in Miss Caroline Fox's *Memories of Old Friends* (1882), p. 38.

"It is my firm belief she cried nearly twice as much as she really wanted *to*." Charles Reade, *Christie Johnstone* (1853), p. 97.

"As for human beings outside of them, I never see any, and don't want *to*." Lord Strangford (1866), *Selection*, etc. (1869), vol. ii., p. 319.

"The only satisfaction I have for my wrong is knowing that nobody else can look at it; and, if nobody else wanted *to*, I shouldn't even have that." Mr. John Ruskin, *Fors Clavigera*, i., p. 10 (1871).

"I know nothing which members of Parliament kill, except time, which other people would not kill, if they were allowed *to*." *Id.*, *ibid.*, xxv., p. 31 (1873).

"My correspondent will perhaps be surprised to hear that I have never in my life voted for any candidate for Parliament, and that I never mean *to*." *Id.*, *ibid.*, xxix., p. 27 (1873).

"I was altogether responsible for taking care not *to*." *Id.*, *ibid.*, xxxvii., p. 3 (1874).

"Papa and mamma and aunt Davilow all wish her not *to*." "George Eliot," *Daniel Deronda* (1876), vol. i., p. 115.

I have here been dealing with what Prof. Schele de Vere, in his *Americanisms*, calls, every way erroneously, "the American use of *to* as a kind of *expletive*. In England, "I don't wish *to*," or the like, is heard constantly, and from persons of all classes of society.

Your obedient servant, F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, October 30, 1889.

P. S. With Lord Beaconsfield's "I *have* never *been* back *to* the old place," spoken of at the beginning of this letter, consistent headlongness has bracketed, as an object of derision, his: "I would never leave him for a moment, *only* I know he would get wearied of me." *Only*, where, as here, made almost convertible with *but that*, *were it not for the fact that*, is, however, no more a solecism than it is a novelty, as a few quotations, culled from a large number collected, will suffice to make evident:

"It hath not beene knowne that they haue practised any treason against them, *onely* their Histories report that they sought to poison their king called Ticocic." E. G[rimstone ?], *Naturall and Morall Historie*, etc. (1604), p. 484.

"Thus, like the Children of Israel, we are come out of Egypt into the Wildernesse, *onely* we have the flesh-pots still, and, therefore, none of the Manna." Robert Loveday (about 1650), *Letters* (ed. 1663), p. 264.

"It was of a Vermilian colour like blood, *onely* in some places there was a mixture of white streakes like milke." *Comical History of Francion* (1655), I.-III., p. 56.

"But the truth is, these things do not much trouble me, *only* I am offended with the Kenopistians." Nathanael Ingelo, D.D., *Bentivolio and Urania* (1660), vol. i., p. 126 (ed. 1682).

"He much resembled his Father in Manners, as also in his Countenance, *only* he was not so curled, nor so flat nosed." Rev. Obadiah Walker, *Greek and Roman History Illustrated* (1692), p. 291.

"The duke, after some ceremony, entered the castle in complete armour, *only* his head was bare in compliment to the fallen king." Oliver Goldsmith, *History of England, in Letters* (1764), vol. i., p. 154 (ed. 1772).

"She is a sweet lady, *only* she was so glad to see me go, that I have almost a mind to come again, that she may again have the same pleasure." Dr. Johnson, *Letter* (March 5, 1774).

"My fellow-travellers were the same whom you saw at Lichfield, *only* we took Baretti with us." *Id.*, *Letter* (November 16, 1775).

"Every narrative of events digested according to years may admit of this title in the larger sense, *only* it does not follow, from this, that a history like that of Tacitus should not observe the same arrangement," etc. Bp. Connop Thirlwall, in the *Philological Museum*, vol. ii., p. 662 (1833).

Possibly, in some of these passages *only* might rather be replaced, approximately, by *but* simply: I say approximately, because *only* is more distinctly limitative. Passages, dating from 1599 downwards, in which *only* is equipollent to *but* qualified are at hand in abundance; and passages from Southey, Prof. F. W. Newman, and others, are producible in which *only that* signifies nearly the same as *but that*, *if it were not that*.

Only employed conjunctionally will, of course, be recorded by Dr. Murray. As having escaped Dr. Johnson and all his other predecessors, it is no great curiosity.

Among the items of phraseology which the criticaster on whom I have been animadverting impugns, is Miss Yonge's "Theodora *flung* away and was rushing off," written, we are told with an air of surprise, "as long ago as 1854." With this supposed atrocity he also cites Mr. Charles Reade's "Wardlaw *whipped* before him," and "[Little] *flung* out of the room." "These and similarly incomplete sentences," he goes on to comment, "certainly strike the American ear as decided innovations, and constitute a peculiarity of diction very rarely to be observed on this side of the water." Leaving undiscussed what is here assumed as a grammatical fact, and what is stated as a historical, I would merely ask whether, in reason, an English expression which has not been countersigned by Americans is, on that account, to be condemned. For the rest, the venerable age of what, at least to one abnormally deaf "American ear," are "decided innovations," on the part of Miss Yonge and Mr. Reade, those whom it may concern shall be put in the way of knowing:

"Metellus . . . came *flyngyng* home to Roome again, as wyse as a capon." Rev. Nicholas Udall, *Apophthegmes* (1542) fol. 397*v*.

"Cecropia grew so angry, . . . and so *flang* away from her." Sir Philip Sidney, *Arcadia* (1580), p. 275 (ed. 1613).

"Unnaturall and rebellious Children, who have *flung* out of the Church." Sir Edwin Sandys, *Europæ Speculum* (1599), p. 218 (ed. 1637).

How often the intransitive *fling away*, *fling out*, etc., must have occurred between 1600 and the beginning of this century, may be inferrible from a few references, here necessarily particularized only in part:

Fling, without adjunct. Rev. Thomas Vaughan (1650).

Fling away. Lady Mary Wroth (1621), Rev. J. Carter (1627), William Browne (1647), Samuel Holland (1656), Dr. Henry More (1672), Oliver Goldsmith (1760). "The Chancellor . . . *flung away* in a rage, and was followed by some of the minority." Lord Macaulay, *History of England*, ch. viii. (1848).

Fling down. Rev. James Beresford (1792).

Fling from. Lady Mary Wroth (1621), W. D. (1627), Dr. Henry More (1672), Mrs. Frances Sheridan (1761), Mrs. A. M. Bennet (1786).

Fling into and *fling on.* William Browne. (1647).

Fling out. Lady Mary Wroth (1621), W. D. (1627), *Francion* (1655), Rev. Nathanael Ingelo (1660). "She *flung out* of the room," etc. Mrs. Eliza Heywood, *The History of Miss Betsy Thoughtless* (1751), vol. i., pp. 34, 192, 269; vol. ii., pp. 61, 153; vol. iv., pp. 156, 224. Mrs. Charlotte Lennox (1758), Mrs. Frances Sheridan (1761), Charles Johnston (1763), Mrs. Eliza Parsons (1793).

Fling round. Charles Cotton (1665).

Fling through and *fling up.* William Browne (1647).

Respecting the intransitive verb *whip*, which can be unfamiliar to scarcely any one, I confine myself to proving that already in the days of Queen Elizabeth it was no upstart:

"Rennyng and *whippyng* about from place to place." Rev. Nicholas Udall, *Apophthegmes* (1542), fol. 69 *v*.

"At the length he *whippeth* out of the coffyn." Rev. Thomas Key (before 1547), *Erasm. Paraphrase* (1548), *Mark*, fol. 41 *r*.

"*Whips* backward." Rev. Richard Stanyhurst, *Aeneis* (1582), p. 45 (ed. 1836).

This verb has, indeed, been in our language ever since the thirteenth century. See Nicolas de Guildford's *Owl and Nightingale* (ed. 1843), v. 1064.

Notes.

LEA BROTHERS & CO., Philadelphia, have in press a volume of essays by Mr. Henry C. Lea, entitled 'Chapters from the Religious History of Spain.' They are upon subjects connected with the Spanish Inquisition, and meriting a more elaborate treatment than could be accorded them in the continuous narrative of the Inquisition which Mr. Lea has in preparation.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. make the welcome announcement of a new and complete edition of the works of James Russell Lowell, which the public, however, must accept in a large-paper edition in ten volumes limited to three hundred copies for America. The prose works fill six of the ten, and are thus distributed: Literary Essays (4), Political Essays (1), Literary and Political Addresses (1). These will contain some matter hitherto uncollected. As for the Poems, they too have been carefully revised, and the Biglow Papers annotated for the benefit of a posterity too remote from their allusiveness. An index to the prose, and a table of first lines to the poetry, complete the scheme of this *monumentum ære perennius*. The issue will be effected during the present year.

Under the advisory editorship of Mr. Hamilton W. Mabie, Messrs. Dodd, Mead & Co. announce a new biographic-historic series on the "Makers of America." The obvious first maker, Columbus, will be portrayed by President Adams of Cornell. The sixteenth century is entirely passed over in the list thus far decided upon, and the Puritan leaders come next in order. The founders of New York, of Maryland, of Georgia, with La Salle and Bienville, mark the extension of civilized government over the continent. The following names speak for themselves: Jefferson (by James Schouler), Hamilton (by Prof. Sumner), Charles Sumner; Bishop White of Pennsylvania, Bishop Hughes of New York, Robert Fulton. It will be seen that the term "makers" has a wide scope; will it perhaps include some "unmakers"?

Fourteen representative public men of the South, most of them members of Congress, and each speaking for the State with whose history he is most familiar and of whose history he is a part, have joined in writing a book, now in press, styled 'Why the Solid South? or, Reconstruction and its Results.' Since the publication of 'The Prostrate State,' no book, we believe, has appeared detailing the *post-bellum* measures and practices adopted in the Southern States. In order to avoid even the appearance of a campaign document, the various writers have, it is said, been urged by Representative Herbert of Alabama, who is the general editor, to take special pains to verify every important piece of testimony, and to bear in mind the power of understatement. Virginia is represented in this book by Mr. Robert Stiles, West Virginia by Mr. O. S. Long and Representative Wilson, North Carolina by Senator Vance, South Carolina by Representative Hemphill, Georgia by Representative Turner, Florida by Senator Pasco, Alabama by Representative Herbert, Mississippi by ex-Representative Barksdale, Louisiana by Mr. B. J. Sage, author of 'The Republic of Republics,' Tennessee by Mr. Ira P. Jones, Arkansas by Mr. W. M. Fishback, Texas by Representative Stewart, Missouri by Senator Vest.

Henry Holt & Co. have undertaken a series of small volumes of representative selections from the leading philosophers, from Descartes down. Each volume will contain a biographical sketch of the author, a statement of the historical place of his system, and a bibliography. Dr. E. N. Sneath of Yale, the projector of the series, will treat of Hume, Prof. Ladd of Descartes, President Porter of Berkeley, Prof. Royce of Hegel, etc.

Ginn & Co. have in press 'Political Science and Comparative Constitutional Law,' by Prof. J. W. Burgess of Columbia College.

A manual on the 'Reproduction of Geographical Forms,' by Jacques W. Redway, is announced by D. C. Heath & Co.

Zola's country house is at Médan, and there his followers gathered about him, and sent forth, nearly ten years ago, 'Les Soirées de Médan,' a volume containing six stories by Zola himself, and by J. K. Huysmans, Henry Céard, Léon Hennique, Paul Alexis, and Guy de Maupassant—whose contribution was the extraordinary tale of 'Boule-de-Suif,' not translated by Mr. Sturges in 'The Odd Number,' for reasons by no means odd. An illustrated edition is now announced, with portraits of the six authors etched by M. Desmoulins, and with an illustration to each story by M. Jeanniot, etched by M. Muller (Paris: Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern).

The first of six volumes illustrating the relief sculpture of ancient sarcophagi, undertaken by the Imperial German Archæological Institute, is about to appear, under the title of 'Die Antiken Sarkophag-Reliefs' (Berlin: G. Grote; New York: Christern). It stands second on the list, which runs as follows: Human life; mythologic cycles; separate myths; Bacchic round; muses, nereids, etc.; decorative motives. It will have sixty-five full-page illustrations on copper and in photogravure, besides many others in the text, and will cost 225 marks.

To cope with all the text-books which are presented to us is out of the question. To enumerate merely is difficult, even if we deal with series. Take French texts, for example. We have from W. R. Jenkins his "Romans Choisis," among which we cite No. 13, Jules Verne's 'Tour du Monde,' and No. 15, Jules Sandeau's 'La Maison de Penarvan'; the same publisher's annotated "Classiques Français," as, Racine's 'Andromaque,' Corneille's 'Horace,' and Molière's 'Bourgeois Gentilhomme'; Carl Schoenhof's monthly "Édition Berlitz" of comedies, novels, monologues etc., as, A. Dreyfus's one-act comedy, "La Gifle," and Delacour and Erny's "Le Retour du Japon"; D. C. Heath & Co.'s issues of Lamartine's 'Jeanne d'Arc,' Piron's "La Métromanie," and 'Sept Grands Auteurs du Dix-Neuvième Siècle,' by Prof. Alcée Fortier (lectures in French, rather expository than critical, on Hugo, Musset, De Vigny, etc.), with a 'Primer of French Literature,' by F. M. Warren (a syllabus of lectures, and frankly criticised by the author himself in his preface). There remain a condensation of Dumas's 'Trois Mousquetaires,' edited with notes by Prof. F. C. Sumichrast (Ginn & Co.); and 'Les Poètes Français du XIXe. Siècle,' by C. Fontaine (W. R. Jenkins), consisting of selections with biographical introductions and explanatory footnotes.

The German list is but a little shorter, beginning with "Heath's Modern Language Series," which embraces Lessing's "Minna von Barnhelm," Goethe's 'Sesenheim' (from 'Dichtung und Wahrheit'), Freytag's 'Aus dem Staat Friedrichs des Grossen,' Hoffmann's 'Historische Erzählungen,' Holberg's 'Niels Klim's Wallfahrt in die Unterwelt,' etc.—all these more or less annotated. Chr. von Schmid's 'Heinrich von Eichenfels' belongs in "Macmillan's Series of Foreign School Classics," Chamisso's 'Peter Schlemihl's Wundersame Geschichte' in the Clarendon Press Series (Macmillan), as does also, under the editorship of Emma S. Buchheim, a graduated collection of 'German Poetry for Beginners.'

By chance "Macmillan's Classical Series" brings together on our table three of the most companionable of Latin authors — Plautus, "Amphitruo," Pliny, Books i. and ii. of the Letters, and Tacitus, Books iii., iv., v. of the Histories—in handy form. From the same publishers come 'Legends of Ancient Rome, from Livy,' by Herbert Wilkinson, with notes, a vocabulary, and exercises upon the text; 'A First Latin Verse Book,' by W. E. P. Pantin, which must be lonesome on this side of the Atlantic; the second part of a 'Latin Course,' by A. M. Cook, of which the plan of prose composition is worth examining; and 'Roman Literature,' by Prof. A. S. Wilkins, one of a line of Literature Primers, and to be commended for its readableness and skilful presentation of biographic data. Another play of Plautus's, the "Menæchmi," has been edited with very copious notes by Harold N. Fowler for the "Student's Series of Latin Classics," published by Leach, Shewell & Sanborn, who place in the same series Part ii. of Daniell's 'Exercises in Latin Prose Composition,' in connection with the authors read—a sound principle. Finally, we must mention 'Gradatim,' an easy Latin translation book for beginners, by English masters, edited for American use (Boston: Allyn & Bacon).

The 'Birds' of Aristophanes, edited for the Clarendon Press Series by W. W. Merry, and the oration of Æschines against Ctesiphon, edited by Prof. R. B. Richardson of Dartmouth, for the "College Series of Greek Authors" (Ginn & Co.), form part of our Greek contingent. In the American series the notes are on the same page with the text, both in very clear print; but the text by itself is furnished with the annotated volume. The title of Mr. J. Y. Sargent's 'Models and Materials for Greek Iambic Verse' (Macmillan) conceals, first, an anthology from the Greek, classified alphabetically, without indication of the source; second, an equally unindicated English anthology, with references to corresponding passages in the Greek poets; and finally a general index of reference to the several themes, Absence, Age, Anger, Dreams, Love, Native Land, etc. The collection is more likely in this country to find favor intrinsically, among those who have mastered Greek, than as an instrument of instructing schoolboys. For prose composition, the method of the same author's 'Exemplaria Græcia' (Macmillan) is to be commended; and much may be learned from Mr. F. G. Allinson's 'Greek Prose Composition' (connected and not fragmentary), published by Allyn & Bacon. The same house have issued a revised edition, entirely rewritten, of Robert F. Pennell's 'Ancient Greece,' with maps, a chronology, and lists of examination papers in Greek history.

We have already noticed the first part of Mr. Donald G. Mitchell's 'English Lands, Letters and Kings' (Scribners), of which a second volume is now received. The period covered is from Elizabeth to Anne, including both reigns, and it is treated with competent knowledge and discriminating taste; but the text is most attractive from its agreeable and cultivated tone. Mr. Mitchell is less a critic than a lover of literature and of England, and he succeeds, therefore, in avoiding the severer matter which makes hard reading, and in narrating pleasantly the main story of the men and their days. It is preëminently a volume for the general and unlearned reader to use in making acquaintance with English literature, though it needs to be supplemented continually by some reading in the original authors mentioned.

A notable example of careful bookmaking may be found in Bulletins 48 and 50 of the United States Geological Survey. All these bulletins are carefully edited, but the above are particularly successful in saving trouble to the reader. No. 50, on 'Formulas and Tables to Facilitate the Construction and Use of Maps,' by R. S. Woodward, is a model which many authors of tabular publications may pattern after. Every table is headed by reference to the section in which its derivation is stated, and to the page on which its use is explained. No. 48, on 'The Form and Position of the Sea Level,' by the same author, actually opens with a key to the mathematical symbols used in it; these symbols being arranged alphabetically, with brief definition and reference to the page where each one is first introduced. This is an evidence of regard for the user of the book that we have never seen equalled. The difficulty of making reference to mathematical essays is greatly increased by the general absence of such a key. Contents and index are, of course, included also. The essay itself is of particular value in regard to the discussions of recent years concerning the possible deflection of sea level by the lateral attraction of continental masses or of glacial sheets.

The 'Geology of the Island of Mt. Desert, Maine,' by Prof. N. S. Shaler, is a paper of some sixty pages, reprinted from the eighth annual report of the Director of the United States Geological Survey. It is furnished with two maps and thirty-four illustrations, full page and other. Besides its scientific importance, it has an interest for the general reader, and, dealing as it does with a place of popular resort, should be made easy of access as well to the summer visitor as to the student.

Students of morphology will find an excellent piece of work in 'Studies on Lepidosteus,' by Prof. E. L. Mark. It forms No. 1 of Vol. xix of the Bulletin of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, and itself makes a pamphlet of 127 pages with nine plates. The researches on the structure and growth of the egg membranes are especially important. This paper forms a valuable addition to the series on the Gar Pike begun by Prof. Alex. Agassiz, and continued by Balfour, Parker, and others. The most acceptable food for the young gars was young mosquitoes. As is well known, the latter form one of the most valuable food supplies for young fishes generally; the mosquito thus being to the fisherman a best friend and a greatest annoyance.

The late W. J. Thoms, an English writer, sceptical as to cases of extreme longevity, published a book designed to prove a negative, namely, that there was no authentic case of a century of human life, at least within modern times. Now comes another Englishman, Dr. George M. Humphry, in his book on 'Old Age' (Cambridge: Macmillan & Bowes), with an account of seventy-four recognized centenarians included among nearly nine hundred persons who had attained the age of eighty. The information concerning all these is derived from a collective Investigation Committee of the British Medical Association, and the interesting physiological comments are made by Dr. Humphry as editor. He looks upon those most likely to live long as thus qualified: (1) by inheritance, (2) by being well developed and of good proportion, and hence (3) by degenerative

changes occurring slowly, and (4) by temperance in all things. Dr. Humphry is of opinion that the reparative power of the aged is much greater than is generally supposed, and that old age is usually accompanied by serenity of disposition and happiness. All this points in confirmation of the comfortable theory broached by Mr. Hale some years ago, that the three score and ten of the Psalmist indicated not the extreme limit of years for the individual, but an average of vigor which any generation might reasonably expect to attain.

We record with pleasure the completion of the tenth volume of the *Dial* (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.). Among our literary journals it is unique in being wholly devoted to critical reviews, partly signed, partly unsigned, and in being a monthly. It has been well conducted from the start, with a serious purpose, and with much learned and intelligent collaboration, and we have had frequent occasion to praise it and to wish it a long life. Of generally even quality, in the department of the minor notices there is a falling off in carefulness and weight, as is apt to be the case. The *Dial* is handsomely and correctly printed.

Recent numbers of the *American Meteorological Journal* contain accounts of the meteorological instruments at the Paris Exhibition and of the International Hydrological and Climatological Congress at Paris last year, by A. Lawrence Rotch. Notes are added on the observations of temperature taken on the Eiffel Tower during the summer, which prove to be of much value in meteorological theory.

Part 20 of "Stieler's Hand-Atlas" (Westermann) contains plates of South Africa, Australia, and Mexico; most interesting, all, to compare with the corresponding maps issued in 1880, especially for the development of the railroad systems of the respective countries.

A portion of the field of Gettysburg denominated "The Slaughter Pen" is the most interesting plate in *Sun and Shade* for March (Photo-Gravure Co.), and is quite as picturesque as any. An appropriate companion is the plate of Gatling guns.

The *Southland*, published monthly at Salisbury, N. C., was begun in February, and as an organ of colored Americans should be favorably regarded. The editorial portion is creditable in spirit and in style; the contributed matter is exuberantly rhetorical and imaginative. *Southland* says that a National Colored Chautauqua is under consideration.

The index to volume one of the daintily printed *Lincolnshire Notes and Queries* (Horncastle, England), accompanies the April issue, which is the second part of volume two. Amid much purely local matter one is likely to find something possessing a cis-Atlantic interest, and the April number begins a summary account of Capt. John Smith, a Lincolnshire worthy, whose well-known portrait from 'A Description of New England' serves as a frontispiece.

The University of Toronto certainly merits all the generous aid it is receiving to repair its recent losses by fire, but the Italian *Riforma* goes a step too far in making it the polishing-off institution for North American culture, owing to the defects of the higher education in the United States ("L'Università canadense di Toronto era la più frequentata, corrispondeva a molti bisogni, e colmava una lacuna nell' educazione superiore nord-americana").

— A new work by an author so long dead as De Foe is an unusual occurrence, yet the belated volume has come at last, 'The Compleat English Gentleman' (London: David Nutt), edited by Dr. Karl D. Bülbring from the British Museum MS. It was written in the last years of De Foe's life, and a few pages were printed off in proofs, and, after passing from collector to collector, it is now given to the public. The work was conceived in two parts, one treating of the gentleman by birth, the other the gentleman by breeding; of these only the first and one chapter of the second were completed. The editing has been done with great care, the MS. being followed almost letter for letter, with the few corrections made noted at the foot of the page; an excellent introduction and some notes with an index are also furnished. The work itself is not at all an account of what constitutes a gentleman, but is, in fact, a plea for the education of the eldest sons of the gentry. Its value now is mainly historical, and in this regard it supports powerfully the picture of the illiteracy of the upper class as described by Macaulay. The younger sons were educated because they were to make their way; the heirs were abandoned to the estate, the dogs, and the company of one another, partly because learning was still thought unbefitting a gentleman, and partly for the curious reason that education might pave the way for public employment, tempt the sons into politics, and so ruin the families in the changes of affairs. A better spirit, however, was already beginning to prevail. The charge brought against the English gentry is heavy enough in De Foe's hand, but he also attacks the schools and universities for their pedagogic character and their attachment to mediæval methods and the cult of the ancient languages. The unpractical character of education was one reason why it was thought unnecessary except for a profession. De Foe was also far from admitting that a man could be a gentleman by merit. He required money and freedom from lucrative employment, in case the man had not birth, before he would allow him to be a gentleman, or else the calling of an officer in the army or navy or of a clergyman. Trade must stand at a remove of one or two generations. This comes out more particularly in the one interesting chapter on the new families lately entered among the landed gentry. The style is admirable in diction, of course, and, though often involved and always diffuse, is refreshing. The volume was well worth publication merely for its view of English manners and morals in the upper class of that time.

—The Geological Society of America, organized a year ago, held its first regular meeting at Toronto last summer in connection with the annual gathering of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, from whose geological section the Society is in a sense an outgrowth. A more serious and very successful meeting of the Society was held in New York in Christmas week, well attended and of much value from the high quality of the papers presented and the pleasant association that it afforded. The proceedings of both meetings are now in course of publication and in a form that merits the attention of scientific men in general. Prompt appearance is a prime consideration in such matters, and this is secured by issuing each paper singly as soon as it can be completed. An author whose manuscript and illustrations are in good form when presented to the Council of the Society, does not have to wait for the completion of the unfinished or elaborate work of another. Each part is issued in uniform style, with complete statement as to its place in the volume which the whole will ultimately form. The additional expense of separate covers and postage for the several parts is a small matter compared with the gain ensuing from their speedy appearance. The quality of the essays thus far published is notably good. The orographic movements in the Rocky Mountains are discussed by S. F. Emmons of our Geological Survey, and the vast amount of material gathered in that field during the last thirty years is here presented in compact form, of great value to the student and explorer. Glacial phenomena in Canada are described by Robert Bell, assistant director of the Geological Survey of Canada; this is distinctly the most valuable paper on the subject that has yet been published. Others of similarly high quality might be referred to. The next meeting of the Society will be held with that of the American Association in Indianapolis next August.

—The current number of the *Historische Zeitschrift* contains a long article by Dr. Von Holst upon Bryce's 'American Commonwealth.' With some qualifications, which we summarize, the verdict is warmly favorable. "I do not hesitate to express the conviction," says Von Holst, "that the 'American Commonwealth' is one of the most remarkable and valuable works in the field of political science which the nineteenth century has produced." Mr. Bryce's method is criticised as better adapted for analysis than for conveying a clear, well-defined impression of the whole range of phenomena. The picture would have gained in life, clearness, and plasticity by a freer treatment of the material. To express it with some exaggeration, we have a series of anatomical preparations, rather than a living organism, before our eyes. The effect upon the reader is something like that of a kaleidoscope. If the great ability of the author has failed to produce a good combination of effects, how will the ordinary reader fare in the task of making up his judgment? The difficulty becomes serious in the chapters on "Public Opinion," when, properly to grasp the bearing of the matters discussed, one has to keep in mind a vast mass of facts previously stated. Von Holst thinks Mr. Bryce ought to have gone more thoroughly into the legal aspects of the Constitution, at least in his work of preparation. In that case he would hardly have ventured the conjecture that a European cabinet might have solved the slavery question, whereas, in the American Congress, "it was the function of no one authority in particular to discover a remedy, as it would have been the function of a cabinet in Europe." Under the social, economic, and legal conditions, says Von Holst, no cabinet, though made up of statesmen of genius, could have essentially changed the course of events. This and some other expressions of opinion give Von Holst a haunting feeling that Mr. Bryce has not bestowed adequate study upon the political history of the United States. He is evidently familiar with it to a certain degree, but it has not been so wrought over, meditated upon, and digested that the whole, with its variety of details, has a flesh-and-blood vitality that guides and controls his judgment of American political life. This is asking a good deal, but not too much of one who would perform the task which Mr. Bryce has set himself. Von Holst regrets that Mr. Bryce has avoided a discussion of the negro question, and feels that the real reason is not restriction of space, but because he has not thoroughly studied it.

—The latter portion of the article protests against the rather cavalier treatment of the foreign element in the United States. The causes are, inadequate knowledge and race bias. Mr. Bryce wholly underestimates the influence of the foreign population on the American character. For example, according

to Mr. Bryce, the German influence has done little more than to stimulate brewing, retard prohibition, increase outdoor life, the taste for music, and to relax Sunday observance. Von Holst affirms that the German-Americans are contributing most valuable elements to the national life. In the feverish intensity of American activity, they, with their moderate and sober ideals, quiet and steady energy, and modest self-confidence, act as a wholesome leaven. The American spirit of enterprise is unique, but it easily verges into unrestrained venturesomeness; the elasticity of spirit and temper displayed by the Americans in changes of fortune is impressive, but it runs great risk of degenerating into mere lightheartedness or even frivolity. The attitude of the Germans towards prohibition is based on principle, and is a wholesome stand against the tendencies of majorities to dictate to the minority in matters properly belonging within the field of personal rights. The cause of true temperance has not suffered from German example. The religious influence of the Germans has been marked. It is true they are breaking down the Sabbath; but as they are a people of a morally sound nature, the Americans are brought face to face with the fact that a developed sense of moral responsibility is not exclusively derived from belonging to a church, and that church membership and morality are not identical terms. That expands their outlook. The rigidity of Puritan ecclesiasticism is giving way. A general transformation in popular religious thought and feeling is in progress. Life is becoming fuller and freer. Mr. Bryce also totally fails to appreciate the political influence of the Germans in the years preceding and during the civil war. Mr. Bryce thinks the Germans are Republicans because the Irish are Democrats. He seems never to have heard that the Germans were usually Democrats until about 1850. When the slavery struggle took on its final shape, their love of freedom, not hostility to the Irish, led the Germans, and particularly the "Forty-eighters," to desert the Democratic party. In Missouri their influence was probably decisive against secession. This failure to appreciate the foreign element, to discuss the negro, Mormon, tariff, and civil-service reform questions, the relations of capital and labor, such phenomena as the Pittsburgh and Cincinnati riots, the Chicago Anarchists, the Knights of Labor, and the George movement, deprive Mr. Bryce's picture of American society of completeness. Greatly as his book has enriched the literature on the United States, there still remains to be written a more complete and penetrating presentation of American life, which shall of full right bear the title of 'The American Commonwealth.' The key to the American Commonwealth is not to be found in its political life, but in its social life. With Americans the State is thoroughly subordinated to society. Mr. Bryce has not fully grasped this fact.

— One of the most eminent, as well as one of the last, of the critics of the generation of 1830, disappears in the death of M. Armand de Pontmartin, which took place at Avignon in the last days of March. M. de Pontmartin was born at Avignon in 1811, and came back to live in his province after the Revolution of July. He made his débuts as a writer in the *Gazette du Midi*, in the *Quotidienne*, and in the *Mode*, a queer journal in which fashion-plates, political epigrams, and ardent Catholicism were strangely mingled. From these he proceeded to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, in which for forty years his contributions have been marked by their caustic wit, and elegance and distinction of style. For the last twenty-three years he has written the weekly *feuilletons* in the *Gazette de France*, one of which appeared on the day on which his death was announced. It was his habit, the *Temps* says, to keep well ahead of his work, and the *Gazette* has now in store enough of his articles to furnish the *feuilletons* of the next three months. At the time of his death it had already printed 1,153 of the series. Besides his newspaper work, M. de Pontmartin wrote several stories and novels, none of which were ever famous. Perhaps the best known of these was his 'Jeudis de Mde. Charbonneau,' in which he drew the portraits of several of his brothers in literature, who appeared under transparent pseudonyms. He was by birth and education an intense royalist and aristocrat, and in his personal appearance is said to have presented the singular combination of the almost gigantic stature and harsh face and enormous moustache of a musketeer with a voice of more than feminine delicacy and weakness.

RECENT MATHEMATICAL WORKS.

Treatise on Analytical Mechanics. By Bartholomew Price, Sedleian Professor of Natural Philosophy in the University of Oxford. Vol. II. 2d ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

Graphical Statics. By Luigi Cremona, Foreign Member R. S. London, etc., etc., Professor of Mathematics in the University of Rome, Italy. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

An Elementary Treatise on the Method of Least Squares, with Numerous Examples of its Applications. By George C. Comstock, Professor of Astronomy in the University of Wisconsin, and Director of the Washburn Observatory. Boston: Ginn & Co.

Prof. Price's second volume of his 'Analytical Mechanics' is also the fourth volume of his 'Treatise on Infinitesimal Calculus.' The four volumes together constitute the most extensive and profound treatise on the Calculus existing in the English language. The only work to be compared with it is that of De Morgan; but the spirit, the methods, and the construction of the two works are so entirely dissimilar that they can never be regarded as rivals. For those students who wish to sound the profoundest depths of the Calculus, the desirability of each work is enhanced by the existence of the other.

There are certain characteristics of Prof. Price's treatise which it possesses in a higher degree than any mathematical work of equal extent with which we are acquainted, in any language. A more uniform, self-consistent work was never written. Its sub-title is "Dynamics of a Material System"; and whether he is treating of the "precession and nutation of the earth" (p. 407), or of the "initial motion of a billiard ball when struck by a cue" (p. 470), the method and the form of the investigation are always, so far as it is possible, the same. He starts out in his first chapter with a certain form of the equations of motion according to D'Alembert's principle, and all subsequent processes are but examples of their application, and all subsequent purposes are accomplished by their application. Short methods for abridging work, special artifices, however ingenious, unusual demonstrations, however "elegant," are all thrown aside, and with the measured tread of a giant along one straight road he strides through his six hundred pages of dynamical science. As in the substance, so in the form, there is the same uniformity and consistency. So far as it is possible, the same symbols are invariably used to express the same ideas. If we open the book in its last quarter and see a formula expressed in certain letters of the Greek alphabet, we may be pretty sure that those letters mean the same thing that they did the first time they were used in the first quarter of the book. We have no room to point out the immense advantages of such a system. After reading several extended portions of the work, we have been at each step more and more astonished—we can find no other fitting word to express our meaning—at the success of Prof. Price in realizing his ideal, which, in his own words, was "the construction of a uniform scientific treatise, pervaded by one idea, and applying one principle."

A word as to this second edition. The principle and arrangement are the same as in the first edition, but it has been thoroughly revised and corrected, and considerably enlarged. This revision was aided by a somewhat remarkable circumstance. Prof. Price says: "The late Mr. Isaac Todhunter, M.A., F.R.S., Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge, most carefully commented on the former edition from beginning to end." That a mathematician of such vast attainments as Mr. Todhunter, and so constantly engaged in the production of his own works, should have thought it worth while to bestow so much time and labor upon the work of a contemporary mathematician, is the strongest guarantee of its excellence and importance. On the other hand, the cases are very rare where so able an author has had the opportunity of availing himself of the criticisms of so able a commentator.

There is at present a large and constantly increasing class of young men who are pursuing post-graduate courses in mathematics, mostly with the intention of becoming professors of that science, or of using it in astronomy and the highest departments of engineering. We believe they would find it to their account to go through the four volumes of Prof. Price's great work, and then to take up and go through the work of De Morgan. Prof. Price will give them the 'Infinitesimal Calculus' in its purest, most uncompromising form, and De Morgan will make them acquainted with its metaphysical and philosophical difficulties, and with much of its history. At any rate there is a very large gap in any mathematical library which does not possess both these great works.

Prof. Cremona is one of the most learned mathematicians, perhaps we should not go wrong in saying the most learned mathematician, in Europe. He is also the author of several mathematical works the excellence of which is attested by the fact of their having been translated into German, French, and English. In his prefaces Prof. Cremona is careful, sometimes it seems to us over careful, to disclaim all pretence to originality. In his foot-notes he is very scrupulous in pointing out the sources of what is contained in his text. He seems to take a special pleasure in pointing out the origin of a proposition by tracing it to Apollonius or Pappus, and then giving references to some modern mathematician who revived or, perhaps, rediscovered it. Often, in regard to some new discovery by a modern mathematician, he not only gives a reference to the book, paper read before some learned society, article in some mathematical journal, or other medium through which it was first announced to the world, but also the volume and page of the discoverer's collected works where it will be found in the form which he finally gave it. His books thus become a pretty full bibliography of the subject which he treats.

Prof. Cremona is, however, no mere compiler. An accomplished linguist, he gathers his materials from the whole field of mathematical literature, ancient and modern, and then presents them in a form which is all his own, a simple, symmetrical, and artistic whole which appears to the reader as the product of a single brain. Had he devoted himself to original investigation in some special department, he would undoubtedly have enlarged the domain of mathematics by the discovery of new and original theorems. The two small works which lie before us in an English translation deal with "Graphical Statics," a subject which has awakened so much enthusiasm among engineers during the last decade. The first treatise is an introduction to the graphical calculus, the second treats of reciprocal figures. They had already been translated into French and German. The English translation is by T. H. Beare, Professor of Engineering and Applied Mechanics, Heriot-Watt College, Edinburgh. He has been aided throughout by Prof. Cremona himself, who has taken the opportunity not only to revise the work, but also to add considerable new matter not found in the Italian original, so that the English translation may be regarded as its most finished form. To those who wish to begin the study of "modern geometry" with a model book, and at the same time to learn where to look for fuller developments, this little work cannot be too highly recommended.

As to Prof. Comstock's thin octavo of sixty-eight pages, it will, perhaps, be not out of place to remind our readers of one or two facts. Those persons who are engaged in the practical operations of astronomy, engineering, chemistry, and many other departments of science, often wish to ascertain with the utmost attainable precision certain facts which depend upon exact measurements. Experience has demonstrated that where the utmost exactness is aimed at, no matter how skilful the expert and how perfect his instruments may be, a single measurement of a quantity is of little value. The expert endeavors to get a large number of measurements of each of the quantities involved and then to "adjust," or, in the language of Prof. Newcomb, to make a "combination of observations so as to obtain the best result." This is a mathematical process often of great labor and complexity. The mathematical rules and formulæ according to which this process is, in practice, usually conducted, form a "body of principles which treats of the combination and discussion of observed data," and is called the "Method of Least Squares." It takes its name from the fact that certain numbers called *residuals*, differing in each particular investigation, are developed, and "the most probable values of the unknown quantities are those which make the sum of the squares of the residuals a minimum."

Prof. Comstock's little book is a wholly practical exposition of the subject. For analytical demonstrations and developments, he refers to more extended treatises. He states the principles with the utmost clearness, and shows by examples taken from actual work how they are to be applied. We have read the book through with great pleasure and admiration. We do not remember ever to have read a mathematical work in which the somewhat antagonistic qualities of condensation and clearness were more completely reconciled. Of course those who wish to go deeply into the theory and philosophy of the whole matter will read such works as Mr. Wright's elaborate 'Treatise on the Adjustment of Observations,' which was somewhat fully reviewed by us soon after its publication, and Prof. Newcomb's profound essay in the *American Journal of Mathematics* (vol. viii., p. 343). But we are quite sure that every one preparing for a profession in which observation and experiment come largely into play, will find it to his advantage to read this little book first. He will then study the larger works with less labor, more pleasure, and greater profit.

The Republic of Costa Rica. By Joaquin Bernardo Calvo. Translated from the Spanish and edited by L. de T. With introduction, additions, and extensions by the editor. Map and illustrations. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 1890.

THE first thing to be said about this translation is that it is carelessly done and full of mistakes. To go no further than the rendering of the author's letter asking the official sanction of the Costa Rican Government for his work, we find three bad blunders in the single page. "Mientras aparecen" is translated "although may soon appear," instead of "while awaiting the appearance"; "si para ello no hubiere inconveniente" is made to read "and hoping that those composing it [a committee to examine the work] may not find their task distasteful," instead of "if there is no obstacle in the way of it [the naming of such a committee]"; and "en espera de una justa resolución del Ministerio de su digno cargo" appears as "with the hope of a just decision of the Ministry upon its merits," instead of "a just decision by the Ministry worthily filled by you."

These samples are of course sufficient to show the utter carelessness or incompetence of the translator—his name, we believe, is L. Tyner—and there is no need of adducing more, though the material is ample. But one blunder is so astounding, and it seems so incredible that even a proof-reader should not have headed it off, that we cannot forbear citing it. This is the translation of "amortización" by "mortmain." It is repeated several times in treating of Costa Rica's foreign and domestic debt—as, for instance, on p. 176, "mortmain at 1 per cent." This is such obvious nonsense that it is at once clear that the translator knows nothing of financial technical terms in Spanish, and still less of the meaning of "mortmain" in English. But of course he thought he was speaking by the book—the book being his rather antiquated Spanish-English dictionary; this gave him "mortmain" as the only meaning of "amortización," and so down it went. If he had taken the trouble to glance along a couple of words further, he would have found a useful hint under the definition of the verb "amortizar," and if he had done such a daring thing as to consult any recent edition of the Academy's dictionary, he would have found that "the most common use of the word now relates to the extinction of a public debt," and so would have freed himself from the weight of the "dead hand."

The editor's "extensions" are mostly to be found in his Part III., a traveller's guide in condensed form, unaccountably mixed up in the printing with some biographical notes left over from the preceding section. This is useful and well done for the most part. We suppose that his conversion of Señor Calvo's 23° to 26° Centigrade into 65° Fahrenheit should be set down under the head of his "additions"; certainly it would require only slightly more complex arithmetical operations to solve the problem correctly. Equally wide of accuracy are his attempts to turn kilometres into miles. He omitted to notice the list of errata appended to Señor Calvo's book in the original, and so does that gentleman a wrong in making him responsible for misstatements which had been duly corrected. In his introduction he calls attention to the fact that he has occasionally abridged the Spanish text. This is, of course, his right, and as the abridgments fall chiefly in the historical portions, they do not seriously impair the value of the work; but in the condensed biography of President or Dictator Guardia, there surely should have been found room for one or two of Calvo's calm but severe sentences in condemnation of that figure in Costa Rican history. In justice to his publishers, finally, the translator ought not to have omitted Calvo's own preface, especially that part in which the intention of bringing out an enlarged and improved edition of the "Notes" is declared. We are informed by Señor Calvo that such an edition is now well under way, and will soon appear.

After all, the shortcomings of the translator upon which we have thus far had to dwell, do not too seriously affect the value of the book. We get the main results of Calvo's labor, and they are of real importance. At the time of its publication the volume was the only thing of its kind; it has since been supplemented and, in some particulars, amended, by Prof. Biolley's book on Costa Rica, now also done into English. The two together give almost all that is needed for a good understanding of Costa Rica. In the line of natural history particularly, full information is yielded, the labors of German scientists and of Prof. Cope having been freely drawn upon. Commercial and financial statistics are full and brought well down to date, while the resources of the country, with its expanding development and equipment with railroads, telegraph systems, and the like, are clearly stated. One feels as if the impartial foreigner were needed to give all sides of some questions, but on the whole the exuberance of Spanish-American patriotism is kept within limits. Even in its faulty English dress, the book is a welcome addition to the conveniently accessible sources of information about Central America. In his new edition Señor Calvo ought not to forget Guatemala by saying that the only Protestant church in Central America is in San José.

The illustrations are about half portraits of Costa Rican notabilities, and half the inevitable process-reproductions of photographs of scenery, buildings, etc. The publishers have added two maps from their collection. One is a fair map of Central America, the other is a large map of North America, showing Costa Rica like a microscopic object. It is a pity they could not have secured Montesdeoca's beautiful map of Costa Rica, on the scale of eighteen miles to the inch, which adorns Prof. Biolley's book. The lack of an index is woful and inexcusable.

Captain Cook. By Walter Besant. [English Men of Action.] Macmillan & Co. 1890. 8vo, vi., 191 pp.; portrait.

IN these days of newspaper "explorations" and multitudinous books of travel, the average reader of current literature is in a fair way to be left without any standards of proportion. If a Stanley towers above the throng, or the successful venture of a Nordenskiöld challenges attention, nevertheless it must be admitted by the student of historical geography that the present is the day of small things. There was and is but one Capt. Cook, yet who, among the rising generation, has read those volumes which describe how his strong hand tore away the veil from half a world? Once they held the place of honor on the shelf of every enterprising boy. Is it too much to hope

that a discreet abridgment may, in the not distant future, enter the field again? With the earlier volumes stripped of the verbiage of Hawkesworth, and with the elimination of some technical detail, we believe a publisher might find his profit in it.

Mr. Besant passes by the Voyages, for the most part, to sketch for us the portrait of the man. This he has done with clear and just yet kindly touches, as was fitting. James Cook was born at Marton in Yorkshire, October 27, 1728. He was the second son of James, a farm laborer, and Grace, his wife, who had a large family. The boy learned his letters from Mary Walker, whose husband, a wealthy yeoman, gave him work. Later the Cooks moved to Great Ayton, where the father became farm-bailiff to Mr. Skottowe, lord of the manor, who, it would seem, became interested in young James, helped him to some parish schooling, and later to promotion in the naval service. At thirteen the lad was apprenticed to one Sanderson, a shop-keeper of Staithes, a place frequented by seafaring men. A year later he ran away to sea, becoming during the ten years following a practical seaman, and rising to the position of mate. In 1755, the French war impending, Cook volunteered as an able seaman on board H. M. S. *Eagle* of sixty guns. Little is known of his life from 1757 to 1759, but it is certain his capacity was recognized, and that he made use of all his opportunities for acquiring knowledge. At the age of thirty-one, he was made master in the navy and appointed to command the *Mercury*, which joined the fleet engaged with Gen. Wolfe in the reduction of the fortress of Quebec. He surveyed and charted the St. Lawrence with an accuracy which left little to be desired. He devoted himself with ardor to the study of mathematics and astronomy in their relation to navigation, and was transferred to the flagship, which returned to England in the autumn of 1762. On December 21 of the same year he married Elizabeth Batts of Essex, a lady of highly respectable family and much personal beauty. After a few months he sailed on surveying duty on the Canadian coast, and for four years was so employed, his winters being spent in England. In 1766 he communicated his observations on an eclipse of the sun at Newfoundland to the Royal Society. In 1767 his work on the American coast was completed. In the following year the petition of the Royal Society for an expedition to observe the transit of Venus in 1769 from some point in the Pacific was granted, and Cook appointed to command it. The events which followed, culminating in the death of Cook at the hands of the Hawaiians, February 14, 1779, are a matter of history too well known to need repetition. None of his descendants survive.

Mr. Besant's little book is worthy of the great explorer of his century and the sanitarian who drove the scurvy from the navies of the world. That it may call renewed attention to the fascinating story of his voyages is to be hoped and expected.

Shakespeare's True Life. By James Walker Illustrated by Gerald E. Moira. Longmans, Green & Co. 1890.

THIS large and plentifully illustrated volume is a diffuse and rambling account of the country about Stratford-on-Avon, with some chapters at the end upon old London and Richmond. The author has an affectionate veneration for Shakspere, and his "true life" of the dramatist is an inference largely from the conditions of the soil and people in Warwickshire, which he knows with the familiarity of the local antiquary. He will not allow that there was any truth in the legends derogatory to Shakspere which have gathered about his memory: the deer-stealing, the drinking, the "black" woman, and all such matters are apocryphal, and the financial difficulties of Shakspere's father are susceptible of an explanation in which there is no loss of respectability. In the author's eyes, Shakspere was well-born, well-bred, studied law at Stratford, was married at the proper time, went to London with the advice and consent of his family, was a devoted husband, and, after a successful and honorable career, ended his days as a country gentleman should. Specifically he believes that a "hand-fast ceremony" united Shakspere with Anne Hathaway in the old Manor House at Shottery, prior to the public and Protestant marriage of which we know at a later date; and his second contribution to the biography of the great poet is the suggestion (and according to him the tradition) that the young Shakspere acquired his knowledge of books by reading in the library of an old Catholic family in the neighborhood. He gives us a picture of the library and of Shakspere's room. These matters are all of interest, and if the researches among the old Catholic records in the county are more thoroughly pushed in consequence of the suggestions here made, important facts may be elicited. At present the author's argument is not conclusive.

The more valuable portion of the work lies in the full and detailed view it gives of old Warwickshire and the characteristics of Shakspere's county as he saw it. The town of Stratford, with its church and school and the Shakspere houses, the field about Snittersfield, Shottery, Aston Cantlow, Wilmcote, Luddington, the Avon, are all described by the hand of a lover of the old houses and pathways, and everything ancient is reproduced in the illustrations that accompany the text. One sees as well as reads the sort of physical surroundings amid which Shakspere's early life was passed, and the antiquarian knowledge of the writer reproduces the ancient conditions of life with much picturesqueness and reality. The extent of the tradition of Shakspere over the country near to Stratford may be surprising to those who have limited their observation to the town itself, but here it is to be found in a text which lends as much probability to such traditions as can be done without abandoning the semblance of modern methods of history and biography.

Whether one agrees or not with the view of Shakspere here set forth, he will derive both knowledge and pleasure from the topographical and antiquarian portion of the work, and recognize the great labor and care which the author has spent upon his story; and however doubtful the facts of Shakspere's youth may remain, the general course of his early years in the Warwickshire country receives illumination of a most welcome kind from the pages of this volume.

A Short History of the Roman People. By William F. Allen, late Professor of History in the University of Wisconsin. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1890. Pp. vii., 370. 8vo.

IN what we had to say of Prof. Allen soon after his too early death, we observed that a work of his on Roman history was soon to be published. It has now appeared, and its excellence leads us more than ever to lament the fact that he will write no more. Although the book is not a large one, and is intended for use in colleges and high schools, yet it is free from the two faults to which such manuals are exposed. It is neither a cram-book, full of names and places, foot-notes and dates, nor is it, on the other hand, a mere epitome of events loosely strung together into a bald and uninviting tale. It is written with a definite purpose, well formulated and kept in mind throughout. That purpose was to show the forces by which Rome's greatness under the Republic was attained, and how and why those forces, passing through a period of decay, failed utterly under the Empire to retain what they had been able to secure. No mere political outline had sufficed to form this picture: economic, literary, but, more than all, social and religious elements, not isolated, but kept constantly in touch with one another, are so naturally displayed before the reader as to present the history of the Roman people in a manner intelligent and therefore intelligible.

For the book is rightly named a history of the people. It tells not so much what they did as what they were and how they thought. We had deemed it well-nigh impossible that in so brief a work the real life of a past civilization could be so clearly described and its strength and weakness portrayed. These are the aspects in which the study of the past is of any real usefulness to us, for, as Professor Allen says, "No historical fact is of any value except so far as it helps us to understand human nature or the working of historic forces." On these lines Roman history is probably harder to write than that of any other nation, because Roman historians themselves had no conception that posterity would be interested, not so much in the actual enterprises of their armies as in the analysis of the conditions which made those enterprises possible. We speak of armies, because the history of Rome is largely one of military campaigns. But Professor Allen knew how to read between the lines of the Annalists, and his chapters on foreign conquests form no mere summary of despatches, with lists of killed, wounded, and taken, but we find in them broad statements of the causes and results of the campaigns themselves. On the political and social side of the history he is more particular, and we have marked as especially excellent his explanations of the classes of the citizens, his distinguishing of the different kinds of *comitia*, and his statements of the colonial and provincial systems. His treatment of the struggle between the patricians and plebeians, and of the public-lands agitation, is also admirable.

The original Roman religion is well separated out from the Greek and barbarian influences which encroached upon it, although the obligation to be brief has sometimes led to the omission of necessary particulars. The mad race of the thong-armed *Luperci* would never have been kept up for so many years had it not been that a practical good was supposed to come from the blows they dealt; yet that good is not stated in the text. Again, it is not explained what were the vows of the Vestals. But perhaps such omissions only show that the author's wish was that this should be a book from which history should be taught, not merely recited. The fashion of "hearing" recitations in our high schools and colleges is happily passing away, and there will be little room in the future for the sort of teacher who knows only the book which he has in hand and keeps only about a yard ahead of the boys. Prof. Allen provided material for the amplification of the story in the text by frequent references in foot-notes to essays and works upon special periods of history, and to scholarly historical novels. Drawing from these sources, a good teacher cannot fail to awaken in his pupils that lively

desire to know more than "the book" tells which should be one of the chief objects of all education.

It was an excellent thought to associate the events of the last century of the Republic closely with six names of contemporary Romans. Biography is among the most interesting as well as trustworthy ways in which history can be studied, and the student who has read carefully the lives of the Gracchi, Marius, Sulla, Pompey, Cæsar, and Octavian will have the best conception of the times in which they lived. We could wish that ancient and modern sources for the study of these lives had been indicated in notes for the sake of teachers. In another direction the book needs supplementing: we mean in the traditions of the early history. Surely our knowledge that they are but fables is not to lead to an utter abandonment of all those beautiful legends, and to a consequent incomprehension of countless allusions to them in the literature of every modern nation. Doubtless, had Prof. Allen lived to write the preface to his book, he would have pointed out what he thought the best means of studying these romances of history.

There are a dozen good maps in the book and over fifty illustrations of all sorts of subjects, taken from antique sources and generally well chosen and executed. We do not, however, think that the picture (from a coin) of the curule chair would give the uninitiated much light on its construction. This is the fault of the coin itself, not of the cut, and a better model might easily have been found. Of actual errors we have observed only a few, and these doubtless due to oversight. The elder Antonia was the wife, not the mother, of L. Domitius (p. 244). There is no evidence that the Vestal fire was ever lighted by striking a spark from a flint (p. 25). The *imagines* were masks, not busts (p. 63), and the famous words, *Veni, vidi, vici*, were not sent home in a despatch (p. 216), but, according to Plutarch, in a private letter to a friend, or, as Suetonius says, inscribed on a tablet carried in Cæsar's triumph. We suppose that "Japygians" (p. 5) is a misprint. The book has two excellent indexes, and the author dedicated it to Prof. Torrey of Harvard, "who first awakened me to an interest in historical study." That gentleman, in his retirement, may well be proud of these fruits of his teaching.

Pastels in Prose. Translations from the French by Stuart Merrill. With a preface by W. D. Howells, and illustrations by H. W. McVickar. Harper & Bros. 1890.

THIS collection of the "prose poems" of some two dozen modern French authors is the third of the series of translations which the Harpers are now issuing, Maupassant's 'Odd Number' having been the first. The "prose poem" (as Mr. Howells says in his capital little preface, which might very well itself come within the vague limitations set for "prose poems") is a purely modern thing, though many prose writings, especially the Scriptures, have passages which conform to its requirements. Judged by the most labored examples, it is an attempt to develop fully and passionately, in the smallest possible space, one idea or picture or emotion, the restraints of poetry being changed for the equally severe but less cramping restraints of prose. To add to the rhythmic effect, some of the writers in this collection have affected a phrase which recurs after each paragraph like the refrain of a ballade; but, luckily, this not always happy device is adopted by but few, the greater part of them developing their idea with the greatest simplicity and directness. The translation is as well done as one could wish, which is saying a good deal; for these are really untranslatable things, and the bloom of the pastel which Mr. Howells still seems to see on them has disappeared to a large extent beneath the rude Saxon touch. Some of them, indeed, like Daudet's "Little Dauphin" (which is rather a *conte* than a "prose poem," though infinitely poetic), lose little; but a *tour de force* like Huysmans's "Camaïeu in Red," an opalescent, refulgent picture in the original, seems almost silly in the inadequate English rendering of its strings of adjectives and participial construction.

The intellectual result of the selections goes for but little, though the range of authors runs from Baudelaire to Catulle Mendès. There is a monotony in their mundane philosophy which is disappointing. The hope of the book lies in the familiarizing of English writers with a possible daring use of language which so few have any conception of, and which, when rightly employed, can be so beautiful an ornament to a powerful thought.

Mr. McVickar's illustrations are not in bad taste exactly, but, with all their precision of line and eighteenth-century prettiness, they are so unimaginative and meaningless that they belittle the great fancy pictures they were meant to typify.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Archer, W. William Charles Macready. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Bülbring, K. D. The Compleat English Gentleman, by Daniel Defoe. London: David Nutt.
Clouston, W. A. Flowers from a Persian Garden, and Other Papers. London: David Nutt; New York: Scribner & Welford. $1.75.
Cook, A. M. Macmillan's Latin Course. Part II. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Edmonds, C. Poetry of the Anti-Jacobin. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.50.
Eimer, Prof. G. H. T. Organic Evolution as the Result of the Inheritance of Acquired Characters. Macmillan & Co. $3.25.
Freeman, A. C. The American State Reports. Vol. XI. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.
Hale, H. Chinook Jargon. London: Whittaker & Co.
Harris, J. C. Life of Henry W. Grady. Cassell Publishing Co. $3.
Hittell, J. S. A Code of Morals. 2d ed. San Francisco: The Bancroft Co.
Lee, Vernon. Hauntings. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Mantegazza, P. Physiognomy and Expression. Scribner & Welford. $1.25.
Martineau, Rev. J. The Seat of Authority in Religion. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.50.
Masson, Prof. D. The Collected Writings of Thomas De Quincey. Vol. VI. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
McGuire, Mrs. J. W. Diary of a Southern Refugee during the War. 3d ed. Richmond, Va.: J. W. Randolph & English. $1.
Memorial to Robert Browning under the Auspices of the Browning Society of Boston, Jan. 28, 1890. Boston.
Merrill, S. Pastels in Prose. Harper & Bros.
Milton, J. Comus. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Mitchell, D. G. English Lands, Letters and Kings. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Montgomery, Rev. M. W. The Mormon Delusion. Boston: Congregational Sunday-School and Publishing Society. 75 cents.

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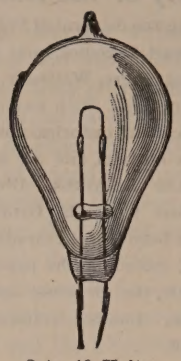

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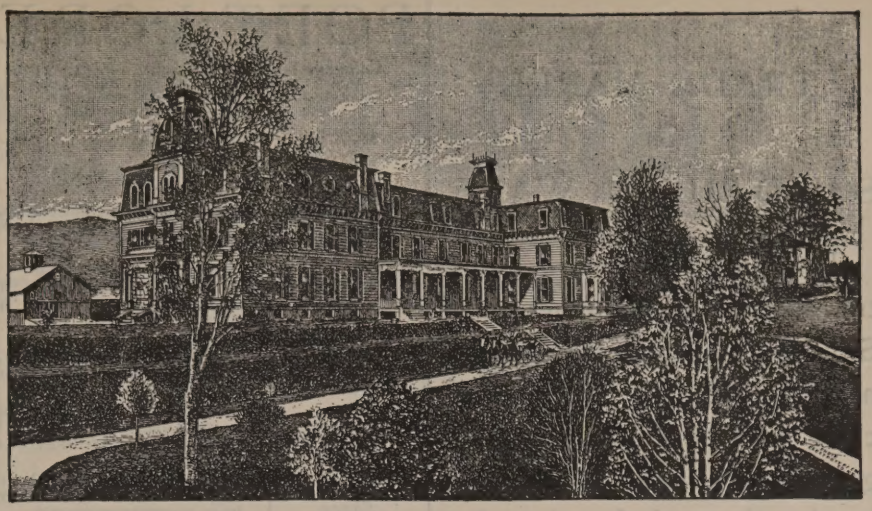

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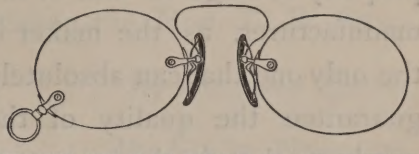

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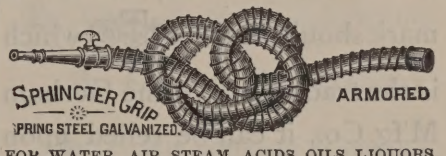

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Six per cent. interest on the outstanding certificates of profits will be paid to the holders thereof or their legal representatives on and after Tuesday, the fourth of February next.

The outstanding certificates of the issue of 1885 will be redeemed and paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the fourth of February next, from which date all interest thereon will cease. The certificates to be produced at the time of payment and cancelled.

A dividend of FORTY PER CENT. is declared on the net earned premiums of the Company for the year ending 31st December, 1889, for which certificates will be issued on and after Tuesday, the 6th of May next.

By order of the Board,
J. H. CHAPMAN, Secretary.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 1, 1890.

The Week.

THE Senate Republicans have brought forward their scheme for a Federal election law in a bill presented by Mr. Hoar on Thursday. Briefly summarized, it takes entire control of Congressional elections from the State authorities, with whom it has rested ever since the Government was established, and vests it in men to be appointed by the judges of the Federal courts. This is contrary alike to all our traditions and to the spirit of our institutions; indeed, it is the largest step towards centralization yet proposed. Objectionable thus in principle, it would inevitably work only harm in practice, and we do not think that Senator Pugh of Alabama exaggerated when he said: "If the bill becomes a law, its execution will insure the shedding of blood and the destruction of the peace and good order of this country." The favorable report of such a measure from a Senate committee is another sign of the dangerous tendencies in the Republican party.

The correspondence published regarding the enforcement of Federal laws in Florida illustrates the disastrous consequences of lowering the standard of the United States judiciary. The President directs the Attorney-General to instruct the new United States Marshal in Florida that the resistance which has been made to the execution of the process of the courts in certain counties "cannot be longer tolerated," whereupon the editor of the Jacksonville *Times-Union*, the leading newspaper of the State, addresses Mr. Harrison an open letter, defending the people from the charge brought against them, but pointing out that officers of the court have been so open and loud in their threats to prostitute their power to partisan advantage—the Marshal ordering his deputy, in defiance of the United States law, to select for jurors only "true and tried Republicans"—that it is not strange that in some instances men have been rendered desperate. "The people of these four counties," he says, "do not desire to offer any obstructions or any resistance to the execution of the laws; it is their wish to aid you in bringing wrong-doers to punishment; but I know that I voice their sentiments when I assure you that they cannot respect the United States Court for this district if it is to continue its policy of the last nine months. If it is purified, if it is cleansed of all suspicion of partisanship, of designed oppression, of injustice, its officers will encounter no resistance, no obstruction, no evasion in Leon, Gadsden, Jefferson, and Madison Counties. Constitute a district court to mete out justice, not injustice, and the people of Florida will hold it in as high respect as do the people of any State in the Union." If any further argument were needed against the passage of a Federal election law, it would be found in the fact that it is proposed to vest the control of elections in courts presided over by partisans like Judge Swayne of Florida, which it is impossible for the people to respect.

The dinner of the Americus Republican Club in Pittsburgh on Saturday evening was rendered notable by the presence of Speaker Reed and Assistant Postmaster-General Clarkson, and by their foreshadowings of the policy adopted by the party leaders at Washington. Briefly summarized, this policy is to stand by Quay and maintain him as Chairman of the Republican National Committee, and to pass a Federal election law, under which, to use Mr. Reed's words, the Republicans will "do our own registration, our own counting, and our own certification." Apparently the managers expect to lose a good many seats in the next House of Representatives from Northern States, and have made up their minds to try and secure enough seats from the South to give them a majority. In order to bring about this result, sectional strife is to be stirred up, and the negro is to be sacrificed, since nothing worse for the negro can be imagined than to revive in all its intensity race animosity. The idea that good relations between whites and blacks are to be promoted by interference from Washington is of course too absurd for anybody to entertain; and, to do them justice, the Republican managers make small pretence of believing any such thing. Good relations between the races are the last thing in the world that they want, so long as they believe that trouble between whites and blacks brings votes to their party. It is a reckless game which they propose to play, and they may find that they are presuming too much upon the stupidity of the patient partisans on whom they rely.

The most extraordinary feature of the Pittsburgh speeches was Mr. Clarkson's frank confession that the press of the country, and by consequence the readers of the country, are becoming Democratic. Here are his words: "The campaign of 1892 will be largely a newspaper campaign, and it has already begun. Let us be frank and say that the Democrats saw this before the Republicans; for any close observer must have seen with interest, and almost astonishment, the marvellous manner in which the Democratic party has been strengthening its lines in the newspaper or the magazine. It did not use to care as much as the Republican party for the newspaper and the magazine. In latter days it has been beating us in our own game. In the large cities of the East they have captured nearly all the magazines and illustrated papers." Mr. Clarkson went a step further, and showed how the people who read newspapers are taking Democratic in preference to Republican journals, telling of a canvass which he has had made in a county near Chicago, where 680 Republican families are taking Democratic papers, and only 95 Democratic families taking Republican papers. Mr. Clarkson professed to be surprised at these developments; but what else could he expect when he himself, after conducting a Republican newspaper during the last Presidential campaign, and pledging his party to support civil-service reform, removes 30,000 postmasters within a year, and then goes to Pittsburgh to denounce the reform, and to declare that "no real American sympathy attends the present experiment"—by which expression he refers to the Civil-Service Law?

The long-threatened assault upon the Civil-Service Commission was made in the House a week ago, and proved a complete failure. The spoilsmen in both parties were vociferous in denunciation of civil-service reform and in abuse of the Commissioners, seven Republicans and seven Democrats taking the floor on that side of the question; and among those representing the majority were Grosvenor, one of the most prominent Republican members from Ohio; Houk of Tennessee, the leading Southern Republican; Dunnell of Minnesota; and Perkins of Kansas. The Democrats who supported Houk's motion to "starve out" the Commission, by striking from the Appropriation Bill the item providing for its support, were of the type fitly represented by Spinola, the Tammany statesman of this city, and Biggs, an old fogy from California. Mr. Blount, one of the ablest Democrats from the South, and Mr. Tracy, from the Albany district in this State, sustained the law and the Commission, as did also several members on the Republican side, notably Mr. Moore of New Hampshire and Messrs. McKinley and Butterworth of Ohio. Mr. McKinley pressed home upon his party colleagues the faithlessness to their platform pledges involved in the Houk proposition, and told them plainly that "the merit system was here, and here to stay." When a vote was finally reached, 61 Representatives voted to strike out the appropriation for the Commission, while 120 favored its retention. Unfortunately, the vote was taken in Committee of the Whole, where the roll is not called, so that it is impossible to place the responsibility for the affirmative outside of those who made speeches on that side. The *Tribune's* correspondent estimates that the affirmative was about evenly divided between the two parties, while the negative was made up of about eighty Republicans to forty Democrats. So far as the discussion went, however, the Republicans made the poorer showing, as the men who sustained the "starving-out" scheme on that side of the chamber were far more prominent than the Democrats who championed the cause of the spoilsmen.

This vote settles the question as to a re-

peal of the Civil-Service Law On a yea-and-nay vote in the House it is not probable that sixty members could be found who would record themselves on that side. So far as the Republican opponents of the reform are concerned, their position is most shameless, for every one of them sustained the party in 1888 upon a platform which reproached the Democrats with having broken their pledges regarding the cause, affirmed generally that "we will not fail to keep our pledges because they have broken theirs," and declared explicitly that "the reform of the civil service, auspiciously begun under the Republican Administration, should be completed by the further extension of the reform system, already established by law, to all the grades of the service to which it is applicable." Grosvenor, Houk, Dunnell, Perkins, and the rest of them were thus pledged, not only to sustain the Commission, but to vote it such larger sums as it needs for "the further extension of the reform system." Mr. McKinley took the right ground when he said that his only regret was that the Appropriations Committee did not give to the Civil-Service Commission all the appropriation it asked for such enlargement of its operations. However, it is something to be thankful for that under an Administration which is dominated by Quay the Commission is not "starved out."

The vast power which is possessed by the Supreme Court of the United States receives a fresh and striking illustration in its decision regarding prohibition on Monday. After Iowa enacted a prohibitory law, a firm of brewers in Peoria, Ill., sent some of their beer in sealed kegs and cases by railroad to Keokuk, where their agent, a non-resident, offered it for sale in the original packages. The liquor was seized by the City Marshal, and the brewers brought suit against him, alleging that the seizure was unconstitutional and void, as in violation of the clause of the Federal Constitution which gives Congress the exclusive right to regulate inter-State commerce. The local court decided in favor of the brewers, but the Supreme Court of Iowa reversed its decision, and an appeal was then taken to the highest tribunal in the country. The Supreme Court at Washington now overrules the Supreme Court of Iowa, and decides that the transportation of liquor from one State to another is a matter of inter-State commerce which Congress alone can regulate, and that the right of transportation of an article of commerce from one State to another includes by necessary implication the right of the consignee to sell it in unbroken packages at the place where the transportation terminates. The decision was concurred in by six judges, the other three dissenting, and it carries the weight of authority, as well as of numbers, inasmuch as the majority includes Justice Miller, the generally recognized leader of the bench, as well as Justices Bradley and Field and the Chief Justice, while the dissenters are Justices Gray, Harlan, and Brewer. It will be observed that the Republican judges were evenly divided, three for and three against the position taken, while the three Democrats stood together. It is also worthy of note that the Iowa member of the court, Justice Miller, decides against the claim of his State.

This decision virtually breaks down prohibition by State law. No matter how rigorous a law Iowa may enact against the sale of liquor, Illinois brewers can send beer into the State and sell it, and in like manner Boston liquor-dealers can defy the Maine law by importing their wares into Neal Dow's city. The only condition is that the "original package" must not be broken before the sale; but as this package may be a keg, a bottle, or a flask—any receptacle, so long as it is sealed—there is practically no restriction upon the traffic. Moreover, it would appear as though the decision were almost as fatal to license as to prohibition, for the dissenting opinion, delivered by Justice Gray, says: "If the statutes of a State, restricting or prohibiting the sale of intoxicating liquors within its territory, are to be held inoperative and void as applied to liquors sent or brought from another State and sold by the importer in what are called original packages, the consequence must be that an inhabitant of any State may, under the pretext of inter-State commerce and without license or supervision of any public authority, carry or send into and sell in any or all of the other States of the Union intoxicating liquors of whatever description, in cases or kegs, or even in single bottles or flasks, despite any legislation of those States on the subject, and although his own State should be the only one which had not enacted similar laws." The Philadelphia *Press* interprets this to mean that liquor may be sent from Camden to Philadelphia in bottles and flasks, and sold freely and indiscriminately without a license, and it certainly seems as though this theory were correct. If so, the consequences of the decision will be far-reaching and enormous, and the whole problem of dealing with the liquor traffic is involved in new and great difficulties.

The signs of "getting ready" to pass a Silver Bill multiply at Washington, but there is as much doubt as ever what kind of a bill it will be. The latest discovery made by the true-blue silverites is that the caucus bill enables the Secretary of the Treasury to sell silver bullion as well as to buy it. Any holder of the Treasury notes issued in payment for silver bullion may present them to the Treasury and ask to have them redeemed in bullion, and the Secretary may, if he chooses, redeem them in bullion at the market price of the day. Now these notes will drift to the Treasury in payment of Government dues to exactly the extent that they are not wanted for circulation. The Secretary may deposit the notes with any national bank that is willing to receive them, and the bank may present them at the Sub-Treasury and call for bullion. In this way the Secretary would have an equal chance with the bullion-speculators to manipulate the market. Of course that will never do. What is wanted is a steady market for 4,500,000 ounces of pure silver each month at the expense of the taxpayers. No measure which allows the Secretary to sell as well as to buy will ever get the support of the silver-mine owners.

A preposterous proposition, which not only is bad in itself, but constitutes a vicious precedent, has just been carried through the Senate by Mr. Blair, in the shape of a bill appropriating $50,000 for the erection of an equestrian statue of Gen. Stark, the Revolutionary hero, in the city of Manchester, N. H., "and for the proper preparation, grading, and enclosing of the lot and foundation upon which said statue shall be erected." In other words, the taxpayers of the whole country are to furnish $50,000 to beautify a New Hampshire city with a park and a statue. Mr. Moody of South Dakota made an earnest protest against the scheme, saying: "There is no just right to expend the money of my constituents for such a purpose; and now, when it is before the country that the low price of farm products in the West and in many cases the failure of crops have brought many people to the verge of pauperism, it is not just or right, and cannot be justified, that money shall be taken from the Treasury and expended for such a purpose." Gen. Hawley of Connecticut took even stronger ground against the proposition, saying: "I do not see how we can embark in this business. I do not see why New Hampshire has been guilty of avoiding the duty of erecting a statue in memory of that gallant hero; but if we are to enter upon this business, if this is to be regarded as a fair and just course on the part of the Federal Government, all the States will be clamoring to have all their heroes taken care of in a similar way by the national Government. If they are proud, as they ought to be, they should put up such monuments themselves." In the course of the discussion it came out that New Hampshire herself has at last recognized the long-neglected duty of erecting a statue to Stark, and that steps have already been taken to place such a memorial in the State-house Park at Concord. Nevertheless, the Senate passed the bill by a vote of 37 to 15.

"Senatorial courtesy" probably forbade telling the truth about the scheme, which is simply that Mr. Blair's term is approaching its close, and that he wants to "make himself solid" with his constituents by giving them a fine park, ornamented by a statue, without their being obliged to pay for it. A New Hampshire paper, the Concord *People and Patriot*, sums up the case forcibly when it says: "No such bill ought to pass. In the first place, the General Government should build statues and monuments to no man anywhere else than at the national

capital. In the next place, $50,000 is twice the amount necessary for the purpose whenever and wherever it may be carried out. Again, the State of New Hampshire is about to erect a suitable statue of Stark in the State-house Park in this city, which will answer for all practical purposes. If Manchester wants one, let her enterprising Board of Trade get up a subscription to pay for it." There is some reason to hope that the House may not be as complaisant to the New Hampshire Senator as his colleagues have been. The *Tribune's* correspondent says that "several other similar measures are pending in Congress, and, though the Senate may be disposed to pass them, the House has shown a commendable disposition to economize on such miscellaneous and by no means necessary appropriations, and thus keep down the sum total of the expenses of this session, which are sure to be swollen in any case by demands of the most imperative and legitimate sort." If the nation should once enter upon this policy, the statue scandal would soon be greater and worse than that of the public-buildings grab-game.

An apt comment on the McKinley Administrative Bill is supplied by the following advertisement extensively published by a Chicago firm dealing in crockery and glassware:

> The McKinley Tariff Bill (for the reduction of the revenue), if it becomes a law July 1, 1890, will cause an advance in prices about as follows:
>
> Imported blown flint, cut top, table tumblers, 500 dozen just received—Our price, 75 cents dozen; McKinley price, $1.15 dozen.
>
> Haviland & Co.'s decorated china dinner sets, in thirty-five new decorations, now arriving—Our price, $30 to $250; McKinley price, $40 to $315.
>
> English printed dinner sets, in a large variety of decorations and patterns—Our price, $8.50 to $100; McKinley price, $11.50 to $135.
>
> Retail department, French & Potter Co., Wabash Avenue and Washington Street, Chicago.

It is obvious that the French & Potter Co. are not paying large sums of money in advertising merely to bring the McKinley bill into discredit. They are seeking to attract buyers by showing how much cheaper they can get crockery and glassware for their tables now than they can after the McKinley bill passes. A decorated china dinner set now costing $30 will be advanced to $40, and a printed one from $8.50 to $11.50. This is to be accomplished by adding to the dutiable value of the things imported the cost of crates, packing, inland freight, commissions, port charges, and all other expenses connected with the shipment, which are disproportionately heavy for such bulky and fragile goods as crockery and glassware. The duty on this kind of crockery is 60 per cent. It is proposed to increase this exorbitant tax by requiring the importer to pay 60 per cent. duty on the crates and straw in which they are packed, and which are worth nothing afterward, on the labor of packing and carting, on the foreign railway and insurance charges, etc. In every case where any such thing now costs a dollar, it is to cost hereafter a dollar and sixty cents.

Mr. Darlington of Pennsylvania is a worthy member of the Republican party in that State. In the House on Tuesday, he made the following curiously vulpine statement about the charges against Quay:

> "Mr. Darlington (Rep.)—I move to strike out the last word. I do not take very much interest in the kind of discussion that we have had here lately on this bill, but, as an act of justice to the Chairman of the Republican National Committee, I wish to make a brief statement. Mr. Quay, the gentleman to whom allusion has been made here, was State Treasurer of Pennsylvania, and I was on his bond for the sum of $50,000. When he was elected Senator, he resigned the office of State Treasurer. There was no defalcation nor anything of the kind. I never was called upon as bondsman to pay one dollar. I never heard of this ridiculous story until to-day, and I here pronounce it false in every particular so far as Mr. Quay's connection with the State of Pennsylvania as State Treasurer is concerned."

Now, observe how easy it is to expose this man. Quay was *Secretary of State* when he took $260,000 from the State Treasury and lost it in stock speculation. When he was State Treasurer, and Darlington was his bondsman, he took $400,000 and speculated with it and made money, and restored what he had taken. Consequently there did not appear to be any defalcation when he went out of office, and of course Darlington had nothing to pay on his account. So that in all that Darlington says there is not one word of real answer to the charge, but he tried to impose it on his hearers as a "vindication."

The Republican moralists are covering themselves with glory in this Quay matter. Here comes Prof. D. H. Wheeler, LL.D., of Alleghany College, to excuse Quay in the *Christian Advocate* for not answering the charges recently made against him. According to the Professor, the Senator's refusal to notice them "is a good example to us all." The reason of this is, that "a libel suit would be worth more than the highest possible cost to the *World*. At the end of it, no one's judgment would be changed. The only way to test the truth of the charges is for some one of his numerous and powerful enemies to prosecute him in the courts of Pennsylvania. If the charges are true, they can be legally proved." But how could people's judgment remain unchanged if Quay disproved the charges in the courts of New York by sworn testimony? Surely a LL.D. knows that the procedure in the courts of New York is substantially the same as in the courts of Pennsylvania. Witnesses on each side are sworn, examined, and cross-examined; documentary evidence, if any there be, is produced. The judge charges, and the jury deliberates and finds a verdict, in this city just as in Philadelphia. What kind of man would he be who, after hearing Senator Quay's evidence showing that the whole story about his robbing the Treasury was a baseless slander, would refuse to change his judgment? Nobody except a knave or a fool could go on believing, or even pretending to believe, the charge after Quay had in open court exposed its falsity. Can it be that the Professor is drawing this inference about people in general from his own secret determination to disbelieve the charge, no matter how strongly proved? The rest of his reasoning makes this look probable. His contention is, that it cannot be true that Quay robbed the Treasury, because the Professor has himself become case-hardened against newspaper attacks; because John Field was a good appointment; because Wanamaker is a religious man; because a great many false charges are made in newspapers; because newspapers are reckless and filthy; because Dravo is a good man; and so on. Most sensible people, after reading the letter, will ask with amazement, Can it be possible that this man is a Doctor of Laws, and an instructor of youth, and a welcome contributor to a religious newspaper?

We commend the recent developments at Albany to the thoughtful attention of those political commentators who are in the habit of attributing all our worst legislative, municipal, and governmental abuses generally to our "immense ignorant foreign population." Who are the most active friends of undesirable legislation at Albany? They are Robertson, Erwin, Coggeshall, Vedder, Ives, and Cantor in the Senate, and Husted, Fish, Gibbs, and Sheehan in the Assembly. Are these foreigners? Every man of them was born in this country, and the majority of them are of American parentage. Some of them, like Mr. Fish, are of illustrious and honorable stock. Is it the fault of the "ignorant foreign population" that these men pursue the course that they do? Is it any wonder, when they misuse public office, that ignorant foreigners who happen to get into other offices imitate their bad example? Our worst governmental troubles do not come from the ignorant voters, foreign or domestic, but from educated Americans, who misuse the power which those voters are induced to place in their hands. That is as true of Congress as it is of our Legislature.

New England complains that her farms are being deserted, and that the population of her agricultural districts is dwindling. So serious has the situation become that more than one State has instituted measures to promote immigration and thus fill up the waste places, Vermont even sending across the Atlantic and bringing people all the way from Sweden. Yet at the same time the leading journals of New England contain flaming advertisements of land companies, organized with New England capital and officered by New England magnates, which urge New England people to abandon their present homes and settle in the South. An ex-Governor of Vermont is President of one of these companies, and another ex-Governor is prominent in another such company. In this way one may sometimes read in one column of a newspaper an article describing some movement to resettle deserted farms in a New England State, and in another column of the same issue find an advertisement which holds out the strongest inducements for the desertion of farms that are still cultivated.

THE LATEST SILVER BILL.

ALTHOUGH a joint caucus of the Republican members of the House and Senate Committees having the subject of silver money in charge have agreed upon a bill, it would be unsafe to predict that the bill, or indeed any bill, will be passed at this session of Congress. Whatever may be said by interested parties in Wall Street or elsewhere, the fact that business goes on without any hoarding of gold to speak of, or any rush to buy sterling exchange, proves that business men do not take the bill or bills seriously, no matter what juntas of Congressmen may have agreed to them.

The latest bill agreed upon provides for the following things:

(1.) The purchase by the Treasury of 4,500,000 ounces of "free silver" per month. What is meant by free silver we do not know. As there is no silver in prison except that in the Government's vaults, we conclude that it means pure silver as distinguished from standard silver nine-tenths fine. If this is the meaning, the bill requires the purchase of about 5,000,000 ounces of standard silver per month, which, at one dollar per ounce (the present quotation is 105), would add $35,000,000 per annum to the public disbursements.

(2.) The bullion is to be paid for by a new kind of Treasury notes of denominations of $1 to $1,000.

(3.) These Treasury notes are not to be legal tender. They are to be redeemed, however, on demand, in lawful money of the United States, are to be receivable for all Government dues and available as reserves of the national banks.

(4.) "The Secretary of the Treasury *shall* coin such portion of the silver bullion purchased as may be necessary to provide for the redemption of the Treasury notes herein provided for." This is a legal definition of the phrase "lawful money of the United States," as used above. It commands the Secretary to redeem the notes in silver dollars, and not otherwise, except where the holder of the notes calls for bullion instead, in which case the Secretary may, if he chooses, weigh out to him an amount of bullion equal, at market value, to the face of the notes.

(5.) The bullion not required for redemption of the notes is to remain in storage as bullion, and the existing two-millions-per-month law is to be repealed.

The bill is rather more complicated and harder to understand than the Windom bill. It is the most obscure and involved of all the bills that have been talked of, and therefore is the one least likely to pass. Congress will hardly pass a measure which the public in general cannot understand. There are three things which common people can understand: they can understand the present law, and any enlargement of coinage under the present law, and they can understand free coinage. Anything more involved they cannot understand. It is doubtful if fifty members of Congress, taking House and Senate together, can form a clear opinion of the workings of this bill, or will ever take the pains to do so.

Is it desirable that such a bill should pass as an alternative to the present law? Clearly not, for the reason that it adds thirty-five millions per annum to the Government expenses at one stroke, and for no value received. The present burden upon the Treasury is exactly the amount of bullion purchased, over and above the amount of silver certificates bought and paid for by the public. The amount of certificates so bought has thus far been equal to the bullion purchased. If we count the seignorage, there has been a gain to the Treasury of $56,000,000 in all. But we have to reckon on the other side the declining value of silver since the Government began buying, which in case of a liquidation would wipe out the apparent profit and a good deal more.

Experience teaches that the present coinage rate of two millions per month is all that the public will take off the Secretary's hands. Any excess of purchases will, therefore, be an addition to the public expenses, exactly the same as a new pension bill or any other unproductive expenditure. It is the same thing as buying any kind of property not wanted for use, as, for example, iron, or cotton, or coal. But the consequence of a great increase of the public expenses is to create a Treasury deficit, and, whenever this happens, and however it may come about, the Treasury will no longer be able to maintain the parity been gold and silver. Not only will the silver crisis then begin, but another kind of crisis will begin at the same time. A Treasury deficit does not exhaust itself with silver payments. Unless taxes are increased, so as to choke the deficit, bonds must be issued to meet current expenses. This is what we have to look forward to if any such insensate measure becomes a law.

THE TAMMANY BIOGRAPHIES.

Two of the members of the Tammany Executive Committee whose portraits were recently sketched by the *Evening Post*, and only two, have had the audacity to exhibit their resentment by obtaining warrants of arrest for criminal libel. One of them, Peter Mitchell, did this, we think, out of his own head. The other, "Barney" Martin, was, we feel pretty sure, impelled thereto by the "Big Four," as they are responsible for him more directly than for Mitchell. They have made him their Deputy-Commissioner of Public Works, while Mitchell is simply a civil justice by appointment of Gov. Hill. How either of them screwed up his courage to go to a police court to get protection for his character, it is difficult to explain except on the theory that the toleration they have so long enjoyed has caused them to lose their heads and forget their antecedents.

The *Evening Post* is now able to add positively in regard to Mitchell that he was a receiver of stolen goods when he kept the rum-shop at the corner of Bleecker and Greene Street, and that he was in partnership with Sharkey, the murderer, in another rum-shop at 202 Broadway, when Sharkey tried to get a stolen gold certificate cashed and was arrested. Mitchell exerted himself vigorously and successfully, both by political influence and swearing to an alibi, to secure his "pal's" deliverance. His alibi affidavit bears the following significant endorsement by Oakey Hall, who was then Mayor:

> I recommend a *nolle prosequi* in the case referred to within. A. OAKEY HALL,
> Ex-District Attorney.
>
> DECEMBER 20, 1869.

The *nolle prosequi* was entered finally October 7, 1870. It was altogether an artistic piece of work, beginning with a dexterous indictment for grand larceny, which was not provable, instead of an indictment for receiving stolen goods, which would have been provable. Sharkey got off, and subsequently committed a murder and made his escape while under sentence of death in the Tombs, by exchanging clothes with a dissolute woman, who, after the fashion of those old Tammany days, was allowed to visit him in prison.

In December, 1870, Mitchell was admitted to the legal bar after having, according to his own story, studied law behind the liquor bar, at the same time with Tweed's son Richard. The manner in which the Committee on Character performed its duty in those days may be inferred from the foregoing account of Mitchell's previous career. He has since then practised at the criminal bar of this city, he says himself, in a creditable manner, and we have been informed by competent observers that he is superior to his brethren in that branch of the profession, in that he does not strip his clients of everything they possess and subsequently sell them out to their enemies. About this, however, we know little but what he tells us. But we do know that he has all the while been doing his regular stint of work in the field of politics covered by Tammany Hall, and that we now find him a leading spirit in the corrupt and criminal gang known as "the Executive Committee" of that institution.

With regard to Barney Martin, it was an overstatement to say that "he kept" the "Burnt Rag." We believe that he simply had an interest in it, and made it his headquarters or "boosing-ken." Nor was it quite accurate to say that Mr. Moir, the jeweller, put bars on his windows when Barney, "Red" Leary the famous burglar, and his wife Kate the famous pickpocket, had set up a rum-shop next door to him. The bars, it seems, were there already when they arrived, but Mr. Moir would testify that he considered them very dangerous neighbors, and Mr. Coogan, the landlord of the premises, that he went to collect his rents of them with fear and trembling.

The point with regard to both Mitchell and Martin to be borne in mind by the public is, not simply that they are men whose lives have been vicious or infamous, but that they are members of an organization which at this moment charges itself with the duty of dividing the money of the taxpayers and the public offices of the city as booty among a parcel of criminal or semi-

criminal adventurers. What is far worse is that they fill places of trust in the city government. For Mitchell is one of our judges; not in one of the superior courts, it is true, but still in a court in which the justice of the People of the State of New York is administered, and on which the poor and lowly are dependent for the assertion of their just claims and the protection of their small rights. It would be an insult to the intelligence of our readers to explain the horror and indecency of this.

"Barney" Martin, too, holds an office the administration of which greatly concerns the health, comfort, and property of the taxpayers. In the absence of the Commissioner of Public Works, Martin, as his deputy, fills his place and exercises his powers. Consider for one moment the light which this fact throws on the notions of public duty held by the Commissioner, "Tommy" Gilroy. He appointed Martin with full knowledge of his antecedents. In all the politico-criminal circles of this city Martin has long been a prominent man. He was fully exposed in 1886 by a rising against his leadership in the Seventh District, on account of his vicious life, by the more respectable members of his own party, headed by Mr. Knox, the well-known hatter. Their movement was reported and commented on by the New York *Times* of September 21, 1886, in as strong language touching Martin's career as we have employed. It proved beyond question that Gilroy knew him well when he drew him out of the haunts of vice and crime and gave him a place of trust in the public service with a salary of $6,000 a year. And yet this same Gilroy had the brass to lament last winter over his and Croker's inability to do great things for the city, owing to the cruel suspicions and aspersions of a licentious press.

The work the *Evening Post* has been doing about these men and their kind is work which ought not in any highly civilized community to devolve on a journalist at all. We do not believe any civilized community has heretofore left it to its journalists. The way in which such men usually come under the notice of the press is in comment on the efforts of the police to watch them and catch them, or on the sentences passed on them by the criminal courts. Writing their history with the view of keeping them out of places of civic honor and trust is surely an unprecedented editorial experience in a great capital; and yet this is the task which New York to-day imposes on its newspapers. It is a task which, it seems, has to be performed, but it is one which no respectable journalist can perform without some shame and indignation.

MR. WARNER ON COPYRIGHT.

THE Senate has recently ordered printed, as Executive Document No. 57 of this session, "Sundry reports, prepared for the use of the International American Congress." The subjects reported upon in this pamphlet of 118 pages are weights and measures, patent laws, trade-marks, copyright (pp. 61-70), and a uniform system of customs regulations; while there is added a useful list of the treaties of the United States with foreign Powers from 1776 to 1889, prepared by the Universal Peace Union of Philadelphia. The report on copyright is from the pen of Mr. Charles Dudley Warner, and it might easily be supposed that he had written it fresh from a reading of the chapter in Mr. Spencer's 'Social Statics' which treats of "The Right of Property in Ideas." Mr. Warner shares with Herbert Spencer the feeling that modern legislation fails to give due protection to this species of property; but he is hardly just to the real advance which has been made in copyright legislation during the last twenty-five years when he says:

> "Copyright laws, as now existing in the countries most advanced in civilization, are of ancient and crude form, and indicate little of the increased wisdom and aggregated experience which have made modern statute-books admirable illustrations of an enlightened age. Regarding literary products as property, they nevertheless afford it a very limited protection, punish mildly or not at all the theft of the property, and grant to the owner and his heirs that protection for only a short time. But the most glaring relic of ancient times of ignorance and exclusiveness, when governments little considered the broad principles of universal justice, is copyright laws which protect only the owner or resident in a country, and permit its citizens to appropriate to their own profit in their factories the property of aliens. . . . In our enlightened time no one who is not interested in appropriating such property can be found to defend the semi-barbarous character of the modern copyright legislation of some countries on both sides of the Atlantic."

These words can appropriately be applied to our own copyright laws, but the implication that they are also true of the copyright legislation of the other American States is, we think, an injustice to the latter. Perhaps Mr. Warner is not aware that three of these States, Mexico, Guatemala, and Venezuela, grant, by comparatively recent legislation, copyright in perpetuity. So, also, when, in speaking of the Berne International Union, Mr. Warner says that "from this arrangement the republics of the Western Hemisphere stand aloof, presenting the anomaly to the world of communities founded upon the acknowledgment of the rights of men lagging behind in one of the essentials of liberal and enlightened government," he fails to point out the very different attitude towards the Berne Convention assumed by the United States and the South American republics. The United States, in plain language, refuses to pass such legislation as will permit it to enter the International Copyright Union, for the sole reason that it is reluctant to give up the material advantage of possessing and using the power to plunder the citizens of foreign countries of their literary property. The States of South America, on the contrary, have promptly formed an International Copyright Convention among themselves, modelled upon the Berne Convention, and apparently more liberal even than the latter as regards some of its provisions. These States are, therefore, eligible to membership in the International Union, and it is probably only a matter of time and convenience as to when they will become active members, whereas the United States is not eligible, and cannot be until there is a more thorough reform of our copyright statutes than our people seem yet sufficiently aroused to demand of Congress.

Further on in his report Mr. Warner says: "It has been suggested that an American author ought not to have a foreign ownership of his work unless he make a contract giving a foreign publisher an interest in his copyright. The suggestion is so grossly unjust that it needs but to be heard to be rejected. There is no existing relationship between authorship as a business and publishing as a business, except what may arise from contract between author and publisher. To create one by giving the publishers of one country a perpetual lien on the authorship of all other countries would be a degradation of the law-making power." We think so too, but we wish Mr. Warner had given the source of this suggestion, for we have never heard of it before, and we doubt if it originated with any South or Central American State. Indeed, we had supposed that this idea of providing for the publishers at the expense of the authors, in copyright legislation, was also peculiar to the United States. It was a provision in the Clay bill of 1837, the report on which Mr. Warner recommends to the Commission and prints as an appendix to his paper; and it may be said to be the central idea of the Chace bill now—fifty-three years later—before Congress. When Congress put copyright upon the list of subjects to be considered by the Pan-American Congress, it was an opportunity which should have been seized upon by the friends of international copyright to present to members of Congress and the delegates to the Conference a practical document in comparative jurisprudence. A report containing a careful study of the existing copyright legislation of the Latin nations of America, supported by the complete texts of all the copyright statutes of these countries, and the text of the South American Copyright Convention, properly translated and set over against our own inadequate copyright laws, would have forced upon the attention of Congress and the people the backward and discreditable position occupied by our own country in relation to this subject, and could hardly have failed to produce good results. Such a document would have pointed out the proper and dignified action which the Conference could have recommended and Congress could have taken, and it might very possibly have resulted in the first and most important step towards putting the copyright legislation of the United States in line with that of the legislation of other civilized countries upon this subject.

THE INFANT PRODIGY.

A VETERAN entered at my gate
With locks as cherry-blossoms white;
His clothes proclaimed a prosperous fate,
His boots were arrogantly bright.

The hat was glossy on his head,
Gold-rimmed his eye-glass, gold his chain,
In genial curves his waistcoat spread,
And golden-headed was his cane.

Without a preface thus he spoke,
"I've called to get my annual due";
Whereat I too the silence broke
With, "Who, respected sir, are you?

"What is your claim against me, pray?
A many-chilled man am I,
Hard-pinched my monthly bills to pay,
And prices rule perversely high."

"Not know me? Everybody knows
And gladly gives his mite," quoth he,
"Why, I'm a babe in swaddling clo'es,
I am an Infant Industry."

"Forgive me, Reverend Shape," I cried,
"You set my faith a heavy task;
This infancy which seems your pride,
Is it your *second*, may I ask?

"Or have you, where so many failed,
The key to life's Elixir found?
You look like one who never ailed,
In wind and limb sedately sound."

"You doubt my word? (Excuse these tears,
They flow for you and not for me;)
Young man, for more than seventy years
I've been an Infant Industry.

"Your father rued my helpless lot,
Lifelong he handed me his fee
Nor ever asked himself for what;
He *loved* an Infant Industry."

Quoth I, "He paid my ransom then
From further tribute, small or great;
Besides, if I can judge of men,
Since that, you've grown to man's estate."

He murmured, as I bowed him out,
"The world is getting worse and worse;
This fellow almost makes me doubt
Whether I've not been changed at nurse.

"But no, this hat, this cane, these boots,
This suit in London made by P.,
Convince me to the very roots
I am an Infant Industry."

Until he vanished from my sight
These words came floating back to me:
"Yes, 'spite of Time, in Reason's spite,
I *am* an Infant Industry!"

F. DE T.

GOVERNMENT AND TARIFF IN CANADA.

OTTAWA, April 3, 1890.

EARLY spring is the most unattractive time of the year in Ottawa. The clean hard snow of winter gives place to a slush containing in a thin stratum a season's accumulation of refuse. The city is at no time handsome, and is now untidy and confused; the country about is rusty; and from the towers of the Parliament buildings one sees little but sombre forests and dark rivers. In striking contrast are the Government buildings, grouped about the trim terrace, with its Parliamentary cricket-ground for late summer sessions; there is about them an air of British solidity and British comfort, and the most recent department building is a beautiful example of the Romanesque as applied to public purposes. Perhaps the contrast between the capital and the Capitol is not an unapt parallel to the social and political condition of the Dominion of Canada. On the one hand, the rawness of a new organization; on the other hand, a government of extraordinary precision and smoothness of operation. One cannot rid one's self of the feeling of incongruity.

The unfamiliarity of Americans with Canada is astonishing. Many thousands of us every year pass down the St. Lawrence, admire Montreal, and enter Brittany or Languedoc through the gates of Quebec; but we are hardly more ignorant of the institutions of Mexico than of those of a neighbor having thirty-five hundred miles of common boundary and a reciprocal annual trade with us of nearly forty millions. This ignorance is the more unfortunate because the Canada of 1890 in many respects closely resembles the United States of 1820. The population is, to be sure, much less, being but 5,000,000 against the 10,000,000 shown by the census of 1820; but the Canadian cities are in numbers and wealth greater than the American cities of that time. Territorially the comparison is very close. Canada has both well-organized provinces and dependent but reckless and insubordinate territories. Immense quantities of wild land still exist throughout the Dominion, and stimulate immigration and a large sense of future development. As I have watched the operation of the Government, I have even seemed to discover a division into sections not unlike that at the time of the Missouri Compromise. The maritime provinces occupy in Canadian politics much the same commercial position that New England had; Quebec, with its unique traditions and its fiery race of statesmen, resembles the South in American politics; Ontario well represents the Middle States; and Manitoba and the Territories stand for the West. The parallel is by no means fanciful. No one who looks about him in Canada can fail to see that it is a sinewy young nation, in spirit very like the early United States. The same imperfect but increasing consciousness of a place in the future history of the world animates it. The same questions arise of the development of a Federal system. The parallel is most striking in commercial and financial matters. Just now Parliament is engaged upon the tariff, and the discussion of that question is especially instructive to us; for the so-called national policy of Canada seems to be nothing more nor less than Clay's American system applied under very similar conditions.

Nevertheless, the machinery by which legislation is secured is so different from ours that it is difficult to recognize the familiar principles and arguments. Within, as without, the Parliament buildings singularly combine beauty with adaptation to their purposes: the corridors, the committee-rooms, are less magnificent than those in the Capitol at Washington, but are decidedly more convenient, and the chambers of the Senate and House of Commons are models of lightness and solidity. The Canadians understand the art of public building better than their southern neighbors. The people of Quebec, for instance, shake their heads over the three millions put into their new Provincial Parliament buildings; but for that three millions they have a Capitol far surpassing in effect the Albany State House. One of the most attractive parts of the Houses of Parliament at Ottawa is the library, housed in a most beautiful domed room and carefully arranged as a Parliamentary workshop of books. Even here one is met by the dual languages: two librarians in two offices are equally courteous, but one in French and the other in English. It is almost the same in the House of Commons: there is not only a division into parties, but each party has a French wing and an English wing, and occasionally speeches are delivered in French. So far as I can judge from observation and conversation with members, there is a higher standard of experience and public spirit among the members of Parliament than among members of our State legislatures or of Congress. Changes are less frequent—eight members of the present Parliament have sat since confederation in 1867. Several of the younger members are pointed out to me as sons of former members, and practical inheritors of their seats. I might have thought it aristocratic, but for remembering the Pennsylvania Camerons.

Certainly a far greater share of the time of the members is devoted to the public business. One member of the House and of the Ministry does, indeed, complain that the death of a collector in his district has brought upon him a series of deputations of constituents seeking the vacant office. The patronage, he says, is the most disagreeable incident of the office; but it is fortunately confined to a very few classes of officials, and vacancies are not created by any artificial means. Of the Senate it is not possible to form a judgment, inasmuch as that respectable body has adjourned for lack of business; there seems to be a general feeling, however, that the appointive life Senate is the weakest and least satisfactory part of the Government. The presence of the two houses, and of a permanent staff of officials, brings to Ottawa a very agreeable society, again suggesting Washington in 1820. The official receptions of the Governor-General and of the Prime Minister can be more general in a small capital; and the private hospitality among the people and toward visitors is most easy and delightful.

The Prime Minister is, however, "at home" rather in the House of Commons, of which he has been the recognized leader as Prime Minister during eighteen of the twenty-three years of its existence. "Sir John," as he is universally called—there is no need of adding Macdonald—and the rest of the Ministry occupy the first row of desks on the right of the Speaker. Mr. Mackenzie, the former Liberal Premier, Mr. Laurier, the nominal leader, and Mr. Blake, the actual leader of the Liberal party, with their followers, sit opposite them. The Speaker, in gown and white gloves, sits under his canopy between. In this arrangement, and in the occasional wearing of the hat during the sitting, the outward resemblance to the British House of Commons ceases. Members lounge in and out and read the newspapers or write letters during the session, as in Washington. In the procedure one at once recognizes a different system. It is not the frequent use of the "Honorable Member" or the "Right Honorable Member" so much as the formal questions put to the Minister and the courteous references to the "Government," which mark the outward side of responsible government. In the delicate and somewhat opinionated face of Sir John one reads the conscious enjoyment of power; but his manner is singularly quiet and almost deferential. The Ministry as a whole seems to me equal in ability and superior in debating power to most presidential cabinets, and well it may be: every member is an experienced Parliamentarian, and must be able to defend his department and his party on the floor; and many of the thirteen Ministers have seen years of executive service. A good Minister, so long as he holds his seat in Parliament, is likely to continue in office, or to be transferred to a more important department.

The present stage of the tariff debate does not bring out the leaders. I have been, therefore, quite as much interested in the Railroad Committee, one of the great organizations for preparing legislation. Imagine a body of about one hundred—one-half the whole House—in informal session, at a time and place announced by public notice, to consider a specified bill. Any person interested may be heard, and the interests of the railroads are represented by counsel. The question is considered on its me-

rits, without any application of rules; each clause of the bill is read and voted on, and the final decision of the Committee is taken by a public yea-and-nay vote. If a proposition is clearly not supported, it is simply not reported to the House; should it be reported, the later debate is upon details. Such is the simple, effective, and public process of sifting measures in great committees. Of course no bill can be reported against which the Ministry protest. The Prime Minister is present, but does not commit the Ministry to or against a proposition unless it clearly affects great lines of policy.

This elasticity is characteristic of responsible government, and greatly facilitates legislation. Party lines are not drawn on unimportant questions. There is little manœuvring for position and "putting the other party in a hole"; but when the Ministry adopts a policy, its supporters must follow, or cause the downfall of the Administration. To an outsider there seems very little contrast between the Conservatives and the Liberals. On questions of individual rights, of the public service, there seems no essential difference. There is, however, a strong antagonism on commercial questions. Here again the Liberals have had to yield to the clamor for State assistance to railroads, but they are now standing out with all their power against the tariff policy of the Government.

The political development of Canada was so slow that an independent financial and commercial policy was not possible till after 1846 and the adoption of free trade by England. To Canada then, as to the young United States a century ago, the policy of revenue duties on imports seemed the only feasible one. When, therefore, power was given the Confederation in 1867 to lay such duties as it might see fit, there was no expectation of a protective tariff. The reciprocity treaty with the United States had just expired, and the policy of the Canadian Government was to renew it. On both sides of the line came a change of policy; the *Alabama* controversy prevented negotiation; the fishery difficulty was unsettled; the war tariff continued in the United States, thus shutting out many Canadian exports. Canada herself began to lay high revenue duties, eventually rising to a maximum of 25 per cent. and looking towards the establishment of manufactures. This was the so-called "national policy"; it seems to me in essence like the countervailing legislation of the United States from 1815 to 1830. After 1878, the duties were gradually increased, and the present Canadian tariff in many respects approximates to that of the United States. There is even a duty on books.

The present state of the tariff discussion in the United States, and the recurring fishery troubles, have persuaded the Conservative Ministry that there is no immediate hope of any reciprocal arrangement; and a new tariff is now proposed by the Ministry, and will doubtless pass. It embodies two principles: an increase of duties, and duties on American food products. Like the United States in 1824, an agricultural country is trying to establish itself in home manufactures. Unlike the United States at the same time, it cuts off those articles of food which may advantageously be imported. It is a return to the Corn Laws. At the same moment Congress is legislating against the agricultural products which Canada is well situated to produce. Mr. C. C. Colby, President of the Privy Council, an American by birth, and held to be one of the most sincere and intelligent of Canadian statesmen, voices the policy of the Government thus: "Free trade between Canada and the United States, in all agricultural products, would be the worst possible thing that could happen to the farmers of Canada at the present time." Of course objections pour in from lumbermen and fishermen who have long depended on certain preferred American imports; but the country is committed to the doctrine of all-round protection. The probability that the United States will still further discriminate against Canadian products is foreseen and accepted. The vigorous protests of the Liberals are based upon the unfortunately selected ground that their country, especially Ontario, is retrograding, and has fallen behind her neighbors.

The effect of this double retaliatory policy upon both sides of the line is not difficult to predict. The United States will lose the custom of Canada, and must deny herself valuable imports from Canada. The friendly relations which ought to exist between two neighboring countries, so nearly alike in tradition and interests, are more and more strained. For this unfortunate result the United States is primarily responsible, by its long refusal to cultivate advantageous trade with Canada; but the United States will suffer far less in a struggle of tariff against tariff. Canada is essentially a poor country. There are thousands of industrious people, but not one good farm-house visible from the railroad between Quebec and Ottawa, three hundred miles. The average wealth of the nation is certainly much below that of the United States, and the debt is proportionately much greater. Enterprise it has, Gallic spirit and Anglo-Saxon tenacity—otherwise the country would have remained a wilderness. But the sun must shine as warmly on the Saskatchewan as on the Mississippi, and the corn must ripen in Manitoba as it does in Illinois, before Canada can support a manufacturing population to compete with that of the United States.

ALBERT BUSHNELL HART.

FROM THE CAPE TO ST. HELENA.

SAINT HELENA, February 20, 1890.

AT last the old *Pensacola* finds herself again in the roads of St. Helena, where she dropped anchor this morning about eight, in the little bay of Jamestown in the northwest of the island. I say again, because she has been here once before at least—on the way home from the Asiatic Squadron six or seven years ago. Jamestown has changed but little in the interval, and the change has been that of decline rather than progress. But more of that another time. Our voyage from the Cape took just a fortnight under sail—life at sea with ideal conditions.

I do not now recall whether in a previous letter I alluded to the signal service rendered the Expedition by Dr. David Gill, the Astronomer Royal at the Cape. But even if I did, it should again be mentioned here, embracing as it did courtesies and facilities nowhere else extended to the scientific staff or any of its members. Ample rooms at the Observatory were assigned for the work of the Expedition; the magnetic instruments were mounted in small tents in the Observatory grounds; and Mr. Preston set the Peirce pendulums swinging only a few feet removed from the precise spot occupied by the pendulum-observers, Foster and Sabine, a half-century ago. Both H. M. Astronomer and Mrs. Gill have the warmest thanks of the officers of the *Pensacola* and the Expedition for their unfailing hospitality during our sojourn at the Cape.

Before leaving the Observatory, opportunity offered, by the kindness of Dr. Gill and Mr. Woods, for testing one of the large lenses furnished the Expedition by the Gundlach Optical Company for photographing the sun's corona. It is a lens of unusual purity, and was made from the new Jena glass. The test was made upon the Orion stars, in work similar to that which Dr. Gill is now conducting as the photographic extension of Argelander's 'Durchmusterung' to the south pole of the heavens. The performance of the lens showed qualities quite remarkable, both as to the extent of its photographic field and the rapidity of its action. More the pity that it should have had no chance at the corona at Cape Ledo.

The resources of the excellent library at the Cape Observatory were freely and gladly drawn upon by Professor Bigelow, who spent nearly all his time there, hard at work upon the theoretic researches upon the corona and terrestrial magnetism, the beginnings of which are outlined in his paper already published by the Smithsonian Institution. To say much about this work as yet would, perhaps, be premature; but if the key to the solution of the complex phenomena of the corona and terrestrial magnetism has not actually been found, it surely looks strongly that way.

Among the great variety of works undertaken by Prof. Abbe at the Cape was an attempt to interest the scientific gentlemen of the Colony and the colonial authorities in the formation and permanent establishment of a weather service on the model of those already in efficient operation in Europe, America, Japan, and elsewhere. To this end, one meeting of the South African Philosophical Society was quite given over to Prof. Abbe, who delivered an address on the modern weather service, which the Society is printing. Meteorological observations have, of course, been made for years at a number of colonial stations, under the superintendence of Dr. Gill, and the time may not yet be ripe for that amplification of the service which the organization of systematic weather predictions would entail. However, the seeds at least have been sown; it remains to be seen in what sort of ground.

I dare say the idea of a Philosophical Society in the south of Africa will strike most Americans as no less an incongruity than the idea of a Philosophical Society in Idaho or the Indian Territory would the average Bostonian. As I may presume that a few facts about it will find a welcome place in the *Nation*, I will say that (1) there is such a society, (2) its membership is about one hundred, (3) it publishes an excellent series of transactions now printing in the fifth volume. The Society was founded by the Right Hon. Sir Bartle Frere, F.R.S., nearly fifteen years ago, and he became its first President. The office cannot be held by the same person longer than two years, and the successors of the founder have been Dr. Gill, Mr. J. G. Gamble, Roland Trimen, Esq., F.R.S., and Prof. P. MacOwan, F.L.S., the present Director of the Botanical Gardens and Curator of the Cape Government Herbarium. He is a thorough botanist, and probably the only person living in the Colony capable of completing the Flora Capensis, which, if not done now, must likely lie over for another generation. It would seem appropriate that the Government should relieve him of such part of the current routine as others might well perform, in order that he might complete the task of the remaining volumes, and bring the rich flora of the south of Africa within reach of the world.

But I was going on to say that, glancing through the fascicules of the transactions of the Philosophical Society of South Africa, I see at random such papers as the following:

On continuous girders, arched ribs, and tension circles; some observations on witchcraft in Basutoland; on the limestones, granites, and gneiss of the Colony; on the stone implements of South Africa; on free rigid rotation, summer and winter temperature in South Africa; note on *Tinea vastella* (a South African moth whose larva feeds on horn); contributions to the South African coleopterous fauna; a great variety of philological notes; and 'The Orchids of the Cape Peninsula,' the last a masterly work of about 200 pages, finely printed, with thirty or forty partly colored plates, and which compares very favorably with European contributions to orchidology.

At the Cape it was next to impossible to hold the Expedition together; in fact, no attempt was made to do so. All were free to pursue the lines most agreeable. One detachment proceeded at an early day to Kimberley, six or seven hundred miles into the interior, to investigate the diamond fields and report upon present methods of separating the stones from the "blue" or diamondiferous rock-earth. Many specimens were obtained for the National Museum. The Expedition is greatly indebted to Mr. A. Difford, Secretary of the Department of the Cape Government Railway, for numerous courtesies.

The naturalists found much to interest them and to occupy their time to the full. Collections were prosecuted along various lines. The members of the Philosophical Society, knowing well the fauna and flora of the colony, were able to give much assistance and advice, and they have the best thanks of the Expedition for the services they so willingly rendered. In particular the Expedition is indebted to the Rev. G. H. R. Fisk for a very valuable collection of tortoises, embracing *Testudo pardalis*, *T. angulata*, *T. trimeni*, and *T. tentoria; Homopus areolatus*, *H. femoralis*, and *H. signatus* (the representative of these last being very rare away from the Cape), and forming a perfect series of the South African *Homopus*. If I do not mistake, complete series have heretofore been presented to the French zoölogists and to the British Museum alone; but some of them arrived only in alcohol. We may have better luck with our own, as they have so far done well at sea, and will, I hope, reach their Washington quarters alive.

Both naturalist and anthropologist found the outlook so promising in the Colony that they applied for discharge from the Expedition there, in order to continue their work in the Cape peninsula. The opportunities were, indeed, rare. A great exploring expedition was about organizing under the auspices of the English syndicate to which the King of the Matabele has granted unusual privileges and concessions; and Mr. Brown, the naturalist, will accompany this expedition in an official capacity. The region has for the most part been untravelled by white men, and is represented as very rich in material for naturalist and anthropologist, especially the latter. I think I have not previously alluded to the anthropological work of the Expedition in Angola, which might have been better had our stay been longer. Physical measurements were made of the Umbundus, Cabindas, Bailundas, Quissamas, and others. Collections of folk-lore and mind-products were attended to, and materials for a general study of fetishes obtained. Also, the manual of the British Society was taken as a guide in gathering information about a great variety of subjects which I need not detail here.

Our reception at Saint Helena has been very warm, and the *Pensacola* is evidently very welcome. Gov. Grey-Wilson some months ago, acting on the information very wrongly given in Whitaker to the effect that last December's eclipse would be total at Saint Helena, most courteously offered the American Expedition the civilities and hospitality of the island for an observing station—an offer which we are most sorry that celestial circumstances over which we had no control prevented our accepting; the more so now that we have seen what a charming region the interior of Saint Helena really is—so different from the forbidding cliffs which continually frown above Jamestown. The Governor is now temporarily absent in London; but the Expedition has found no want unsupplied, the Acting Governor, Mr. Antrobus, having cordially afforded all possible attentions which might in any wise serve to facilitate our work. Mr. Preston and Prof. Bigelow are confined every night with the pendulum-work at the Castle, where excellent surroundings are commanded. Prof. Abbe is roaming over the island, barometer in hand. After a week or more, a secondary gravity-station will be established at Longwood, not far from the spot where Napoleon lived and died. By the 10th of March the *Pensacola* will have sailed for Ascension—a week's voyage by the trades nearly directly northwest.

DAVID P. TODD.

Correspondence.

MR. HAMERTON AND LONDON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I perceive that by a slip in your notice of the *Portfolio* I am made to say that I never lived in *England* for more than three months at a time. The passage incorrectly quoted said that I had never lived in *London* for more than that space at a time, which is quite bad enough without exaggerating it, and gives an arm against me to the very few enemies I have. The truth is, that London never suited my health. However, I made rather a long stay there (for me) towards the close of last year, and bore it much better than might have been expected. The climate of Autun is severe in its extremes of heat and cold, and is said to kill off delicate people quickly, yet, for some reason that nobody can explain, it suits me better than any other. I am not what is called delicate, though unable to endure for long the noise and atmosphere of London.

Sincerely yours, P. G. HAMERTON.

AUTUN, April 9, 1890.

"A LITTLE STORY ABOUT ORES."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Yesterday a friend called my attention to your editorial of April 17 under this heading, which, following a letter entitled "A Nickel Paradox" addressed last month by "W." to the *Nation*, states that I am now striving to have nickel ores put upon the free list.

To this totally fallacious statement you add other fallacies; and since the whole is intended to injure not me alone, but also and principally the system of protection to home industry, I thus reply:

(1.) You say that I openly confessed that I had fixed a former tariff to suit myself, and that I have again, with Mr. McKinley's coöperation, fixed the now proposed tariff. If I had fixed a tariff to suit myself, and had mentioned it, I should have *stated* it like a man, and not *confessed* it like a thief; but I never fixed a tariff to suit myself nor made any such avowal.

(a.) The existing tariff on nickel, nickel ores, nickel alloys, etc., which is doubtless the tariff you mean, I have always held to be grossly absurd.

(b.) Mr. McKinley and his Committee refuse to adopt the rates which I have recommended, and adopt others which I oppose.

The phraseology of the existing tariff law, defining the several forms in which nickel may be imported, is that which I suggested; the rates are not.

(2.) You say "it was stated on the floor of the United States Senate in January, 1883," that I was producing nickel "at 50 to 70 cents per pound," and with touching credulity you offer this partisan statement "on the floor of the Senate" as conclusive, though it was made by a man entirely ignorant of the business, and was in fact false.

You say that "by the efforts of the Connecticut Senators," the nickel duties "were reduced in 1883 from 30 cents on the ore and 20 cents on the alloys of nickel to the existing rates of 15 cents." This is erroneous. There never was a duty of 30 cents on the ore, but that rate was on the finished metal nickel, as even a Connecticut Senator could have told you, and the reduction to 15 cents in 1883 was apparently effected by an unworthy trick which its author will scarcely thank you for bringing into notice. The Conference Committee had before it for reconciliation the rate of 25 cents per pound on nickel which had been passed by one house, and the rate of 20 cents which had been passed by the other house; it reported neither of those rates, nor anything between them, but a new rate discordant with and beyond the limits of both. In the turmoil of final passage, this insult to both houses, which you attribute, perhaps justly, to "the efforts of the Connecticut Senators," was unnoticed, and the trick succeeded. Furthermore, in their ignorance or negligence, or urged "by the efforts of the Connecticut Senators," that Committee fixed one and the same rate of duty, namely, 15 cents per pound, on nickel in ore, nickel in matte, and refined metallic nickel. And this is the outrageous absurdity which you have been led to believe I "fixed to suit myself."

(3.) You say that so long as it was possible for him to work his Lancaster County mine, "Mr. Wharton wanted the highest possible tariff on the importation of all competing ores," but that he now, "so far as nickel ores are concerned, has become a rampant free-trader."

Having explained above that the existing absurdly high duty on nickel ore was not my work or wish, I now add that I have never suggested or desired that nickel ore should enter free of duty. In all my oral or written communications to the Ways and Means Committee, I have taken the ground that nickel ore should pay duty. This not only because of the injury that free importations might cause to my own mine in Lancaster County, Penn. (which you may regret to learn is still working, and has been working without a day's interruption except Sundays for many years, and is now being sunk to greater depth), but also because of the discouragement to other owners of American nickel deposits who wish them opened. The Canadian mines near Sudbury, which, in your large liberality, you call "American," are certainly good. I have more than once visited that region, have used its ores and mattes, have had many offers of nickel deposits there, and think seriously of opening mines there for the purpose of supplying in part my nickel works at Camden, N. J.; yet I have constant-

ly resisted the contention that the ores or mattes of Canada or of any other foreign country should enter our country free.

The Cleveland *Iron Trade Review* says: "Nickel ore is to come in free, under the new tariff bill, according to reports. This will please Mr. S. J. Ritchie and his Ohio stockholders in the Sudbury nickel and copper mines of Canada." Here you have the source of the clamor for duty-free nickel ore which I have in vain resisted. It is said that Senator Sherman is one of the owners of the Sudbury mines with Mr. Ritchie and other Ohio men, and that he is their advocate at Washington. This I cannot, of course, assert.

(4.) You say that I published a pamphlet setting forth in the strongest terms the benefits to arise from complete reciprocity of trade between the United States and Canada, but, that event being distant, I initiated the good work by persuading the Ways and Means Committee to remove the duty on Canadian nickel ores. Now, the pamphlet you allude to was, unfortunately for your argument, put out in 1879, several years before nickel ore was known to exist at Sudbury, and was simply an "Address of the Industrial League to its Constituents," a minor feature of which was the suggestion of a Zollverein between this country and Canada. My views are not changed on that subject, except that as the practical difficulties become more apparent of agreeing upon schedules, of harmonizing appraisers owing different allegiance, and of dividing joint revenue, I have come to prefer absolute political union with Canada to any half-way measure.

(5.) You expect me to show consistency by having an amendment offered to the McKinley bill putting iron ore and copper ore on the free list, because you assume, erroneously as I have shown, that I have labored to put nickel ore on the free list. It would be much to my advantage if iron ore were free, and it appeared to me quite unfair in 1883 to raise the duty on iron ore while lowering the duties on all its products; yet I have always refused to join any movement for removing the duty on iron ore, thinking that national welfare calls for the development of our own ores, and that miners merit a share of the ruling tariff protection. As for copper ores, it is not for me to speak upon a subject which is so much better understood by other men.

(6.) You say that the 15 cents per pound now levied on nickel in ore equals 35 per cent. ad valorem. This is erroneous, for 15 cents per pound on nickel in ore equals, not 35 per cent., but about 450 per cent., as I proceed to show.

The Sudbury ore, the only foreign nickel ore ever brought into this country, except a few sample casks from New Caledonia, can be put on cars at mines for about $3 per ton of 2,240 pounds, and it contains by average about 4 per cent. of nickel, or 90 pounds of nickel per ton. The duty on that 90 pounds is 15 cents per pound, or $13.50, which is 450 per cent., supposing the nickel to be the sole value in that $3 ore. But, in fact, the ore usually contains about twice as much copper as nickel, and the nickel cannot therefore be reckoned as worth $3, unless by marking up profit; so that the duty on nickel ore is even higher than 450 per cent.

(7.) You assume that the United States Mint suffers under the extortions of an American nickel monopolist. Passing by my demonstration, in the little treatise from which you quote, that tariff-ridden America has bought its nickel for coinage much lower than free-trade (in nickel) Germany bought its nickel for coinage, I point out to you that the United States Mint buys its supplies from the lowest bidder after due advertisement; that it has frequently bought foreign nickel, and that it now has on hand a large quantity of nickel copper-coin blanks made of foreign nickel. It is safe to say that no one ever did or ever will grow rich by supplying nickel to the United States Mint.

To conclude: There is probably no article in the tariff schedule which affords to the free-traders more frequent temporary enjoyment than does nickel. They do not understand it, but they feel sure that there is some deep iniquity connected with it, because they suppose that I am wealthy, and they assume that my supposititious income is derived from making nickel, though my total gross annual sales of it are but $150,000. I am alone in the business, because no one else dares encounter its difficulties, and no one ever speaks in my behalf. Therefore, from time to time, some hot "little barking creature," to use again my own words, which you seem to find attractive, jumps in to attack me, thinking that here is a safe chance to show valor. Occasionally, if I condescend to notice him, he retires more or less sadly, with broken teeth, from his enterprise.

JOSEPH WHARTON.

PHILADELPHIA, April 23, 1890.

[We frankly apologize to Mr. Wharton for the misrepresentations into which we have been led concerning his attitude towards the duty on nickel ore and concerning his mining industry. If we return to the subject of his letter, it will not be for the sake of excusing ourselves in these particulars.—ED. NATION.]

INFANTS' FOOD VS. INFANT INDUSTRIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In one of your recent numbers you call attention to the duty on milk-sugar, and speak of it as chiefly used in homœopathic pills. Have you not overlooked another and more important use which clearly points to the propriety of making it free—namely, in the preparation of cow's milk for infants not nourished by their mothers? It is surely bad statesmanship to tax a substance of such importance in the feeding of infants, while they die yearly by the tens of thousands simply from improper food. Humanity calls upon us to do all we can to save the infants and let the industry take care of itself. J. A. JEFFRIES, M.D.

BOSTON, April 25, 1890.

A SIDE LIGHT ON GREEK ART.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I should differ with M. Reinach on any archæological question with the greatest diffidence, if I differed at all, and I will not maintain against his opinion that the groups of statuettes I alluded to in a former letter are made at Smyrna. My information at Athens was that they had been sent from Smyrna, and were seized at Peiræus on account of the irregularity of their consignment leading to their being examined. It is immaterial to the point at issue whether they are made at Smyrna or Athens, but the same search which could disclose no evidence of their production at the former place was equally unsuccessful at the latter. We know where the Tanagra figurines come from, and we are equally sure of those of Myrina, Megara, Taranto, etc., and an expert has no difficulty in telling the origin of any individual case of either variety; but the provenance of these groups of several large figures is a mystery which could not have been so long preserved in the case of any possible excavations. M. Reinach has conducted one of the very few systematic and scientifically correct excavations of the cemeteries which render these works of antique art, and is therefore in a position to give an authoritative opinion of a peculiar and exceptional value, on grounds which no simple dealer in them can ever acquire, to say nothing of his complete archæological education, in which advantage his only rival among the dealers is Prof. Roussopoulos of Athens, whose judgment on the groups is the same as M. Reinach's. When last in Athens, I saw at the Professor's house one of the counterfeits which he had bought for 300 francs, knowing it to be a counterfeit (as did the seller), and desiring to have it as an example of the degree to which the imitation had been carried and as a lesson to intending purchasers. If it had been genuine, it would have sold readily for 2,000 francs. But it must not be supposed that these forgeries have in all cases caught the spirit of Greek art so well that they have an intrinsic value as art, for some of them are so bad that they would be almost worthless if genuine, and are quite so as imitations.

It would be quite impossible for the most dexterous contrabandist to carry on excavations of magnitude sufficient to supply the immense number of these questionable statuettes (which are not all or nearly all groups) without coming under the knowledge of the local authorities; for the region from which they can be derived is limited. The production has been going on for years and in great numbers. I am told that at Rome a single American gentleman was victimized several years ago to the tune of $15,000 by a well-known Athenian dealer, to whom most of the doubtful (not to beg the question of authenticity) examples can be traced. Perhaps the facility with which they are exported from the place of origin (be it Asia Minor or Athens) is explained by the proofs that might be afforded to the Custom-house officers of the modern character of the articles. It would otherwise be extremely difficult for the dealer in question to carry on such extensive operations as we know to have taken place without being caught, and, so far as I know, the case M. Reinach alludes to is the only one in which this was the case. At Athens or Peiræus it would be impossible even to do this, but I am informed that the exportation, when from Greece, takes place from the Gulf of Corinth, probably from Patras. The Greek Custom-house officers at Peiræus are very rigorous, and not, as a rule, accessible to bribery, and a systematic corruption would certainly be discovered in three months, for, under the regimen of Tricoupis, it is hunted very closely, and the responsible heads of the Custom-house at Peiræus are incorruptible.

I think M. Reinach is unjust to the Greek Government. The law punishes any one who sells a counterfeit antique as genuine, and imposes a fine, besides obliging the seller to return the price; and the Greeks are opposed to the counterfeiting, as it diminishes the value of their own collections by making the objects common. They do not regard it as a real good fortune that the strangers are put off with forgeries, and the fact is that the greater part by far of the sales are effected out of Greece, at Rome, Berlin, Paris, etc., etc., and numbers of them are in the hands of dealers who naturally make a great outcry over the impeachment of the genuineness of the works. But as there are thousands of dollars annually expended by American amateurs in such matters, it is well to insist on the fact that the greater part of the

figurines sold as of Asia Minor and Tanagra are forgeries; and from many years' experience in those regions I feel justified in saying that the only dealers who can be trusted in Athens are Roussopoulos and the brothers Dracopoulos. The Americans who go to Athens will buy and can always carry away small objects, but they must not trust to their wits or to local guarantees, which are worth nothing.

The same system of counterfeiting extends to coins, and I am told that an American physician who makes a specialty of coins relating to Æsculapius is able to obtain new, and often unique, specimens as often as he goes to Athens. The facilities for the fabrication of the forgeries are very great, and the British Museum, with its facsimiles, adds to the security. It is profitable for the dealers in antiquities, who, with occasional exceptions, are people without scruple or moderation, to keep up the system of counterfeiting as offering extraordinary profits and no risk, for the demonstration of the falsity of a piece is impossible, as resting on personal opinions which the customer cannot control or determine the value of. If the counterfeits were made in accordance with the motives of good Greek art, no one would be injured by them any more than by copies of Raphael; but when they are only superficially in agreement, and have nothing but the most non-essential qualities of it, they only perplex and bewilder the student. Good, authentic copies are easily to be had, and, as far as their artistic value goes, are as good as the originals; but when it comes to drawing conclusions on Greek art from forged material, I must say that it is worse than forging wills or bank-notes.—Yours truly, W. J. STILLMAN.

ROME, April 8, 1890.

A NEEDED REFORM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me through your columns to call attention to a branch of the public service which in my opinion needs complete reorganization on business principles. I refer to our consular service. As the law now stands, the principal duty of a consular officer is the legalization of invoices. Every business man in New York, as well as every appraising officer, will, for reasons satisfactory to himself, bear me out in the statement that this consular legalization, except in isolated cases, is an empty farce and a disgrace to our national intelligence. In most consulates the consul reaps a petty political reward—paid from the pockets of American consumers—by reading newspapers or absenting himself from his office, while the vice-consul, an overworked, shabby, and half-starved-looking patriot, as fast as they come in, certifies over his seal and signature to the accuracy of the prices quoted on a score of invoices, on whose contents we collect an *ad-valorem duty*.

The conscientious consul (and perhaps there are a half-dozen such on the Continent, the most eminent among them being the present Consul-General at Berlin) labors under three disadvantages:

(1.) He is not allowed to stay in office long enough to become a real expert in the lines of goods shipped from his district.

(2.) His efforts are completely negatived, through a lack of uniform system, by his ignorant, negligent, or criminal colleagues.

(3.) No evidence, however complete, if furnished by him, receives any consideration from customs officials. This is due either to the prevailing idea as to the worthlessness of consular corrections, a complete antagonism between our consular and customs services, or to the jealousy of dishonest sub-appraisers who do not like light thrown on what they consider their "private snap."

Under existing circumstances it is not unnatural that men, appointed for political reasons and not from fitness or experience, who know that they are not standing on their own merits, but are dependent on influence in Washington, yield to the temptation to enjoy their "holiday abroad," to draw their salaries in full whether present or absent, to forget the serious duties which they have theoretically been sent to perform, and to heap as much as possible on the aching shoulders of the poor vice-consul, who, in many cases, is compelled to give his superior officer a receipt for more salary than he receives.

Is this not a sad picture of the present state of an honorable branch of the national service? And yet every shade and color of it is true to life. The present system has been given every chance. Consulates have sprung up at every trade centre, and naturally the consul has been looked upon as a spy by the people among whom he lives. In Saxony alone (and it is about as large as Connecticut) there are at present *six consulates*. What wonder that the dignity of the service has been debased?

But the remedy? Ask any business man, honest or dishonest. Ask any man, woman, or child who can think. The law as it stands, in defence of an ad-valorem tariff, sends little men on little salaries to every trade centre in Europe to do a work which, with a few honorable exceptions, they either cannot or will not do. The law contemplates coöperation between the consular and customs services. Instead there is antagonism and ill will for which, I must admit, appraising officers are almost entirely to blame. The remedy? *Specific duty*. The result? The complete doing away with consular authentication of invoices, the suppressing of four-fifths of the useless consulates now in existence, the raising of the tone of the consular service by placing it on a permanent footing and making it a training school for the diplomatic service, and last—but not least—the reduction of fraud to a minimum in the New York Custom-house.

H. G. VAUGHAN.

HOTEL BELLEVUE, DRESDEN, April 14, 1890.

GEN. GRANT'S SCOTCH DEFAMER ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Abusing all decent credibility, and palming off malice for facts, Sir William Fraser, as I pointed out some weeks ago, has thought fit to represent Gen. Grant as an ignoramus of the grossest, and a braggart nothing short of fatuous. This yelping at the heels of a dead lion will, with many over here, doubtless redound to the credit of the yelper; and so, doubtless, will the commentary on his unseemly detraction with which he has just been suffered to soil the pages of *Notes and Queries*. On that commentary I would be allowed to offer a few remarks.

In a former letter I rehearsed, on Sir William Fraser's unsubstantiated warrant, two anecdotes, each of them turning on a question said to have been addressed by Gen. Grant to the late Duke of Wellington. The Duke, on being interrogated touching the first anecdote, knew nothing about it, we are told by his self-styled interrogator, and went on to relate something wholly different, except in being injurious to the General, as what "happened." So much we learn from the anecdotist's 'Words on Wellington.'

The question which, it is there asserted, was new to the Duke was: "My Lord, I have heard that your father was a military man. Was that the case?" But, on recent reflection, succeeding professed investigation, Sir William Fraser is not satisfied that we therein have a fiction. His amended conclusion is, that "the Duke had forgotten the first story, or perhaps had not heard the inquiry." Thus, the second story, the one alleged to have been told by the Duke, and told by him as a substitute for the first, being accepted, though no longer as a substitute, but as independent, the Duke's memory is, in one instance, arbitrarily relied on, but, in another instance, arbitrarily refused reliance. Wholly at variance with this is what is found in 'Words on Wellington,' where it is distinctly implied, as regards the first story, after it had wrought the harm for which it was intended, that, "in the interests of truth," it should be set aside as pure invention.

This position surrendered, Sir William Fraser now says, with the imaginative assurance engendered by a sense of *impasse:* "The question so simply put by Gen. Grant caused, no doubt, great merriment." His belief in the tale rests, he confesses, on the faith of a "friend," by whom it was communicated to him. But whether that friend had the tale from another friend, and he from another, and so on indefinitely, till some one is reached who was never with the Duke and the General when they were together, we are left to conjecture. On the whole, until we are better informed, it still seems quite safe to deem the mysterious original informant as having only the sort of entity which attached to Mrs. Harris, in the critical estimation of Betsy Prig. What between his reckoning it a proud thing to cut the comb of an American at all hazards, and the ethical lubricity which has been brought home to him, Sir William Fraser appears to entertain substantially the same notion of a patriot that Sir Henry Wotton entertained of an ambassador, "vir bonus, peregre missus ad mentiendum reipublicæ causa."

Taking it for granted that Gen. Grant really asked the late Duke of Wellington whether his father was a military man, Sir William Fraser speculates that his "intention was to inquire if the first Duke had had a military education. As we should say, 'Was he an Oxford man, or a Christchurch man, or an Eton man?' the Americans, in speaking of a successful general, would say, I presume, 'Was he a West-Point man?'" In more of its acceptations than one, here is a presumption in abundance. Yet the crutch will look strong enough to those for whose inspection it is designed.

Weak argument failing, next there is resort to something even worse: "That any one in possession of his senses ever seriously believed that Gen. Grant had never heard of the Duke of Wellington, is beneath the nadir of human stupidity." That Sir William Fraser, when he wrote his book, must have been traversing an unlucid interval, and must have touched the very bottom of the abyss which he speaks of, is, then, a matter that we may be as certain about as we choose. A Scotchman, unless one out of a host, on retailing a joke, or delivering himself of anything equally recondite, or not altogether as plain as a pikestaff, never fails of supplementing it with an elucidation, which it is a mercy if he does not reiterate to tediousness. It is useless for the anecdotist to deny that he took in their strict literal sense the words attributed to Gen. Grant. So they were taken by the writer of a leading article in the London *Daily News;* and so they would be taken by "any one in possession of his senses"

who was not bent on defending what he knew to be indefensible. Moreover, why should they have "caused, no doubt, great merriment," or any merriment whatever, if, on the assumption of their having been spoken, they had not been understood just as a wriggler has it that they would be understood only by a lunatic?

Sir William Fraser, as he apprises us, conducted Gen. Grant over the Houses of Parliament, but heard from his lips nothing more than "the historical words, 'Sir, I thank you.'" Is this meant for "wut"? "Mr. Comklin [Conkling], who accompanied him, asked a number of questions, all of which, I need not say, showed intelligence and appreciation." To speak of an American, in compliment, much as one would speak of a Zulu or a Maori, is, for a Briton, as many of us are aware from personal experience, well nigh the utmost stretch of conventional courtesy. Sooth to say, the "Yankee" who has to do with his unamiable foreign cousins, if, on the one hand, he is not made a butt by malevolent contempt, and, on the other hand, escapes being patronized superciliously, has reason to account himself exceptionally fortunate.

Your obedient servant,

FITZEDWARD HALL.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, March 30, 1890.

FEAR, IN THE SENSE OF *FEAR FOR.*

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Masson's Life of Milton, vol. ii., p. 81, is a foot-note containing the words, "Doctor Deodate does something fear her"—quoted from a letter of Lady Brilliana, 1638—in which the meaning is evidently "fear for."

Your usually careful correspondent, "F. H.," should have qualified his assertion that this sense of the word has been "overpassed by the lexicographers," since it is noticed by Webster and the Imperial, both giving the same illustration, from Shakspere.

When your correspondent says, "Nowhere, perhaps, but in America, and among the most illiterate Englishmen, does one hear the like of 'I sleep *home*,'" does he mean to fix the stigma of such language upon Americans *as a class*, without regard to the question of education? If so, it would be well to prove the charge by citations from a few Americans who have an acknowledged standing in our literature.

W. H. JOHNSON.

GRANVILLE, O.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS have in press 'Boston Unitarianism,' by Octavius B. Frothingham; 'The Trials of a Country Parson,' by the Rev. Augustus Jessopp; 'Parsifal: Richard Wagner as a Theologian,' by Albert Ross Parsons; 'Maimonides,' an essay by Rabbi Louis Grossmann; 'A Son of Issachar,' by Elbridge S. Brooks; 'The English Novel in the Time of Shakspere,' by J. J. Jusserand; and 'The Othello of Tomaso Salvini,' a study by Edward T. Mason.

A new edition of Trelawny's 'Adventures of a Younger Son' will be published immediately by Macmillan & Co., forming the first volume of "The Adventure Series." The same firm announce a cheap edition, "limited to 100,000 copies," of 'Tom Brown's School Days,' uniform in style with their paper-covered editions of Charles Kingsley's novels.

The 'Economic and Social History of New England (1620–1789),' by William B. Weeden, a work in two volumes, will shortly be published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., along with 'John Jay,' by George Pellew, in the "American Statesman" series; a new edition of the 'Life of Gen. Nathanael Greene,' in three volumes; select 'Tales of New England,' by Sarah Orne Jewett; and 'Liberal Living upon Narrow Means,' by Mrs. Christine Terhune Herrick.

Fords, Howard & Hulbert announce 'Midnight Talks at the Club,' by Amos K. Fiske.

'Corn and Poppies,' a new volume of verse by Mr. Cosmo Monkhouse, perhaps best known to American readers as an art critic, will be published shortly in London by Mr. Elkin Mathews. There will be a large-paper edition, which will contain a frontispiece etched by Mr. William Strang.

Mr. Charles Eyre Pascoe's unconventional guide-book, 'London of To-day' (Boston: Roberts Bros.), reaches with the present year a sixth edition, much rewritten and reillustrated, but keeping well to the old lines of topical arrangement. One would like sectional maps for use in the several walks described, and an index; but this last can hardly be expected in a handbook which refers you to previous editions for details omitted in the latest.

Estes & Lauriat have in press, by arrangement with the author, a translation of Camille Flammarion's 'Urania,' illustrated with half-tone cuts from drawings by eminent French artists.

To the sixth volume of the collected writings of De Quincey (Macmillan) Prof. Masson gives the title of 'Historical Essays and Researches,' arranging the several contributions to *Blackwood* in chronological order, from "Homer and the Homeridæ" to "Cicero" and "The Cæsars" and the "Philosophy of Roman History." They make a homogeneous collection in which learning and speculation are mingled in readable proportions.

'Stage-Land' (of which Henry Holt & Co. have just issued an American edition with illustrations a little reduced in size, but none the worse) we praised when it appeared in London six months ago. It is a very clever skit on the contemporary theatre, written out of the fulness of knowledge, and with a humor easier, more natural, and more effective than that to be found in Mr. Jerome's other books. The illustrations, by the clever young actor who is "Bernard Gould" on the stage and "J. Bernard Partridge" in black and white, are delightful, especially the "Stage Adventuress" and the "Stage Detective."

The third volume of M. Legouvé's 'Comédies et Drames' (Paris: Ollendorff; New York: F. W. Christern) contains "Bataille de Dames," "Une Séparation," "Médée," and "Miss Suzanne." The preface to "Médée," oddly enough, gives no particulars of the author's controversy with Rachel and the Comédie-Française, or of the play's acceptance by Ristori; it was not to be expected that it should refer to the marvellous burlesque of Ristori by F. Robson, or to the English version by Mr. Wills acted by Miss Kate Bateman. The preface to the famous comedy "Bataille de Dames," probably the most frequently acted of M. Legouvé's plays, tells the story of its composition, and shows that Scribe's share in it was less than he usually had in the plays he helped to write.

A new edition of Charles Edmonds's 'Poetry of the *Anti-Jacobin*,' with copious fresh annotations, guesses at authorship, selections from the *Anti-Jacobin Review and Magazine* (the successor of the *Anti-Jacobin*), and other matter, has just been issued by G. P. Putnam's Sons. The illustrations by Gillray are retained, and the general appearance of the work is attractive, in spite of much necessary fine print in the editorial department. The two original indexes to the earlier and the later periodical are reproduced for the sake of showing their essential unity of spirit, and will aid any one to explore further the field in which Canning and his confrères plied their slashing trade.

The vague prospectus of the *Republic Magazine*, begun to be published in April in this city, leaves us in doubt as to the motives of its founders. So far as it fosters the Grand Army of the Republic, or perpetuates the memories of the late war for the sake of political capital, we cannot think it a desirable addition to existing periodicals. Gen. Alger's portrait serves as frontispiece, and a sketch of his life accompanies it.

A biological journal, *Zoe*, was started in March by the Zoe Publishing Co., San Francisco, as a medium for amateurs and working naturalists on the Pacific Coast. Its existence for a year has been guaranteed. The first number is presentable and readable. We may mention the paper on the behavior of birds and other animals during a total eclipse, and that on naturalized plants, in which we read: "It is worth noting that it is to the plant-eradicating sheep, which has wrought such destruction to our native flora, that California probably owes the introduction of its most valuable and abundant forage crops, namely, alfileria, bur-clover, and wild oats, and that all are of Mediterranean origin."

The Duke of Argyll's address before the Scottish Geographical Society on the "Border-Lands between Geology and Geography" is published in the April number of that society's magazine. It treats of the old theory of glacial action in moulding the surface of northern Europe as illustrated by the present condition of Greenland. The Duke argues that the sluggish movement of Greenland's great ice-cap, estimated to be at least 2,000 feet thick and sliding down a slope 15,000 feet high and some 400 miles long in its widest part, is inconsistent with the theory. Were it true, the ice would be thrust out into the sea with irresistible force, ploughing up its depths and filling up its bays and narrow channels. As a matter of fact it does not everywhere reach the shore, the largest mass which succeeds being the Humboldt Glacier, with a frontage of 50 or 60 miles out of a total coast-line of over 3,000. The Duke accordingly sides with those who imagine the submergence of our northern hemisphere during the glacial period, the scratches observed being made by small local glaciers and floating ice. His address is followed by a singularly clear and interesting account of Southern California by Prof. W. G. Blaikie of Edinburgh, with some sound advice for intending immigrants; and a description of the Kanikaras, or Jungle Kings, a native race of Travancore in Southern India.

The principal article in the April Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society is Sir William MacGregor's report of his successful ascent of the Owen Stanley Range in New Guinea. Advantage was taken of a newly discovered river to penetrate some distance into the interior by boat, the rest of the journey being through a trackless jungle and over a succession of mountain ranges, through a country almost devoid of inhabitants. The highest point, near which the expedition camped for two days, was found to be 13,121 feet high, and was apparently partly clothed with grass, in which were daisies, buttercups, forget-me-nots, heather, etc. There were very few birds, the most noteworthy being a lark, and no animals, so far as appears from the report. It was noticeable that none of the natives accompanying the expedition expressed any religious scruples

about the ascent of the highest peak. An admirable map, twenty-three statute miles to an inch, of the country between the Rovuma and Zambesi Rivers is especially interesting, as showing very clearly a part of the territory in dispute between Portugal and Great Britain.

The December number of the *American Journal of Archæology* (Boston: Ginn & Co.) concludes vol. v. The leading papers all relate to Grecian topics, and all but one proceed from the American School at Athens, and have reference to excavations and discoveries. In the always full department of news, notice is taken of Capt. Bötticher's theory that Schliemann's Troy was only a necropolis for incineration, and of Dr. Schliemann's invitation to this sceptic to visit Hissarlik in company with Dr. Dörpfeld, etc. On the 30th of March, in fact, a conference held on the spot declared that there were no traces of incineration of human bodies, and that the plans given in the 'Troja' and 'Ilios' are quite accurate and conformable to the existing state of the uncovered ruins. The signers of this report were the French delegate (an engineer), C. Babin, Frank Calvert, United States Consular Agent, Dr. F. von Duhn of Heidelberg, Dr. Grempler of Breslau, O. Hamdy, Director General of the Imperial Museum at Constantinople, Dr. Carl Humann, Director of the Royal Prussian Museum, Dr. R. Virchow, and Dr. Charles Waldstein. The plates in this number of the *Journal* are, as usual, well executed and interesting.

The London *Bookseller* for April 5 reports the proceedings at the trade dinner of the craft on March 8, and supplies a noteworthy portrait-gallery of the British publishers and authors associated on that occasion.

A premature discussion has been tolerated in the columns of the London *Times* over the coining of a verb to denote electric progression. Several correspondents suggest *trize* (sb. *trice*, as trice-boat), *trise*, *trice*, or *triss;* one proposes *trek*, another *mote*, another *lect*, another *circuit*, another *tim* or *loc* (from Timæus of Locri), etc. Most sensible, to our thinking, is he who thinks *go* sufficient for the present. In this country and State we observe a journalistic uneasiness caused by the substitution of electricity for the rope in putting an end to criminals; and as if *execution* did not cover all possible modes, *electrocution* is invented without a blush.

On March 15 the *Revista de España* resumed publication after suspension for about a year. Protracted litigation over the ownership of the magazine was the cause of the trouble, but Antonio Leiva has now been legally reinstated in his rights as proprietor, and proposes to add new years to the splendid history of the *Revista*. He will undoubtedly find a formidable competitor for public favor in the new *España Moderna*, now entering upon its second year with brilliant success.

Numbers 36 and 37 of the Harvard University Library's Bibliographical Contributions consist respectively of a Bibliography of William Hogarth, by Frank Weitenkampf of the Astor Library, and a catalogue of the Dante collections in the Harvard College and Boston Public Libraries, by William Coolidge Lane. Mr. Lane's achievement deserves very high praise, and the catalogue will be invaluable to Dante students, for, though at a distance, they can, under proper restrictions, avail themselves of the collection at Harvard, for which Mr. Lane bespeaks the gifts of its friends. We must not omit mention of the elaborate "Index of Subjects and of Passages in the Divina Commedia," which concludes the catalogue; or of the note on the Dante portraits in the collection.

Mr. James Lyman Whitney of the Boston Public Library has just completed a 'Catalogue of the Bibliographies of Special Subjects' in that institution, filling seventy-one pages in double columns. It is needless to remark on the utility of this work wherever there is a tolerably well-equipped library within reach. The title-words in this catalogue are, we think, open to criticism on the score of the indistinct type selected for them.

"A Review of the Family Delphinidæ," by Prof F. W. True, in Bulletin 36 of the United States National Museum, puts together in convenient shape the scattered knowledge of the porpoises and some of their allies. The preparation of the work necessitated visits to the principal European museums. Its extent is shown by the fact that the author's descriptions and notes relate to sixty-two species, of nineteen genera. There are 191 pages of text and 47 plates of illustrations.

Conchologists and students of mollusks in general will welcome Bulletin 37 of the United States National Museum, containing Mr. W. H. Dall's 'Preliminary Catalogue of the Shell-bearing Mollusks and Brachiopods of the Southeastern Coast of the United States.' The list includes more than 1,100 names, 221 pages, with localities, depths, ranges, etc. Of the seventy-four plates, illustrating some hundreds of the species, forty are republished from papers of the author in bulletins of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, and the rest from others in publications of the United States Fish Commission and elsewhere.

The report of the Connecticut Bureau of Labor Statistics for 1889 is mainly devoted to the fish and oyster industry. An interesting account is given of the development of the oyster farms under the waters of Long Island Sound, and elaborate maps, based upon those of the Coast Survey, are furnished showing the limits of the oyster grounds of the State. This singular industry has been developed through the conflicts of interest of individuals, towns, large capitalists, corporations, and even States, and its history is an epitome of the growth of the institution of property in land. Scientific research has done much for it, but the chief causes of loss (storms and starfish) have not been brought under control. It appears that the great oyster industry of Baltimore is the result of Connecticut sagacity. Many interesting bits of information are to be found in the reports from the fishermen of the various towns. The total capital employed is $3,322,000, value of product $1,232,000, expenses $556,000, losses $543,000 (starfish cause $498,000 loss), and number of employees 1,024. The small profit shown by these figures casts doubt upon their accuracy, and the losses are probably to some extent speculative. The report also contains an abstract of the proceedings of the convention of chiefs of bureaus of labor statistics held last June at Hartford.

The opening of the Johns Hopkins University Medical School is at best but a question of a few years, when temporary embarrassment has been overcome. To hasten the much desired event, however (for the Hospital is already open and organized), it is proposed to raise the sum of at least $100,000 to be offered to the Trustees "on condition that women whose previous training has been equivalent to that of the preliminary medical course of the University, be admitted to the School . . . on the same terms as men." This offer is more likely to be accepted now than it would be if the School were once opened to men only.

Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, has surpassed himself in the latest issue of his American portrait gallery, an imperial photograph of Walt Whitman. The pose of the old poet, his free costume, wonderfully set off by Tudor collar and cuffs, and his noble expression, leave nothing to be desired on the part of his admirers, to the English portion of whom particularly we commend this panel-picture as an ornament after their own hearts.

—*Harper's* for May opens with an appreciative notice of the latest group of French artists, each being treated individually, and sufficient illustration is given to suggest the qualities of their work so carefully discriminated by Mr. Child. The avoidance of any general discussion of their practice of the art is a happy instance of discretion on the part of the critic; it is enough for the present that he presents their phases, indicates their choices in subject and sentiment, and leaves time for judgment upon their work to ripen. Literature receives attention in two noticeable papers, one upon the Caroline lyrists, adorned with excellent and attractive portraits, and the other upon wit and humor. The author of this last paper makes a most elaborate analysis, partly in a psychological, partly in a literary vein, and reviews the opinions of those who have tried from the day of Plato to determine the nature and origin of the delight of the mind in the ludicrous. He meets with no success in attempting to analyze it from the Darwinian point of view, and will not admit that malignity is at all adequate to explain either its composition or its growth. At the end he can only suggest that the faculty of humor in primitive tribes was, like the electrical organ in the tail of the skate, a prophecy of utilities to come; and such a conclusion reads like a malicious parody of the true faith of Darwinians, though apparently not so intended. The paper is a very thoughtful and well-informed examination of this much-disputed matter. The account of the old taverns of this city revives a subject of which the general or the learned reader seems never to weary, and the accompanying cuts of Manhattan life furnish the proper half-sportive accompaniment. Mr. Chittenden records an incident of the history of the Treasury in which a physically costly service was done in the line of official duty under striking circumstances, and in which virtue seems to have been its own reward. Mr. Curtis in the Easy Chair pays a friendly tribute to the qualities of the late George P. Bradford of Cambridge.

—The *Century* is an eminently entertaining number, well varied in matter and not laboriously serious in its most solid portions. Some new portraits of Washington represent him in somewhat hard and dry lines and with less distinction and expression in the features, but they are interesting to the eye. The text contains many little details, mostly of a domestic kind. A paper upon "Chickens for Use and Beauty" gives occasion for several admirable illustrations, full of spirit and refinement in rendering—really a remarkable series. The French salon is a third topic, so attractive and fresh in itself that it never fails to entertain us with its bevy of beauty and fame, its wit and scandal and intrigue; and under the present writer's hand it loses nothing. Mr. Kennan describes the working of the press-censorship in Russia, and tells a number of illustrative incidents to show the meddlesomeness and inefficiency of the system. A page or two of the *Century* "blacked out" by the Russian officials is the one expressive illustration of his article. He says that some pages of the 'Life of Lincoln' were also erased in the same way. Major Powell writes of the institutions which he thinks should be established in the arid region of the

country in order to meet the peculiar agrarian conditions of a vast irrigated district with the modifications of property-right and associated control under these new circumstances, and it is a pleasure to observe in such an article a disposition to reduce Government action within the narrowest limits and to leave to local control the actual management of affairs. A careful comparison of the valor and skill of the two armies in the civil war brings forward a subject upon which it is not desirable to reach any decision. A number of short papers, together with fiction, interleave these leading contributions.

— *Scribner's* contains two articles of leading interest. The first is upon Barbizon and the life of Millet and other artists there, abundantly illustrated and pleasantly narrated. The second is Mr. Eugene Schuyler's paper upon Mme. de S äel in Italy, in which he has gathered much curious matter from the letters and memoirs of the time, and set the life of the author of 'Corinne' and her ways of thought, sentiment, and action among the Italians very vividly before the reader. The contribution belongs with the other sketches of foreigners in Italy which the author has written of late, full of close information and side-lights; but in the present instance the treatment is more elaborate, and the subject has a certain exceptional brilliancy of its own. The right of the citizen to the use of the streets is treated of briefly and sufficiently, and incidentally illustrates the complication and complexity of our modern city life, especially in those parts of the paper which look to the street not as a superficial roadway of locomotion, but as a thing in the air and under ground, the home of rails and wires, in which respects this city shows the most advanced development of the old highway. The cut showing the actual occupancy of the underground space by the sewers, pipes, subways, etc., is remarkable and suggestive. Another paper of great value for its illustrative examples, is a review, by Mr. W. A. Linn, of some actual results of coöperative building, with cuts of houses and prices, taken from a wide extent of territory. The Japanese theatre is the last topic that calls for any special mention, and it is treated with considerable fulness and with regard to many different points of interest.

—The American Metrological Society, organized in 1873 to promote measures looking towards the improvement of the systems of weights, measures, and moneys at present existing among men, has just held a special meeting in Washington. It was the first time the Society had met in the capital, and one of the objects in convening there was to bring influence to bear upon Congress. Only one paper was read, that by Mr. Horton on "Instruments of Valuation." In the discussion of this topic the science of metrology played an unimportant part, since the writer had a financial or economic theme in view. The activity of the session was manifested in three resolutions. The first was to request the Secretary of the Treasury to ask Congress to include the equivalent in metres or kilograms in all designations of measure or mass in subsequent legislation on all questions of customs. That is, when the duty is fixed as so much per pound, to state, parenthetically so to speak, the amount per kilo; or, when given as so much per yard, to add "or so much per metre," thus relieving custom-house officials of the trouble of conversion when the invoice specifies the quantity in the metric system. The second resolution provided for the appointment of a committee to suggest to the Postmaster-General the desirability of specifying in the postal regulations the weight of single foreign postage in the metric system. At present there is nearly a gramme difference between the actual equivalent and what is given in the postal regulations as the equivalent—a fact which causes embarrassment when mail is delivered with postage due, or held for lack of full postage prepaid. The third resolution, advocated by Prof. Mendenhall, was in the shape of an expressed opinion that, inasmuch as the electrical units have received the names of distinguished specialists from all parts of the world, excepting America, one or two of the units yet to be designated should have the name Franklin, Henry, or both. The matter is likely to be brought definitely before the International Electrical Congress during the session to be held in this country in 1892. The members of the Society had an opportunity to inspect the standards of measure and mass in the possession of the Bureau of Weights and Measures. The chief interest, of course, centred around the metre and kilo prototypes recently received from the International Commission and opened a few weeks ago by President Harrison.

—Master Francis Villon, of joyous memory, was the subject of an extremely interesting communication to the French Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-Lettres at its sitting of April 4. M. Marcel Schwob, who has been following up traces of Villon in the old court records, read a number of documents taken from the archives of the Department of the Côte d'Or, which throw much light on the ballads in slang which have gone by the name of Villon's "Jargon." It is known that these were written between the years 1456 and 1461. There are plain allusions in ballads iii. and iv. to a gang of loose fellows of the baser sort who were known as the Coquillards, or the "Compagnons de la Coquille." Several of them were hung at Dijon on December 18, 1455. Ballad ii., "Coquillars narvans à Ruel," is directly addressed to them, and makes mention of the punishment of two of Villon's friends, Régnier de Montigny and Colin de Cayeux (Colin l'Escalier), both of whom were executed after 1460. A list of some seventy-five words of the *argot* of the Coquillards was shown by M. Schwob, in which twenty-four of the slang words used by Villon in the "Jargon" appear. It seems certain that Villon was on terms of close intimacy with the gang, even if he were not regularly affiliated to it. Villon was himself in prison in 1461, and his own neck (as he says, or some one in his name says) ran some risk of receiving a lesson at that time. He himself attributes his imprisonment to his *folle plaisance*, but he doubtless had very liberal notions as to what that phrase might be held to cover. M. Schwob ended his communication by some remarks on the etymology of the *argot*, which he traces in many instances to the Greek.

— The admirers of Henrik Ibsen will be glad to know that another of his social dramas ("De Unges Forbund") can now be had in a translation by Mr. William Archer. This play, which Mr. Archer entitles "The League of Youth," while not to be ranked with Ibsen's best dramas, will be welcome as the first example obtainable in English of his lighter vein. In the same volume Mr. Archer has included his translation of "Samfundets Stötter" ("The Pillars of Society"), which was published two years ago in the "Camelot Series," but which he says he has thoroughly revised, and also a translation of "Et Dukkehjem," which was only issued before in a limited, illustrated edition. The book is published as volume one of "Ibsen's Prose Dramas," and all the author's prose works are promised to be included in this series, in a chronological arrangement—that is to say, not only the eight modern social dramas, but the previous six historical plays. The poetical works, however, are to be omitted, including 'Brand' and 'Peer Gynt,' which even Mr. Archer, apparently, does not feel courageous enough to attempt to turn into English.

—Mr. Archer's "Biographical Introduction" is a slight performance, and contains nothing not already familiar to American readers. He acknowledges his indebtedness to Mr. Jæger's biography of Ibsen, but says he owes other details to the courtesy of the poet himself. We fail to detect anything of interest, however, which could not be found in Mr. Jæger's book. It is not quite accurate, by the way, to refer to the short-lived satirical sheet which Ibsen and his friends, Botten-Hansen and Vinje, issued in Christiania in 1851, as being entitled *Manden* (The Man). This interesting bibliographical rarity was issued without any title, and the above peculiar appellation was due to the clever vignette illustrations which showed "the man" (the news-seeking editor) in various attitudes in the market-place of Norway's capital, or as an observant spectator and listener in the gallery of the Parliament House. But near the close of its existence the paper was given a title, and then it was called *Andhrimer*, that being the name of the cook in Valhall, the home of the gods in Scandinavian mythology. The second volume of the series, promised for April 25, will contain, besides "Ghosts," two new translations, "En Folkefiende" ("An Enemy of the People") and "Vildanden" ("The Wild Duck"). The volumes are neatly printed and bound, and the issue for this country bears the imprint of Scribner & Welford. In view of the fact that a suspicion of piracy attaches to all previous American reprints of Ibsen's works, a more definite statement of the author's sanction of this edition than the mere words "Authorized translation" upon the title-page would have been welcome.

THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH METRES.

Englische Metrik in historischer und systematischer Entwickelung dargestellt von J. Schipper. Zweiter Theil: neuenglische Metrik; erste Hälfte: Verslehre. Bonn: Strauss. Pp. xxvi., 464.

It is nearly eight years since we had the pleasure of reviewing the first volume of Schipper's monumental work. That volume covered the entire period from Anglo-Saxon times, through the Anglo-Norman reigns, Chaucer and his "school," down to the reign of Henry VIII. The present volume is wholly concerned with the treatment of the single line. For the needs of the ordinary reader, this may be thought excessive; but for the genuine student assuredly it is not. The varieties of single line in English metre are much more numerous than the uninitiated are apt to suspect, and the adjustment of the metrical units, the so-called feet, comprising each variety of line, is extremely diversified. A single illustration will make this clear. It is simple enough to define blank verse as five-foot iambic pentameter without rhyme; but puzzling questions spring up the moment we undertake to discuss the cæsural pause, its position in the line, its capacity for suppressing a syllable or introducing an extra syllable, the difference between end-stopped and run-on lines, inverted accentuation, lines apparently six feet in length, but in

reality pentameter, and the like. Schipper has allotted 120 pages in all to his discussion of blank verse. There are fourteen pages of general remarks, nearly twenty upon the blank verse of Shakspere's predecessors, about thirty upon Shakspere, upwards of twenty upon the later dramatists, nine upon Milton, nine upon the Restoration and eighteenth century, about twenty upon the nineteenth century. Whoever works through this seemingly long chapter with a view to mastering all the curious ups and downs of our English verse by eminence, from Surrey's 'Æneid' and the old play of "Gorboduc" to Tennyson's "Queen Mary," will be deeply grateful to the man who is teaching him, and will never dream of taxing him with prolixity.

Our strictures upon Schipper's treatment are in part general, in part are corrections of special points too important to be passed over as mere slips. Among the errors of a general nature, we note the author's disposition to regard his own statement of Anglo-Saxon verse (in vol. i.) as conclusive. This statement might have passed eight years ago, but should now be readjusted to the new method established by Sievers. According to Sievers, we have no right to speak of *Senkung in der germanischen Poesie* as Schipper does at pp. 3 and 42; nor is it prudent to ascribe the prevalence of iambic over trochaic movement in modern verse (see p. 13) to a like phenomenon in early verse—at least if under early verse we include Anglo-Saxon, for in Sievers's tabulation the trochaic type of foot exceeds the iambic. Perhaps Schipper draws the line sharply between Anglo-Saxon and early English; if so, his language should be more precise.

Another general fault in our author's method is the assumption—sometimes expressed, more frequently implied—of a correct standard line, deviations from which are to be condemned as errors, or at best tolerated as blemishes. Now, whatever may be the theory of metres in the classic tongues, or in modern French and German, we reject every assumption of a correct standard line for English. Schipper has very likely been misled herein by the regularity and smoothness of the great German poets, notably Goethe. But all great English poets, whether or not adopting in their subject-matter the motto of Tasso's Princess, "Erlaubt ist, was sich schickt," have in their management of verse-form unquestionably realized Tasso's own speech: "Erlaubt ist, was gefällt." From Marlowe and Shakspere to Tennyson, every great poet has been master of his metre, not its bondsman. Thus, what right has Schipper to assert, p. 16, that the coincidence of word and foot (diæresis) always produces a disagreeable, chopping effect (*stets eine unangenehme hackende Wirkung*), thereby pronouncing a sweeping condemnation upon Milton's

"Too well I see and rue the dire event"?

Does the German critic really believe that his ear is better than Milton's for the effect intended by just such a line? Does he believe that Tennyson did not know what he was about when he wrote:

"Would turn and glare at me and point and jeer"?

In like manner, pp. 33 and 34 recklessly invert the relative position of two features in our verse which we supposed beyond the reach of misunderstanding, viz.: hovering accent and the suppression of the *Auftakt* (anacrusis). As to the latter, our best poets since the days of Chaucer have tacitly shunned it in the five-foot iambic; and even for Chaucer himself it has cost Prof. Skeat a hard and prolonged struggle to establish the validity of such passages as—

"Óf this flóur when thát it shúld enclóse"

or—

"Y'permístra, yóngest of hem álle."

whereas hovering accent is among the veriest commonplaces of our poets and poetasters. Yet Schipper in all seriousness declares, p. 33, the suppression of the anacrusis to be the only one of these two features susceptible of artistic treatment! And at p. 38 the hovering accent is denounced as "eine unter allen Umständen tadelnswerthe metrische Licenz," involving "eine Beeinträchtigung der natürlichen oder logischen Wortbetonung zu Gunsten des Versrhythmus," and cultivated chiefly by poets "die nur über einen verhaltnissmässig geringen Grad technischer Geschicklichkeit verfügen!" What a pity that all our poets should be such botchers—that Tennyson, for instance, could dare to perpetrate the verse—

"For testimony; and crying with full voice"—

and force us to suspend *our* voice between "with" and "full." But we comfort ourselves with the reflection that perhaps the Laureate's verse rests upon other principles than those of metrical philosophy.

Not quite so glaring, yet no less untenable, are Schipper's views upon *enjambement* and light-weak endings, pp. 59-65. Whether or not the *enjambement* in a given passage be good or bad, is a question not to be settled according to abstract criteria, but solely and simply by English taste and English ear. To designate, p. 62, the immortal opening of 'Paradise Lost,' that "God-gifted organ voice of England," as "not bad" (*nicht übeltönend*) is altogether too condescending. But to designate, p. 65, Shakspere's light-weak endings as "usually bad" (*in der Regel misstönend*) is measurement by rule-of-thumb with a vengeance.

The title given by our author to his chapter iii., viz., *Silbenmessung*, is not, in our judgment, a very happy one. What Schipper means by it is the suppression or utterance of a vowel in unaccented terminations, such as *-ed*, *-est*, *-iage*, etc. The subject is more important for Elizabethan than for Victorian poetry. In the main the treatment here given will be found highly instructive, but we must take exception to some points. Thus we fail to see the practical advantages of distinguishing syncope, synicese, *Verschleifung*, *doppelte Senkung* (see pp. 95, 100, 101, 106, 110, etc.). To our way of thinking, it would be much simpler to say that a (written or printed) vowel is either suppressed (syncopated) in actual pronunciation, or is sounded; *e. g.*, *patience* (usually spoken, *pâshens*, but in Elizabethan English spoken, *pa-shi-ens*). In the latter case the word may bear two accents, as in *pá-shi-éns*, or it may form a foot with a superfluous syllable, as: wárrior chíef. But in any case the reader should have no difficulty in reading correctly without the aid of cumbersome terminology.

In like manner, the technical term *Zerdehnung* used by Schipper (and others) does not commend itself to us (pp. 46, 115). Schipper's language, in fact, seems to imply that he looks upon the phenomenon itself as metrical, or at least as evolved through the exigencies of metre. If so, this is an error. To begin with, the pronunciation of *our*, *fire*, *year*, *humbly*, *ordnance*, etc., with a distinct *e* sound before the *r*, *l*, *n*, is not confined to poetry. We find it equally in the prose of most Indo-European languages; in Celtic, indeed, it becomes almost a grammatical function. In the next place, it is not correct to designate the process as a "lengthening"—it is rather the evolution of a vowel from a consonant. In philological treatises it is called svarabhakti, or epenthesis, although we observe that Brugmann gives a slightly different meaning to epenthesis. At any rate, Schipper should have treated the phenomenon more in accordance with general philology. And in the last place, we do not admit that such words as remembrance, wondrous, pilgrim, when pronounced rememberance, wonderous, pilegrim (pp. 117, 118), are genuine instances of epenthesis. On the contrary, the fuller forms are older and historically justifiable (for pilegrim, compare even the modern French *pèlerin* and the Latin *peregrinus*); whereas the shorter ones are contractions. With regard to the dissyllabic sound of *door* in Shakspere, "And with my sword I'll keep this do-or safe," *Tit. Andr.* i, l. 288 (if the line is really Shakspere's), a brilliant modern instance occurs to us. Wordsworth, in his poem "To the Small Celandine," wrote:

"That they all are wanton wooers;
But the thrifty cottager,
Who stirs but little out of doors," etc.

The rhyme wooers: doors we submit as a neat crux to the ultra-Wordsworthians. That door is spoken dūr in North England may be safely assumed. But is dū-er also Northern, or is it a Wordsworthism?

Chapter iv., on Word-Accent, rests on solid ground, and offers many valuable suggestions upon the difference between Elizabethan and Victorian speech. Yet, in one respect, the chapter is seriously defective. The Elizabethan poet by eminence, outside of the drama, is Spenser. Yet Schipper nowhere gives evidence of having made that minute study of the poet which is his due. Our readers may compare what is said of the pronunciation of diet, p. 129, with—

"And of her owne foule entrayles makes her meat;
Meat fit for such a monster's monsterous dyeat."
(*F. Q. v. 12, xxxi.*)

The rhyme evidently requires a pronunciation like that of the modern French *diète*. As for cóntrary, contrary, p. 155, we need only cite:

"That sayd, her rownd about she from her turnd,
She turned her contrary to the sunne;
Thrise she her turned contrary, and returnd
All contrary; for she the right did shunne."
(*F. Q. iii. 2, vi.*)

and

"From one to other so quite contrary"
(*iv. 6, xxxii.*),

where the rhyme with "suddenly" requires us to speak "cóntrary."

Schipper's treatment of the cæsura is both full and satisfactory, in its general principles, at least, although we might differ with him as to an occasional scansion. Such terms, however, as lyric and epic cæsura (p. 25 and throughout the volume) are objectionable. Lyric and epic, if they mean anything, designate different kinds of poetry. To call a certain variety of cæsural pause epic, almost of necessity intimates that it is characteristic of epic poetry; yet Schipper means nothing of the sort. We venture to suggest trochaic and dactylic as safer terms; and the blunt cæsura may be called the iambic. The value of Schipper's treatment of blank verse, in particular, is diminished not a little by the tacit assumption that there must be a cæsura in every line. We fail to see the validity of the assumption. It seems to us an application of the systems of Greco-Latin hexameter and French Alexandrine to a poetry that defies rigorous system. There is not a master of English blank verse that scruples to compose without cæsural pause whenever he feels that the situation justifies or requires continuous utterance. To a true poet, language and metre are only means to an end; he aims at varying effects, and he makes his line run or halt, flow equably or grate upon the ear, merely because he wishes to, and with the clearest conscious-

ness of what he is doing. Thus, p. 174, Chapman's lines made up of monosyllables are spoken of disparagingly. By what right? Regel, to whose essay on Chapman Schipper is indebted for most of his data, is careful to avoid committing himself on the point. And if Chapman is to blame for monosyllabic lines, what becomes of Shakspere's

"Earth gapes, hell burns, fiends roar, saints pray."
(*Rich. III.*, *iv.*, *4*, *75*)

or Tennyson's

"Let the great angel of the Church come with him,
Stand on the deck and spread his wings for sail!
God lay the waves and strew the storms at sea."
(*Queen Mary*, *i.*, *5.*)

We have not space to even touch upon the various forms of verse as developed by our author; the septenarius, the Alexandrine, the four-foot line, the four-beat line (the most original section and perhaps the most deserving of careful heed in the entire volume), the heroic couplet, blank verse, trochaic verse, modern imitations of Greco-Roman metres, etc. We merely note, in passing, that Schipper omits from his treatment of the Alexandrine all mention of Biron's ecstatic sonnet, "Love's Labor's Lost," iv.,2, 109-122; also (from his remarks on the septenarius) the immortal effusion of good Master Holofernes to the Sorel, in the same scene. Upon the whole we suspect that "Love's Labor's Lost" has been rather persistently avoided by metrical investigators, although it is singularly rich in "finds." But we hope that Mr. Sweet's "inevitable German" will not be long in making his advent with an exhaustive line analysis. For a Victorian revival of the Alexandrine on a grand scale our author should have noted, p. 193, Browning's "Fifine."

Concerning modern attempts to reproduce the metre of 'Beowulf' and other poems in Anglo-Saxon, noted pp. 234, 235, we content ourselves with asserting that not one of the translators there mentioned has reproduced the movement of his original, for the all-sufficient reason that not one has made his translation in accordance with the principles demonstrated by Sievers. Browning's "Flight of the Duchess," put by our author (p. 251) in his chapter on the four-foot iambic, belongs rather to p. 232, in the chapter on four-beat verse. So also the quotation from Rochester (p. 211). Why Schipper (p. 257) should see fit to echo Guest's absurd attempt to connect Chaucer's 'Tale of Melibeus' somehow with the beginnings of blank verse, is to us a profound mystery. Yet Guest's absurdity has found its match in our own day. Goodlet, in an article on "Shakspere's Debt to John Lilly" (*Engl. Studien*, v., 359), gravely ventures to assert of Lyly's prose, "It may have acted on Shakspere by directing his attention to poetical form"! What our author means (p. 298) by an evident tendency in Shakspere's later dramas to revert to a certain regularity, we fail to understand. If the dramatist ever penned anything more free, more "irregular" in metre, syntax, word-usage, than the "Winter's Tale," it has escaped our notice. The selection from the "Tempest" given p. 315 we can scarcely accept as "typical" of Shakspere's very latest manner. Schipper's dry enumeration of eighteenth-century writers of blank verse (p. 355) has its value. If it does nothing more, it will at least rectify Gosse's extraordinary blunders.

The treatment of blank verse of the nineteenth century is usually fair-minded, but scarcely full enough for such poets as Wordsworth, Tennyson, and Browning. The estimate put upon Byron (p. 372) is unworthy of the book; Schipper, like Swinburne, merely echoes the cheap and puerile jibes of Campbell. Byron is the only modern English poet that knows how to wield the free run-on blank verse of the later Elizabethan and early Stuart drama. But it seems that what was good in the "Winter's Tale" is not good in "Cain."

Schipper's treatment of the various forms of trochaic verse is excellent. The author is here more original, less hampered by the dicta and statistics of his predecessors. But we cannot enter upon the subject, nor upon that of imitations of classic metres.

There are some single points that call for corrections. Twice (pp. 98, 371) "soldiers" is made out to be trisyllabic in Coleridge's translation of "Piccolomini." Here Schipper's text has misled him. The line is not as quoted—

"The very churches are full of soldiers"—

but

"The very churches are *all* full of soldiers."

Similarly, p. 222, the line from Byron's "Beppo"—

"I don't know how they can get over it"—

should read—

"I don't know how they *ever* can get over it."

At p. 444, in enumerating the English renderings of 'Hermann und Dorothea,' Schipper has overlooked the excellent one by Miss Frothingham. Some of the remarks upon single words are quite at fault. Thus, "certes" is classified (p. 92) as an Old-English genitive in -es; it is not, but an Old-French word throughout. The remarks upon the termination -ious (p. 99) are in very questionable shape; the entire paragraph should be rewritten. How Schipper happens to put the termination -uence in the same category with -ience (p. 97), and thereby declare it to be usually monosyllabic, is a fresh puzzle. But for the citation of "influence" from "Tintern Abbey," we might charitably conjecture the -uence part of the paragraph-heading to be a printer's blunder.

Our criticism of Schipper has been almost exclusively in the nature of fault-finding; yet, viewing the book as a whole, we do not hesitate to concede to it an unstinted measure of praise. It is well proportioned and inspired throughout by self-denying research. The author has set himself a lofty ideal and striven manfully to attain it. Personally we are indebted to him for an insight into the structure of our verse, for a broad bird's-eye view of it in all its bearings, such as we should never have enjoyed without his aid. That any one should undertake to systematize the English verse line, with all its quirks and quibbles for three centuries and a half, is remarkable. That the work should be done by a German is almost incredible. It is easy for the native to hear where the German ear has failed to catch the beat of the English pulse; but to make too much of this superiority would be childish. After all, method is method. There is not one of us who would not profit immensely by three months' or six months' diligent study of Schipper's method. And, once familiar with it, every one will gladly revert to it on all occasions as the patientest and honestest of guides.

WEISMANN ON HEREDITY.

Essays upon Heredity and Kindred Biological Problems. By Dr. August Weismann. Authorized Translation, by Selmar Schönland and A. E. Shipley. Edited by E. B. Poulton. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1889. 8vo, pp. 455.

THE fourth volume of the "Translations of Foreign Biological Memoirs" contains eight of Dr. Weismann's papers, brought together from various sources of original publication, dating from 1881 to 1888. On account of the high rank of the author as a biologist, these writings attract much attention, especially among the followers of Darwin. A firm belief in Darwinism is evident from the start; knowing this, it is possible in some measure to anticipate the conclusions reached in these essays. Rate of growth, ultimate size, rapidity of reproduction, parthenogenesis, difference of sex, instinct, heredity, length of life, and death, all are said to be useful to the organism and consequently to have been the effects of natural selection. Taken in order of sequence, the chapters lead up to the later and more mature opinions, which are shown by the series to have suffered some modification. We can touch upon but a few of the prominent points.

Spontaneous generation, though not yet demonstrated, is to this author a logical necessity. The protozoa, unicellular, monoplastid, divide into others similar to the parent, and, all the cells being reproductive, are practically immortal. In multicellular metazoa, division of labor obtains: some of the cells remain wholly reproductive, others become body cells, which, incapable of reproducing themselves indefinitely, wearing out, become useless and detrimental; hence the necessity of death and the birth of a new body to bear the generative cells and prolong the life of the species. Duration of life is made to depend upon adaptation to external conditions and to be governed by the needs of the species; the advantage of the species alone, not that of the individual, being of importance. It may be said, in passing, that here as elsewhere, it is the temporary advantage, that of the present, that is important, regardless of ultimate influence on the existence of the species.

The first essay, "Duration of Life," is continued and amplified in the third, "Life and Death." As taught here, death is an adaptation brought about by natural selection; it is expedient because individuals that have served their purpose, reproduction, become useless and harmful in that they take the place of useful. The mortality of the body cells arose with their differentiation from originally homogeneous cells of polyplastids into dissimilar cells in heteroplastids.

The second essay deals with the transference of hereditary tendencies from one generation to another. This is accomplished by means of the "substance of the germ cells" (in a later writing by the contents of the nuclei), the germ plasm. On the supposed continuity and unchanged nature of this substance, Weismann builds his theory of heredity. One thing adduced in support is the fact that in certain insects the formation of the embryo begins by setting apart a few small cells for the reproductive organs. A portion of the germ plasm transmitted to the first generation remains unchanged and is passed on to the second, and so on, thus insuring permanence in the type and perpetuating characters of parents and previous ancestors. Abnormalities, mutilations, etc., are declared non-transmissible. It is conceded, more or less directly, that the direct influence of circumstances (climate, for instance) may work changes in the germ, and in this manner originate predispositions and bring about the possibility of accumulations of effects which would depend not wholly on the influence upon an individual during its life, but on the germ during generations. In extra use of an organ the amount of power depends on the predisposition; and natural selection, while apparently deciding between stronger and weaker individuals, is said to be really deciding between stronger and weaker germs. After all, Weismann does not make it clear that the predisposition itself is not an acquired character, a consequence of the action of ex-

ternal causes. His theory carries the matter further back, and his arguments make apparent a need of repairs in the foundation on which the general idea of "the survival of the fittest in the struggle for life" has been built.

Panmixia is defined as the suspension of the operation of natural selection, a condition which allows all the individuals to reproduce and stamp their characters upon the species—not only those which are fittest in all respects or in some special organs. We do not see that it is established that selection ever really ceases, or that Panmixia is not ceaseless, whatever the effect of selection.

The fourth of the essays is an amplification of the second in most of its features. The fundamental idea is, that heredity is brought about by transmission from one generation to another of a substance with a definite chemical and, above all, molecular constitution, slight changes in which induce divergencies in the descendants. These changes control the predisposition, without the preëxistence of which, as our author says, nothing can arise in an organism. The nuclear substance is the sole bearer of hereditary tendencies; and it must contain not only those of the immediate parents, but also those of an indefinite number of ancestors. A true continuity is apparently shown in some flies; in plants, however, there are propagations by shoots, buds, or leaves, in which cases the germ must be widely distributed. Even here the author does not find continuity impossible. His proof that somatic nucleoplasm is not at certain growth stages changed into germ plasm, is found in the Hydroids, in which only certain cells in the body of numerous so-called embryonic cells are capable of becoming primitive germ cells. Expulsion of the polar bodies is explained by the supposition that they contain ovogenetic nucleoplasm which has served its purpose in building the egg, and must give place to the germ plasm which builds the embryo. It is held that nature generally pursues the sexual method of reproduction, and that the only way parthenogenesis could be prevented was by the production of eggs, which, after expelling the ovogenetic nucleoplasm, lost capability of growth until after fertilization.

The preface to the fifth chapter, "The Significance of Sexual Reproduction in the Theory of Natural Selection," contains a definition of acquired characters evidently made to order:

> "Only those new characters can be called 'acquired' which owe their origin to external influences, and the term 'acquired' must be denied to those which depend upon the mysterious relationship between the different hereditary tendencies which meet in the fertilized ovum. These latter are not 'acquired,' but inherited, although the ancestors did not possess them as such, but only as it were the elements of which they are composed."

Whenever the author succeeds in making out the significance of a structure, it always proves to be a fresh example of adaptation. In the relation of parts to the function of the whole everything depends on the adaptation. No part, not the minutest or most insignificant, has arisen in any other way than under the influence of the conditions of life, and the parts of the body conform to those conditions. Individual variability forms the most important foundation of the theory of natural selection. Although he does not in this connection deny that external influences may affect the germ, Weismann believes they have no share in producing hereditary individual characters. The source of these he finds in sexual or amphigonic reproduction, the object of which process is to create those individual differences which form the material out of which natural selection produces new species. This is in the face of the fact that individual differences do exist in the lowest unicellular organisms; and the argument is weakened further by the admission that the ultimate origin of individual differences lies in the direct action of external influences upon the organism. Our author asserts positively that hereditary variability can only arise in this way in these lowest organisms.

Chapter vi. continues the discussion of the theory of continuity as set forth in chapter iv. In all eggs requiring fertilization two polar bodies are expelled; in others only one. The first nuclear division removes the ovogenetic nucleoplasm; this is called the "equal division." The expulsion of the second body, "the reducing division," removes part of the germ plasm, and reduces the number of ancestral germ plasms by one-half; the addition of the sperm nucleus to the remainder restoring the original quantity. The reducing division does not take place in the parthenogenetic egg; it contains the necessary germ plasm, and is ready for development at once after the expulsion of the polar body removes the ovogenetic nucleoplasm. In parthenogenetic reproduction the whole of the ancestral germ plasms is transmitted to the embryo; in sexual reproduction half is derived from each parent, thus preventing the existence of the same hereditary combinations in the germ cells of individuals and securing an ever-varying supply of individual differences. Among facts brought forward in support of these views, we learn that children who are exactly alike are, without exception, twins, of the same sex, enclosed in the same membrane, and presumably derived from the same egg cell. Unlike twins are supposed to arise from two eggs.

The seventh essay is "On the Supposed Botanical Proofs of the Transmission of Acquired Characters," and the eighth is devoted to "The Supposed Transmission of Mutilations." The importance of the discussion in these chapters arises mainly from the fact that it is deemed absolutely necessary by advocates of selection to disprove such transmission. Without this they feel themselves unable to displace Lamarckism or to establish firmly their own theory. To define acquired characters so as to include only the accidental, the superficial, the transitory, or the individual renders denial more easy, but does not lead to a satisfactory settlement of the questions involved. Dr. Weismann says of the germ plasm that it is not an organism in the sense of being a microscopic facsimile, which has only to increase in size to become a mature organism. It follows that the changes required in it must differ from those acquired by the body of the parent; yet it is supposed that the former are produced by the latter as a result of correlation. To quote from the author himself:

> "I believe, however, that they [the inherited variations] can be referred to the various external influences to which the germ is exposed before the commencement of embryonic development. Hence we may fairly attribute to the adult organism influences which determine the phyletic development of its descendants. For the germ cells are contained in the organism, and the external influences which affect them are intimately connected with the state of the organism in which they lie hid."

In the case of a plant in which influence of climate causes a change in form of leaves from ovate to lobate, it is asserted that such a change could not be transferred in pollen or ovule as anything similar to leaves or form of leaves, for such have no existence in the germ plasm. The only thing that could happen would be, as the author says, changes in its molecular structure which bear no resemblance to those changes which are implied by the direct alteration of the form of the leaf in the parent plant. Very true, no resemblance; but if the wind, heat, dryness, etc., modify the shapes, they also affect food and habits and through them the germ. The consequence being an acquired tendency to vary from ovate to lobate leaf, it will be difficult to convince the many that the resulting shape is not an acquired character. Such inauguration and enhancement of predispositions take prominent places in the foundation of a "theory of tendencies," recently put forth, as we understand it. If well grounded, that theory greatly reduces the province of selection, since a tendency brought about by climate, for instance, would more or less affect the species as a whole, impressing effects to which the individuals must adapt themselves. As connected with this, may be noticed the comment on one of our author's experiments to prove non-transmission of mutilations, the oft-cited one in which the tails of mice were cut off to the fifth generation without the appearance of a short-tailed breed: "The Doctor should not have expected shorter tails, but rather, in consequence of the efforts to obtain the support or other assistance formerly derived from the organ, should have been prepared for the appearance of a tendency towards greater length."

From the words of the author it is evident that some of the hypotheses discussed still have undetermined values. The common end of all of them is natural selection. But it is not in his theories alone one is to look for the causes of the general interest in these papers, which, as he says, are but steps towards a more perfect knowledge; it is in the powerful and well-supported discussions, in the really important additions they make to science, and in the light they shed upon other theories which his own are intended to supersede. Like Darwin, of whom he is a worthy, though not an entirely orthodox, disciple, Dr. Weismann prefers to build upon facts verified by himself, and it is a question whether it would not have been to the advantage of the scientific world had he started equally unpledged to any theory.

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

A Memoir of Edward Askew Sothern. By T. Edgar Pemberton. London: Richard Bentley & Son.

Players and Playwrights I have Known. By John Coleman. London: Chatto & Windus.

Brief Chronicles. By William Winter. New York: The Dunlap Society.

Le Théâtre de la Foire, la Comédie-Italienne et l'Opéra - Comique. Par Maurice Drack. Première série, 1658 à 1720. Paris: Firmin-Didot; New York: F. W. Christern.

Les Jeux du Cirque et la Vie Foraine. Par Hugues Le Roux. Paris: E. Plon, Nourrit & Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern.

Mr. Pemberton's memoir of Sothern is the ordinary theatrical biography, neither more nor less. It has no consecutive account of Sothern's career; it has no informing analysis of his ability as a comedian; it has no complete list of the parts played by him—and it cannot be said too often or too emphatically that a list of the characters performed by an actor is absolutely indispensable in his biography, as it is one of the most important means of estimating his final position. Mr. Pemberton evidently knows little or nothing of Mr. Sothern's parentage, birth, and bringing up; his chief reliance seems to have been on an American

book called 'Birds of a Feather'—a cloth-bound book which the British biographer terms a *brochure*. The most of Sothern's theatrical career was passed in America, and Mr. Pemberton knows little or nothing about the American stage. He seems to think that Sothern was successful as *Armand* when Miss Heron produced "Camille," and he nowhere records the epigrammatic criticism of a New York critic that Mr. Sothern's *Armand* had "every characteristic of a poker except its occasional warmth." Apparently Mr. Pemberton is unaware that the plot of "Sam," which the late John Oxenford wrote for Sothern when the public began to tire of *Lord Dundreary*, was taken from the German. These defects are for the most part trifles in themselves, but they indicate Mr. Pemberton's deficiencies as a writer on a theatrical subject. The fact is, that Mr. Sothern was a comedian of remarkable, though limited, powers, and of an unusual individuality; he deserved a better biographer than Mr. Pemberton, who seems to think that his hero's chief title to attention is derived from the abundant practical jokes recorded here to depress the spirits of all sensible people.

Mr. John Coleman is himself an actor, and he knows the stage thoroughly; he has even read some of the books about it, an achievement far rarer among actors than most persons would imagine. He has the courage of his opinions; he is a good hater, and he sets down in plainest black and white what he thinks of Macready, the Charles Keans, Charles James Mathews, and Mme. Vestris, the Wigans, Benjamin Webster, the late John Ryder, and others. From his earlier biography he condenses his account of Phelps. He is at his best in the chapter describing his relations with Charles Reade, and perhaps nowhere else can so clear an insight into Reade's character be had as in these careless and hearty paragraphs of Mr. Coleman's. We know now that Charles Reade is not to fill as important a place in the history of literature as he was once thought likely to occupy, but he deserves a better biography than the misshapen and uninformed life thrown together by his nephew; and these chapters of Mr. Coleman's, and the papers which Mr. House printed in the *Atlantic*, are among the sources of information which the future biographer will most value. Reade's collaborator, Tom Taylor, a dull man who edited *Punch* and adapted French plays, Palgrave Simpson (also an adapter), and Tom Robertson are among the playwrights Mr. Coleman considers. In the chapter on Robertson he insinuates that the author of "Caste" derived the suggestion of that neat little comedy from Barrière's "Vie d'une Comédienne," but this is one of the most unfounded and foolish suppositions extant. In the chapter on Macready Mr. Coleman gives a full account of the hissing of Macready by Forrest in Edinburgh, an "incident" at which he "assisted"—to use two French idioms. It is to be noted that Mr. Coleman thought very highly of Forrest's acting.

'Brief Chronicles' is the neat title Mr. William Winter has given to a collection of outline biographies of the leading actors and actresses who have been seen on our stage during the past thirty years. Most of them are obituary notices, recalling the facts and characteristics of the departed actor while yet he lay unburied; and, as the author declares, the "reader will find here the impressions, set down while still fresh, that were made by various distinguished and interesting men and women of the stage upon a writer of the time," who had seen all of them and who knew most of them personally. Nothing fades more quickly than the fame of an actor not of the first rank and not dying in the full radiance of the footlights; and Mr. Winter's sympathetic summary of their careers is almost the only memorial of many of the minor people of the stage who have passed away during the last quarter of a century, and who were too inconspicuous to call forth a volume of biography. Even the more important performers sometimes fare better at Mr. Winter's hands than in their set biographies. Mr. Sothern, for example, makes an impression far less distinct in Mr. Pemberton's volume than he does in the ten pages of these 'Brief Chronicles' of Mr. Winter's; and from neither of the long biographies of Charlotte Cushman can so good an idea of her merits be obtained as in the acute study of her art which is included in the sketch of her life prepared by Mr. Winter when she died. Perhaps the same might be said of Forrest, of whom there are three biographies, and of Lester Wallack, a review of whose empty 'Memories' is here included—a review couched in terms of eulogy, but adequately admitting the self-satisfaction and egotism which were the chief characteristics of the last manager of Wallack's Theatre. Among the others of whom Mr. Winter writes, always with sympathy and delicacy, always with full knowledge of the history of the stage in England and America, and always with an obvious bias in favor of those whose work tended upward, are Edwin Adams, John Brougham, Fechter, Hackett, Matilda Heron, Laura Keene, John McCullough, H. J. Montague, John T. Raymond, Mark Smith, and Mrs. Vernon.

M. Maurice Drack, a dramatic critic of repute and a dramatist of experience (an adaptation of his "P'tiote" was once brought out in New York), has prepared the first of a series of volumes intended to contain the chief plays acted in the minor theatres which existed in Paris under the shadow of the Opéra and the Comédie-Française, and which developed slowly into the Opéra-Comique and into the predecessors of the Porte-Saint-Martin and the Palais-Royal of to day. The ten comedies or farces here collected were acted either by the Comédie-Italienne or at the Théâtre de la Foire. Some of them suggest the local plays of Mr. Edward Harrigan, which are essentially like the Italian *commedie dell' arte* in the use of typical characters recurring in successive plays, and in the commingling of music and "variety business" with a regular plot. In Italian, the characters were *Pulcinella*, *Stentorello*, etc.; in French they are *Arlequin*, *Colombine*, *Lucas*, etc.; and in America they were the negro preacher (the *Rev. Pewter Palestine*, for instance), the typical German, Irishman, Chinaman, etc.

What is most interesting in M. Hugues Le Roux's new book about acrobats and contortionists and circus-riders and lion-tamers and show-folks generally, is the series of colored illustrations by that very clever painter, the late Jules Garnier. In the main, they have nothing to do with the text; indeed, it seems as though the author and the artist had worked separately, and that the pictures had been scattered throughout the text as appropriately as possible. M. Garnier was a Frenchman, and, of course, his portrait of Mr. Barnum naturalizes that American as a Frenchman; but he has given here a series of views of show-life and a series of portraits of show-people hitherto unequalled. We remark by the way that in an English translation of this book, recently issued, it is said to be from the French of MM. Le Roux and Garnier!—this being intended, perhaps, to soften the anger of the artist when he should discover that his colored sketches appear in the British book in barren black and white. M. Le Roux's preface leads the reader to expect much that is new, but the book contains little not already known to those interested in the subject. He is not quite so much of a pioneer in writing about the circus and its associated shows as he seems to think. He does not know, apparently, Strutt's 'Sports and Pastimes,' or the two books on 'Circus Life and Circus Celebrities,' and the 'Old London Fairs.' He does not know 'Hard Times,' or Albert Smith's circus novel, or 'Toby Tyler.' He does not mention even 'L'Hercule' of M. Léon Cladel, although of course he cites the 'Frères Zemganno' of M. de Goncourt and 'La Petite Lambton' of M. "Philippe Daryll," to whom the book is dedicated. But though 'Les Jeux du Cirque' is a little lacking in novelty, it is amusing and attractive. Perhaps it should be pointed out that part of one chapter (pp. 184-189) M. Le Roux had already printed as a short story in his 'Entre Hommes' (pp. 261-269).

TEXT-BOOKS IN PHYSICS.

Laboratory Manual of Experimental Physics. By Albert L. Arey, C.E. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. 1890. 12mo.

The Elements of Laboratory Work. By A. G. Earl. Longmans, Green & Co.

Elementary Dynamics of Particles and Solids. By W. M. Hicks. Macmillan & Co. 12mo.

Electrical Engineering. For electric-light artisans and students. By W. Slingo and A. Brooker. Longmans, Green & Co. 1890.

The Physical Properties of Gases. By Arthur L. Kimball. Riverside Science Series. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890.

Mr. Arey's little 'Laboratory Manual' is well worthy of the attention of teachers. It contains a description of the apparatus necessary for making each of seventy experiments, together with directions for the experiments themselves and for what may be termed a discussion of the results. Very well-contrived blank tabular forms are given, in which the student may enter his results, a tabular form accompanying the description of each experiment. The student is thus shown how to make an experiment and how to discuss it when made. The subjects treated are: Properties of Matter, Fluids, Dynamics, Heat, Sound, Light, Electricity, and Magnetism. The apparatus suggested is, as a rule, very simple and well selected. An appendix contains an account of some more costly instruments. An intelligent boy of fifteen, with a fair power of using tools, ought to be able to make some of the simpler apparatus for himself, and would probably need but little help from a teacher. The book belongs to a class of works which have, within the last few years, become very numerous, and, while very elementary, it deserves to take rank among the best.

Mr. Earl's 'Elements' is of the same general character as that which we have just noticed, but is far more elaborate, and is intended for much more advanced students. The study of it would require greater maturity of mind and, frequently at least, the assistance of a teacher. A large part of the work is almost purely chemical, and recalls the expression "chemical physics," soon, we trust, to pass into oblivion. The work, in spite of its name, is not merely a laboratory manual, but to a great extent a treatise, while the questions asked are in general to be answered by actual experiment. We are not at all sure that the work will find favor

in this country, because it attempts to do too much, and cannot replace special treatises on the different subjects of which it treats, or the larger works on experimental physics. Still, it is by no means without merit, and to some teachers it may be of real value.

Mr. Hicks's work, as he states in his preface, is intended for the use of students with no knowledge of mathematics beyond the elements of algebra and pure geometry. From this point of view the work is a very good one, and is likely to receive a cordial welcome. It forms an excellent introduction to works on mechanics in which the higher analysis is employed, as it enables the student who has mastered the purely geometrical treatment of the subject to get a clear knowledge of general mechanical principles. From this point of view the work will also form a good introduction to elementary works on physics. A great number of problems and exercises are given, and materially add to the value of the work.

Messrs. Slingo and Brooker state in their preface that their work was designed to cover the extensive syllabus of the City and Guilds of London Institute, and that it embraces the requirements not only of those engaged in electric lighting, but also of those who, with little or no electrical knowledge, have under their supervision various kinds of electrical machinery. The work is likely to prove of great value in this country as well as in England. We have no elementary treatise upon the same subject which covers anything like the same ground. In seven chapters introductory to the main part of the work the authors treat with sufficient thoroughness fundamental electrical principles, units of measurement, and the more modern methods of determining resistances and electro-motive and current forces. They wisely include the galvanic battery in its different forms as steps in instruction which have a real value, though the galvanic battery itself is fast becoming antiquated as regards all practical applications. There is a sufficient account of Ohm's theory, and we come then to the subjects of electro-magnets and electro-magnetic induction. With this introduction the student is prepared to understand the different forms of dynamo-electric machines, both direct and alternating, of which a large number are described with excellent woodcuts illustrating construction, methods of winding armatures, and other needful details. We have then various forms of electric motors, and then chapters upon transformers, secondary batteries, arc lamps, incandescent lamps, and finally a valuable chapter on installation, equipment, fittings, etc. The style is clear and the mathematical part of the work sufficient for a purely practical treatise. The advanced student will need a more elaborate mathematical treatment of the theoretical questions presented, but such treatment could hardly be expected in a work like the present. It is safe to predict for the book an extended popularity among practical men.

The little work on 'The Physical Properties of Gases' is an agreeably written popular treatise which any intelligent reader can easily master, and which can hardly fail to open up a new world of thought and observation to a large class. Little or no mathematical reasoning is employed. The work is clearly written, and embraces all the really essential parts of the subject. It will hardly serve as a text-book for schools, from its non-mathematical form; but as an excellent presentation of a very interesting subject with which all educated persons should be familiar, it deserves a cordial recognition.

James Macdonell, Journalist. By W. Robertson Nicoll. London: Hodder & Stoughton. 1890.

One hope, the dearest, perhaps, to all men of letters, is denied the journalist. High as his ambition may soar, enduring fame is beyond its reach. However brilliant his achievements may be, they go nameless before the world; and should they by a rare exception come to attract attention to themselves, the glory attaches to the journal and not to the man. For it is, after all, the humbler intellectual wants that the journalist must satisfy—wants which are important, which are, indeed, imperative, but which, because of their very necessity and their frequent recurrence, are classed among ordinary things. They are "every-day" matters; and, as the very name of journalism shows, the labor of satisfying them is ephemeral. There may be no lack of either disposition or ability to be thorough, but the conditions of the journalist's work do not admit of it. He writes for men who are hurried, and he, perforce, writes hurriedly. He cannot choose the subject which he can best handle, and, if he could, considerations of policy would often restrict the expression of his own convictions. Even if fortune favors him in both theme and opportunity, he is hampered by the necessity of being brief. Like the makers of sonnets, he must say what he has to say within fixed limits, but, unlike them, he must also say it within a fixed time. He must be quick, short, and clear, or his craft will have none of him; as to his other qualities, they may be as pleases God.

But while the journalist can never hope to see his labors attain the dignity of "works," and must forego the desire to have his name held in honor by posterity, or even, for the most part, by his contemporaries, he can attain the more solid satisfaction of the conscious exertion of power. He may feel that while much of his labor is of little higher order than that of the grocer or the baker, it may from time to time influence, and influence perceptibly, the course of human events. He can not only direct and repress the great motive power of society, public opinion, but he can sometimes positively create it. But it is a mistake to suppose that he can accomplish anything by mere will power. He may apparently arouse ignorant passion by ignorant passion, but tempests of this kind make no enduring impression upon human affairs, and, when serious, are the results of deeper forces than any journalistic raving. A trifling matter, as Aristotle said, may occasion a revolution, but cannot cause one. If the journalist is to exert influence, he must possess power, and this power must be trained. Mere talent for writing is of no avail unless it is educated, and this education is not to be gained in any ridiculous "school of journalism," but by the study of many branches of knowledge and the mastery of some.

Of education in the narrow sense in which the word is generally used, the subject of this memoir had little. Of comparatively humble birth, he was reared in what would be looked upon outside of Scotland as poverty, and he had no regular teaching except what the parish schoolmaster could give. But the Scotch schoolmaster was sometimes no ordinary man, and of Mr. McPherson, whose pupil James Macdonell was for a year, it is said: "At a dinner in London some years ago, five of his old pupils were present. Two were ex-Premiers of Australian colonies; one a famous Indian soldier, who has filled the highest offices; a fourth the chief of the medical staff in India, and the fifth an American millionaire, whose name is familiar to every railway-man." To this influence was added that of Mr. McCombie, the editor of the Aberdeen *Free Press*, together with Hugh Miller, the most notable of the self-taught men of Scotland, "who, even while he held the plough, was studying speculative philosophy," and who dominated Aberdeenshire by his combined intellectual and moral force. But it was his own striving that educated Macdonell. He was brought up a Roman Catholic, but became a Protestant after a prolonged and profound study, not only of differences of creeds, but also of church history and general theology. In this internal struggle his whole nature was developed, and at the same time he acquired a familiarity with the ecclesiastical movements in Scotland and with certain departments of philosophy that was afterwards to stand him in good stead. In his leisure hours he taught himself French, and eventually became well-versed in both the literature and history of France.

At the age of sixteen Macdonell went to Aberdeen as a clerk, but, under the encouragement of Mr. McCombie, he soon began to write for the *Free Press*, and, when only nineteen years old, was engaged to contribute the leading articles during the absence of the editor. This determined his career, and within two years he obtained an engagement as sub-editor of an Edinburgh paper. In a twelvemonth he became editor of the *Express* at Newcastle, and, almost within the same period, attained the position of assistant editor of the *Telegraph* of London, refusing a similar post on the *Scotsman*. Here he remained ten years, becoming in 1875 a member of the staff of the *Times*, and continuing there during the last three or four years of his life. Like most of his trade, he burned the candle at both ends, and died at thirty-seven.

Mr. Nicoll observes that this book is "perhaps the only life of a journalist pure and simple ever written." It is certainly full of instruction for those who think of entering that occupation, but we should say that it is the life rather of the man Macdonell than of the journalist. Much information is given as to what he wrote and how he wrote, and as to how he prepared himself to write, but the charm of the book lies in the character that it reveals—a character, we fear, that can hardly be accepted as typical. Macdonell's life was singularly pure and noble, and he was deservedly successful and happy. But he was the victim of the cruel overwork that seems almost inseparable from his calling, and it is difficult to enjoy the delightful letters which his biographer has collected, when we reflect that the time given to them was borrowed at a frightful interest from the hours that should have been devoted to rest. Mr. Nicoll has performed his task gracefully and with fidelity, and we heartily commend his book to American readers.

The New Spirit. By Havelock Ellis. Scribner & Welford.

Mr. Ellis has taken into his brain many ideas, and, in giving them out in this book of essays with some color from his own personality, he affords the best example we have lately had of the fermentation of modern literary thought. He has natural audacity which will shock some and amuse others, and the offhand way in which he makes some novel remark of apparently tremendous significance is, perhaps, the most telling of his traits. The coming destruction of England by the Suez Canal, just like the overthrow of Venice by the discovery of the Cape route, as he thinks, is

mentioned as a thing of course: the mother-country, he predicts, will soon be no more than a museum of antiquities for the colonies. He ventures the assertion that the predominant English strain is Scandinavian, and apotheosizes William Morris as its late incarnation. He goes so far as to intimate that the fact that woman is the practical half of the race involves as its necessary consequence the passing of the practical art of government into her hands, after which happy consummation man, the idealist, will have room to develop in his own sphere of the fine arts and their cognate realms of imagination and fancy. But such matters as these are not the substance of his book—they are only preparatory and by the way; the body of the volume is occupied with a critical exposition of the "New Spirit" already moving in the latest modern world.

The men he has chosen to show forth this regeneration are Diderot, Heine, Whitman, Ibsen, and Tolstoi. It is a sign, probably, of his belief in the degeneracy of his country that there is not an Englishman on the list. The Frenchman represents the starting-point of the change; the German-French-Jew stands for the half-way period of romanticism; the American, Norwegian, and Russian for the things that now are. Each of these essays is a thorough and well-considered piece of work, admirable in information, firm in grasp, stimulating in style, appreciative in matter, and the survey afforded is broad. It is singular that in no place do we find out just what the "New Spirit" is—we are left to make that out for ourselves; and this seems to us a misfortune. We get no further than a vague impression that the democratic and social ideas of the race are growing and spreading; but of their good or evil, their ground or consequence, there is nothing said. In other words, we have here the book of a young mind which finds its new ideas so surprising that it is carried away by the mere current and fervor of the experience of them. They are in reality few, but they seem many; they are old, but they seem new; they are doubtful and confused, but they seem to the mind that entertains them the revolution of the world.

This is the description and, one may say, the transcript of a youthful mind with broad views and various culture. There is, however, a lack of perspective in the scene, and of the reasonable temper, which are generally looked for in any except juvenile work. It is a sign of this intellectual puberty that Mr. Ellis speaks with quite unnecessary frankness of certain parts of Whitman's poetry and theory which even Whitman's admirers are fain to pass over in silence, and that he sympathizes too plainly with the "naturalism" of the poet; and frequently in the volume one comes upon remarks that suggest a pæan upon sex scientifically, philosophically, and poetically. We do not very well understand in America the foreign repute of our great democrat in verse, and the present essay upon Walt Whitman, though it is the most complete we have seen, does not much assist us. He serves here as the exponent of democracy and of the "natural" man, and so helps to fill out the round of ideas; criticism of him, under such circumstances, is of course panegyric. Ibsen brings before us the uselessness of social conventions, and Tolstoi religion undefiled. A final chapter treats more generally of religion, in a large style and unsatisfactorily enough; and so the book ends as it began.

From what has been said it will be seen that error has, to our thinking, no small share in these essays, and that, nevertheless, it is not without a generous quality. Fermentation, the word we originally used, best describes the volume. It is an altogether unusual work, both for its ambition and for its matter; it brings the reader near to some of the marked ideas of the time, though mainly by way of exposition, without adequate criticism; and as a first book it is a sign of a vigorous intellectual mind.

Robert Browning: Essays and Thoughts. By John T. Nettleship. Scribner & Welford. 1890.

NEARLY one-half of the four hundred and fifty pages of this volume were originally published twenty years ago, and marked the beginning of the study of Browning rather on the ethical than the poetical side. The essays were well fitted to open lines of thought, and to bring out the identical moods and principles variously illustrated in miscellaneous poems. Nothing more admirable in this kind of criticism has been produced by later writers, and these original essays are now supplemented by as much more matter dealing largely with the poet's works since 1868 in the same painstaking manner. They are, however, far from being easy reading. The paper upon "Fifine at the Fair," for example, requires as much resolution in the attack by the reader as do the verses themselves, and the other papers, which contain an exegesis of the later poems, are nearly as dry, formal, and difficult. The volume is, therefore, an aid to study, and appeals only to minds capable of intellectual labor of considerable strain. The question of the worth of these prose translations of the poems is secondary to that of the poems themselves; but if one wishes to follow Browning through his later years, he could not find a more conscientious guide. It is interesting to observe in the midst of this mass of explanation that the author protests vigorously against the view that Browning is to be regarded as a preacher and moralist primarily, and not as a poet and artist. His art, nevertheless, is not the subject of any essay. Mr. Nettleship is a thorough devotee of his master, and uses phrases with regard to him which have no excuse for being in a book of criticism. It is clear, moreover, that it is Browning's thought and spirit which have attracted this idolatry, and not his poetry as such. Idolatry has, at all events, led to faithful and prolonged study, such as used to be given to Scripture in old time, and the collected results of this application are valuable to others of the sect. Taken in connection with Mrs. Sutherland Orr's 'Handbook,' this volume ought to be sufficient as a guide to the most persistent and deep-thoughted of all Browningites.

L'Instruction publique en Égypte. Par Yacoub Artin Pacha. Paris: Ernest Leroux. 1890.

IN this the first systematic work of its kind, necessarily the major portion is taken up with an account of the Mohammedan system of education and learning, its methods and history, and the well-known close relationship of all instruction with the religious life of the people. This the author has done systematically and well without too great detail. Though looking through French spectacles, he has performed a valuable service in an impartial manner, freely adding pertinent extracts from English writers and reports not accessible to the general public. One gains from him a good view of the current of modern knowledge meeting the Moslem system from the beginning of this century under the favor of Mehemet Ali, with all its varying checks and flow during subsequent reigns to the present tentative and fairly established plans under a tolerably prosperous financial régime. There are six well-proportioned chapters, followed by six annexes of statistics of schools and their character, number of pupils, names of directors, lists of subjects taught, number of young men sent to Europe from 1813 to the present time, with their subsequent careers, and finally a list of journals, Egyptian and foreign.

Half of the book is taken up with an interesting account of Moslem learning, including references to the great schools of Syria, Asia, Spain, and the great Mosque University of Cairo, "El Azhar," with quotations from famous writers, the Prophet, and others, on the glories and distinctions of the learned. Such a general view is essential to the comprehension of the present state of education in Egypt. The author is at pains to show that learning and science in the centuries of the Moslem conquests were superior to what Christian nations could show, and also that Mohammedanism is not inimical to the enlightenment of the female sex. He quotes freely in support of these statements, and refers to the writings of at least two remarkable Egyptian women. He has published several theses on Oriental subjects, and has had unusual facilities for acquiring accurate information on his present subject; his father and uncle having been members of the first council on public instruction appointed by Mehemet Ali in 1836.

The glory of El-Azhar, founded in 975, mainly in opposition to the Sunnites of Bagdad in the strife of the sects, culminated in the fifteenth century, when 20,000 students thronged its halls. From that time to the present it has steadily declined, and is now little more than a decaying memory and a school of Moslem theology and law. Every community has its mosque or mosques; and its imams, fakirs, and ulemas teach the same petrified system of memorizing the Koran, reading and writing in the Arabic, whether in rude mud hovels or under the shadow of resplendent minarets. It was not until two hundred years after the Conquest that the mass of Berbers became converted to Islamism, and the comparatively small number of Copts are now generally Protestants. Moslems know little beyond the Koran, some romance and poetry, and Arabic grammar, and have long lost the eminence gained by them in the Middle Ages in the cultivation of astronomy, algebra, and the natural sciences. The Copts, Greeks, and "Franks" have for ages carried on the finances and commercial transactions for their masters, the Turks and Arabs.

Among Mussulmans instruction is begun at six or eight years of age, and usually ceases at ten or twelve. Those who go further procure Government employment, or ultimately enter the religious hierarchy, the leaders of the people in all respects. It was the genius of Mehemet Ali that saw the need of change, and let in the stream of Western knowledge, solely to save his country and people. In answer to a question, one of the members of the Council of Education in 1852 stated that about 10 per cent. of males and 1 per thousand of females could read and write. When it is remembered that only in 1884 was the kourbash abolished, in 1882 thirty-two slave-dealers existed in Cairo alone, and the corvée annually caused thousands to perish, this state of affairs need cause no wonder. In 1816 Mehemet Ali engaged Italians to teach military science, and established some schools, mainly, however, for the officers of his army; and he sent forty young men to noted schools in Italy, followed by some others to England, and finally exclusively to France, who were

placed in the administration, in his army, and at the head of native technical schools. The first lot, returning after eight years, were locked up in the citadel at Cairo by their practical sovereign and made to produce translations or original works on technical subjects most familiar to them, which were forthwith printed at the newly instituted printing establishment at Boulak.

In 1836 the first Council and Ministry of Public Instruction was formed, and primary and secondary schools sprang up over Egypt, with special and technical schools in the larger cities and Cairo, including some for music, medicine, and the arts. Pupils from the Turkish and Mameluke families, and white slaves, not being sufficient, the lower Egyptians were *forced* to attend. This scheme was based on French models and was in theory adequate, but practically nearly useless and wasteful, and lasted fifteen years. The succeeding pashas did little or nothing, notably from 1848 to 1863. All this time pupils were kept in European schools, and Ibraham Pasha compelled his officers to send their sons at private expense, hoping for better results from the latter plan. More genuine progress followed the efforts of a Swiss pedagogue, Dor Bey, from 1863 on, who, under great difficulties, established the present Normal or High School at Cairo, the pupils coming from El-Azhar and being prepared as instructors for the schools of the country. The first school for females was opened in 1873.

After 1840, the foreign nationalities and colonies established their own schools with the aid of the Catholic orders, and the Copts were converted to Protestantism in large numbers by the English and American missionaries. After 1860, the American mission-schools attracted notice and extended over the greater part of the country, and were not confined to Copts alone. In the public schools, French, Italian, and latterly English, along with history, arithmetic, geometry, and drawing, are added to the study of the Koran in Arabic. There are also native pious and charitable schools and foundations, and for a short time several large mixed public schools existed in the larger cities, and were frequented by foreign and native children. Orthodox Moslems incessantly object to European instruction and the study of the natural sciences, for, as they justly say, their young men cease to be true believers.

The number of pupils in the primary communal schools in 1887 exceeded 120,000, the number of schools being 7,142. The rate of increase since 1840 is estimated at 4 per cent.; since 1875 at 6 per cent. The number of pupils in schools under foreign auspices is 22,764, more than 15,000 of whom are native Egyptians. It is estimated that at present 25 per cent. of males and 2 per cent. of females can read and write. In 1838 but one female school existed, and that for Copts alone, under Mrs. Leader, an English lady; the number of pupils is now 6,000, and their rapid progress is remarked. In 1840 there were only two journals, official, in Turkish and Arabic and printed at Boulak; now there are thirty-three (eighteen in European languages), and the two official journals are in Arabic and French. The printing establishments number fifteen, the original one at Boulak producing the bulk of educational works and translations into Arabic. In its first eleven years it issued 160 Turkish, Persian, and Arabic books.

The impression made by all this endeavor thus far is considerable, though to the practical Anglo-Saxon, who does not fully realize the *laissez-faire* and indolent character of the people and their mentors, there is hardly any education worthy the name. Little practical application of it is to be seen, and the people as a rule are steeped in the degradation of a truly miserable existence. Poverty, filth, preventable disease, and waste of life strike the traveller nearly as keenly as in other and more distant countries where public instruction is not thought of. We are not told what is the sum annually expended by the Minister of Public Instruction; but, as Government statistics in Egypt on most subjects are wofully inaccurate, the omission is not serious. A fuller index should have been provided.

Winchester. By G. W. Kitchin. [Historic Towns. Edited by E. A. Freeman and William Hunt.] Longmans. 1890. 8vo, pp. xiv., 227.

EXCEPTING London, no English town has a more interesting history than Winchester. It is hard to realize that this quiet little city once rivalled London in importance, and down to the thirteenth century played a very prominent part in the history of England. Dean Kitchin gives an excellent outline of the rise and decline of this historic town.

The author's account of the development of the civic constitution of Winchester is admirable, though very limited in scope. We think, however, that he errs in some matters of detail. There is no good authority for the statements that "in 856 Æthelwulf had granted Winchester a Merchant Guild" (p. 159), and that this fraternity "is said to have been the first corporation permitted to exist within the Kingdom" (p. 166). The Gild Merchant was not established in England until after the Norman Conquest. Equally untenable is the conjecture, that the Knights' Gild of Winchester was "the original civic corporation" of that city, and was merged into the Gild Merchant (p. 74). The word "hantachevesle" (p. 74) would probably have troubled the author less had he known that it is a misreading; "hantachensele" is the proper reading, according to the manuscript of the Winton Domesday owned by the Society of Antiquaries of London. The word seems to mean "the hall of the Knights' Hanse." There were also two other Knights' halls in Winchester early in the twelfth century. Perhaps "tregilda" in the Winton Domesday refers to these three Knights' Gilds. The author thinks that the word refers to the Gild Merchant, the Knights' Gild, and the Palmers' Gild (p. 74).

This volume, more than any other of the series, impresses us with the conviction that the series might have done much more for the advancement of knowledge had its scope been less wide. The list of authors includes such competent historians as Freeman, Creighton, Hunt, Boase, and Kitchin. They are asked to bring out, in each of these small volumes, "the general historic position" of a town, "the special part each played in the general history of the Kingdom." Now the general histories of England and most of the older local histories give much information on this part of the subject, while the development of the municipal government, or the civic constitution of English towns, has been greatly neglected. The series does not aim to fill this void. Dean Kitchin—who has evidently made good use of original local records—would probably have found it a much more congenial task to have given a full account of the history of Winchester's civic constitution, to have traced in detail the growth of the powers of the various conflicting authorities in Winchester (the town magistrates, the King, the Bishop, etc.), and their final consolidation into one municipal government. If not more congenial, it would at any rate have been a more profitable task.

Paris. Par Auguste Vitu. Paris: Maison Quantin; New York: F. W. Christern.

THE Paris Exhibition of 1867 called forth the extraordinary 'Paris-Guide' in two volumes, to which almost every French author of note contributed, and for which Victor Hugo (then in exile) wrote a flamboyant preface. 'Paris-Guide' was an expensive failure, and the fate of its publishers probably deterred any one in 1878 from attempting any very important book about Paris. But last year, when the fourth great French Exhibition was held after the usual interval of eleven years, the Maison Quantin announced a sumptuous tome about Paris, to be written by M. Vitu, illustrated by half-a-thousand views, and to contain about as many folio pages. The ship on the shield of Paris may sail a troubled sea, but it carries a goodly cargo, to which the artists have contributed their full share. Perhaps the first impression made by this lordly volume is one of delighted wonder at the persistence and the continuity, the high value and the wide variety, of French architecture and of French art, as we see them reproduced here to illustrate M. Vitu's summary of the city's history and his outline of its present organization. M. Vitu is the dramatic critic of the *Figaro*, and he is therefore a lively writer; he is an antiquary of fair repute, and he is therefore trustworthy; but the illustrations make the text pale. They are all process blocks, scratchy at times, slovenly even, but effective generally; yet the city they attempt to reproduce is so varied, so beautiful, so rich, so artistic, so full of light and color and life, that the occasional demerits of the drawing disappear before the merits of the thing reproduced.

Walks in Epping Forest. New edition.—*Walks in Holland*, Cycling, Boating, by Rail and on Foot.—*Walks in the Ardennes*, with Boating, Fishing, Cycling, and Shooting Notes. By Percy Lindley. London, 125 Fleet Street.

BRITISH guide-books to the cities or districts of the Continent are sometimes well written, and often contain much valuable information in the fields of history and art; but the information they give about railways, inns, roads, and the like is nearly always meagre, and out of date at that. This is why the Baedeker guides, though ill-printed, and no more interesting than a time-table, are so much used. To our mind, the best guides, if one can read German, are Meyer's; they contain, one may almost say, *everything* which the traveller may wish to know, and their typography, maps, and illustrations are well nigh perfect. The abridgments (called *Wegweiser*) are particularly to be commended to foot-travellers, or those who need to practise economy.

Mr. Percy Lindley, however, has begun to publish a series which are more "practical" than Meyer, even, and give more for the price than any books on any subject with which we are acquainted. Their first merit is, that they seem to have been written because the author loves the country described, and wishes others to share his enjoyment; whereas the usual attitude of a guide-book-maker is that of an auctioneer hired to proclaim the merits of a particular "lot" of places for this occasion only. Mr. Lindley's motto is from Washington Irving: "Recollect, my friend, that I am tired of churches, convents, palaces, galleries of paintings, subterranean passages, and great men. If you have anything else to show me, *allons!*" He has produced, so far, only three

little volumes, printed in two columns of leaded nonpareil, with plenty of maps and lithographed illustrations, good enough for the purpose, though very different from the beautiful little steel engravings of Meyer. All this, bound in boards, in a shape to be easily carried in the pocket, is given for sixpence!

The Brain of an Army. A popular account of the German General Staff. By Spencer Wilkinson, author of 'Citizen Soldier.' Macmillan & Co. 12mo, pp. 115.

THIS is one of a series of military handbooks published in England for the benefit, primarily, of the volunteer service, which have established for the author a high reputation as a military critic. It gives within a small compass a clear idea of the vastness and complexity of the task of mobilizing a great European army and entering upon a campaign with it. It is in relation to this that the author discusses the importance and value of the German General Staff organization, and the manner in which it fulfils the function of the "brain of the army."

An American reader will need to read such a book with an ever-present remembrance of a fact which will only be found between the lines of European publications on the subject, viz., that where hereditary princes are, for political and dynastic reasons, made commanders of armies, the chief of staff becomes the "brain" of the organization in a much higher sense than in cases where the highest command is open to unrestricted competition. With this reservation this little book cannot be too highly commended for the force with which it brings out the idea that modern warfare on a great scale involves problems so vast and so delicate that a trained body of staff officers is necessary, not merely for the administrative and bureaucratic work in the departments of the Adjutant and Quartermaster-General, the ordnance, the commissariat, the Surgeon-General's office, and in the Engineer's, but also for the general assistance of the commander in all that pertains to his handling of the whole army and all its departments as a unit. If a general-in-chief be a man competent to be his own chief of staff, the value of the assistance rendered by a highly trained general staff would be none the less, though more subordinate to his own brain and will.

American soldiers need also to note well that the education given at such a school as West Point is presupposed before an officer enters upon the most rudimentary part of the staff training according to the European idea and practice. Indeed, our military academy can hardly be ranked as a military school at all in the German sense, and unless its graduates supplement their work by independent study in the directions indicated in Wilkinson's chapters, it might be broadly said that there is no staff education in the United States.

What I Remember. By Thomas Adolphus Trollope. Vol. II. Harper & Bros. 1890.

MR. TROLLOPE continues in his second volume the reminiscences of Italy, and his later life there, which he agreeably set forth in the previous one. Much of this volume is devoted to pleasure trips in Switzerland, the Tyrol, Austria, Germany, and France, in which the experience of the general traveller receives illustration. The more interesting portions describe Florence as it was when it was the capital, and the unfortunate effect of the removal to Rome upon his own private fortune. There are, perhaps, fewer notable characters in his list of guests, and less is told of them, but our Minister, Marsh, comes in for pleasant words of remembrance and appreciation; and of Italians Francesco dall' Ongaro, Salvini, Molmenti (and may we not include Rawdon Brown?) are examples. Longfellow also appears in the Florentine drawing-rooms, and Emerson at Rome. Mr. Trollope thought Emerson inferior to Arnold: "To me Arnold appeared a far more many-sided man, gifted with a much larger receptivity, and stronger capacity for assimilating all the mental pabulum to be sucked out of all that was around him"; but it is to be said that Emerson did not seem to like Rome and things Roman. Among the curiosities of the volume are a couple of ghost stories such as the Society for Psychical Research prizes, and a description of the preparation of human flesh made by Signor Marini, who reduced it to the consistency and condition of marble, "capable of receiving the highest polish." The brain and liver were thus treated, and a table is described, "very beautiful and highly polished," of many colors, which was made from different portions of human flesh. The anecdote of Pope Pius IX. consenting to give the reporter of a New York paper his allocution at the creating of Cardinal McCloskey, because he was impressed by the cost of telegraphing it, is entertaining: "Five thousand francs! I rejoice that our words are so highly valued by your people!" Such bits of humor are rare, but there are other anecdotes, pictures of extraordinary spectacles, tourist adventures, and the like, which enliven the book.

Catalogue of the Cuneiform Tablets in the Kouyunjik Collection of the British Museum. By C. Bezold. Vol. I. Printed by Order of the Trustees. London. 1889.

THE Trustees of the British Museum have determined to publish a catalogue of their collection of cuneiform tablets, and they have secured the services of Dr. Carl Bezold of Munich, one of the most painstaking among the younger Assyriologists, for its compilation. The first result of his labors is before us. The Kouyunjik collection comprises nearly one-third of all the cuneiform tablets in the Museum, and the present volume describes about 3,000 tablets. The size of each tablet, its condition, and the number of lines of writing preserved are given; and when tablets have been published, references are added for the text and translation. The catalogue will be most valuable to students using the cuneiform collections of the British Museum, and the Trustees are entitled to the grateful recognition of all interested in cuneiform science for having undertaken the work.

It is much to be regretted, however, that the form of the publication is open to serious exception. The typography is, in some respects, good, the outline cuneiform types being especially commendable. The Roman character employed is also clear, but no attempt has been made to distinguish statements to the eye by the use of different types. The numbers would be of more service at the beginning of the articles than at the end. Catch-numbers at the tops of the pages would have been extremely useful. A judicious selection of technical terms, an avoidance of unnecessary expressions, and the use of a more reasonable system of abbreviations (as for the very common terms "obverse" and "reverse"), would have materially reduced the size of the catalogue.

The English is incredibly bad. The author certainly brings a very serious accusation against Mr. Evetts of the Department of Oriental Antiquities of the British Museum, in acknowledging "indebtedness for a revision of the English text." It is no exaggeration to say that probably no book in worse style has ever appeared in the "English" language. That the Trustees of the British Museum were willing to authorize the publication of the catalogue in its present form is a matter for surprise. To point out the peculiar constructions (which not infrequently leave the reader at sea as to the author's meaning) would require a volume; a few specimen bricks will suffice: p. 52, "obverse and reverse, which are now joined together, belong on this account, and on that of the similar material, writing and contents, apparently to the same tablet, although the two parts do not fit to each other"; p. 60, "and on both sides very large pieces out of the middle are broken out"; p. 66, "on obverse 31, and on reverse 29 lines, of which on obverse considerable parts are broken out, with clear Assyrian characters," etc.

The most serious charge to be made, however, is that the catalogue is subjective and personal in tone throughout. The British Museum, or, for that matter, any other public institution, should not assume the attitude of criticism towards the labors of scientists; its position should be neutral, with no persons or theories to favor. Its mission is to acquire collections and render them accessible to students. And when foreigners are employed in the preparation of scientific publications, a decent regard for the English language should prompt a careful revision of the text.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Butterfield, C. W. History of the Girtys. Cincinnati: Robert W. Clarke & Co. $3.50.
Drysdale, W. The Princess of Montserrat. Albany Book Co.
Field, Rev. H. M. Bright Skies and Dark Shadows. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Ford, S. The Gentle Art of Making Enemies. Frederick Stokes & Bro.
Gilliam, Dr. E. W. 1791: A Tale of San Domingo. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co. $1.
Harrison, L. A Strange Infatuation. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Hurlbert, W. H. France and the Republic. Longmans, Green & Co.
Hutchinson, H. G. Golf. [Badminton Library.] Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Imbert de Saint-Amand. The Wife of the First Consul. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Jerome, J. K. Stage-Land: Curious Habits and Customs of its Inhabitants. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Meissner, Prof. A. L. Practical Lessons in German Conversation. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Murphy, J. G. Practical Mining. D. Van Nostrand Co.
Morris, W. A Tale of the House of Wolfings. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Moyle, J. B. Imperatoris Iustiniani Institutionum Libri Quattuor. 2d ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $5.25.
Murray, W. H. H. Lake Champlain and its Shores. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co.
National Needs and Remedies: Discussions of the General Christian Conference in Boston, Dec. 4-6, 1889. New York: Baker & Taylor Co. $1.50.
Nettleship, J. T. Robert Browning: Essays and Thoughts. Scribner & Welford. $2.25.
On the Chafing-Dish: a Word for Sunday Night Teas. G. W. Dillingham.
On the Relative Advantage of Tubs with Bottoms and Tubs Without. New York: 20 Cooper Union.
Page, Helen F. Fractions: A Teacher's Manual, with Color Diagrams. 2 vols. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Palmer, Prof. A. The Amphitruo of Plautus. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Pantin, W. E. P. First Latin Verse Book. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Pascoe, C. E. London of To-Day. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Payne, F. M. The Legal Adviser: an Epitome of the Business and Domestic Laws of the Several States. Excelsior Publishing House.
Pennell, R. F. Ancient Greece. New ed. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 60 cents.
Pennypacker, I. R. Gettysburg, and Other Poems. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Percival, Prof. H. M. Milton's Samson Agonistes. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Perrot, G., and Chipiez, C. History of Art in Sardinia, Judæa, Syria, and Asia Minor. 2 vols. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. $14.50.
Person and Ministry of the Holy Spirit. Baltimore: Wharton, Barron & Co.
Polyglot Pronouncing Handbook. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Poole, Mrs. H. M. Fruits, and How to Use Them. Fowler & Wells. $1.
Potter, Mrs. V. M. To Europe on a Stretcher. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Proceedings at the Celebration of the 250th Anniversary of the Settlement of Guilford, Conn., Sept. 8-10, 1889. Guilford: H. S. Wedmore. $1.60.
Racine, J. Andromaque. Wm. R. Jenkins. 25 cents.
Roe, A. S. Sir Roger de Coverley Papers, from the *Spectator*. Boston: Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.

Row, Rev. C. A Christian Theism. Thos. Whittaker. $1.75.
Rowbotham, J. F. The Human Epic. Canto 1. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.
Sandeau, J. La Maison de Penarvan. Wm. R. Jenkins. 60 cents.
Sargent, J. Y. Models and Materials for Greek Iambic Verse. Macmillan & Co. $1.10.
Savage, M. J. The Signs of the Times. Boston: Geo. H. Ellis. $1.
Savage, M. J. Helps for Daily Living. Boston: Geo. H. Ellis. $1.
Schmid, Chr. von. Heinrich von Eichenfels. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Shedd, Rev. W. G. T. Proposed Revision of the West minster Standards. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 50 cents.
Skinner, C. R. Arbor Day Manual. Albany: Weed, Parsons & Co.
Smyth, C. P. Our Inheritance in the Great Pyramid. 5th ed. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $5.
Sparhawk, Frances C. A Chronicle of Conquest. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Staley, C. The Teachings of Jesus, Selected from the Gospels. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. $1.
Stead, W. T. The Pope and the New Era; being Letters from the Vatican in 1889. Cassell & Co. $1.50.
Stebbing, W. Peterborough. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Sterrett, Prof. J. M. Studies in Hegel's Philosophy of Religion. D. Appleton & Co. $2.
Stevens, F. H. The Eleventh Book of Euclid's Elements. Macmillan & Co. 30 cents.
Stickney, H. E. The Holy Flower. New York: Walter Morris Pub. Co.
Stockton, F. R. The Stories of the Three Burglars—The Great War Syndicate. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1 each.
Stoddard, W. O. The Red Mustang. Harper & Bros.
Sweet, Prof. H. Primer of Phonetics. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Thanet, Octave. Expiation. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Thayer, Emma H. The English-American. Chicago: Donohue, Henneberry & Co.
The Danvers Jewels. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
The *Dial*. Vol. X. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
The Empire. [Royal England Readers.] Thomas Nelson & Sons.
Thornton, P. M. The Stuart Dynasty. London: William Ridgway.
Thorpe, Prof. T. E. Dictionary of Applied Chemistry. Vol. I. Longmans, Green & Co.
Tiernan, Mary S. Jack Horner: A Novel. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Wilson, G. Portrait Gallery of the Chamber of Commerce of the State of New York: Catalogue and Biographical Sketches. New York.
Wood, Francis H., and Kitchel, Eva P. Warp and Woof; or, New Frames for Old Pictures. Boonton, N. J.: F. H. Wood.

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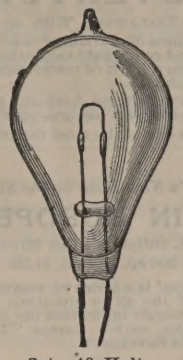

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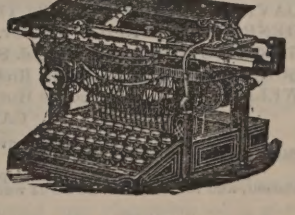

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 8, 1890.

The Week.

THE present state of the Silver Bill at Washington, if there is any such thing, is certainly chaotic. Certain speculators in Wall Street continue to bet on the early passage of a bill, without knowing what it is to be. They assume that there is to be inflation, more or less, and that inflation means higher prices for stocks. We advise them not to be too sure of either of these propositions. It is by no means certain that any bill will pass. It is not certain that a bill increasing the coinage would have the anticipated effect on stocks. The Republican Senators have not come to agreement among themselves, although they have come to a disagreement with the House. Both factions have to reckon with the Executive. The chances of "making a mess of it" are so great that very likely nothing will be done. The Republican party will look out for itself first. It will take no step without knowing what the consequences are to be; and since even the wisest can with difficulty tell what they may be, the progress of any bill will be very slow.

Senator Platt of Connecticut has written a letter to the Hartford *Post* on the subject of silver legislation, which calls for attention on more than one point. In the first place, the Senator intimates that the Republican party is between the devil and the deep sea on this question, thus:

> "In the first place, unless we come to an agreement with the 'silver-men,' a free-coinage bill will be passed by both houses by a decided majority. As near as we can ascertain, it would have 12 to 15 majority in the Senate. The Democrats will propose it, and vote for it with few exceptions, while most of our Western Republican Senators will do the same. It would probably be vetoed by the President. The tendency of such action would be to break up the Republican party, and, worse than that, to array the West and Southwest against the East. We cannot afford that split if it can be avoided."

This is an embarrassing situation, certainly, for those who want to hold the party together, but do not know exactly how to do it. Inasmuch as the outcome of any policy that may be adopted is very dubious, we would suggest the policy of voting for whatever one thinks to be *right* and taking the consequences. If it were perfectly clear that voting for what one thinks to be wrong would bring the party into a safe harbor, then there might be something to say on that side; but since it is not clear, but on the contrary very murky and obscure, one ought to prefer the chances which lie on the side of sound principles of finance. But Senator Platt cannot make up his mind what are sound principles. "All writers on political economy," he says, "admit that if the volume of money is not increased somewhat in proportion to the increase of population and of business activity, and of the creation of new money centres, the real effect is contraction, with a depreciation of value." We have never read anything of this kind in any work on political economy, and we are sure that Senator Platt would find nobody to support such an idea if he were to interrogate successively all the professors of that science in the colleges of Connecticut. These writers and professors "admit" that the volume of money *will increase* in proportion to the need of it, whether that need arise from increase of population or of business activity, or from "the creation of new money centres," whatever that may mean.

Since we began the process of buying silver bullion and coining it on Government account—a scheme of finance utterly unknown in any other part of the world or in our own previous history—a great many people have begun to think that there is no such thing as *gold*, or that if there is any such thing floating about the world, *we* never can get any of it; whereas, we are just the nation that can most easily get it, because we have the most available property to buy it with. Senator Platt seems to think that the only way to obtain money is to "issue" it. "The problem," he says, a little further on, "is to get a moderate but steady issue of money." By no means, dear sir. The gold-miners are "issuing" money enough for all of our purposes. They take it or send it to the mints, and when it is coined they can get gold certificates for it if they don't like to carry the metal around. It costs the public just as much to get silver certificates as it does to get gold certificates. There is not a pin to choose between them on the score of expense to the holder of the certificates. Therefore we beg that when the Senator writes again to tell how he proposes to extricate the Republican party from its situation between the devil and the deep sea, he will at least allow that there is such a thing as gold, and that it moves of its own accord to people who want it and are able to pay for it, and that it makes a very fair sort of money.

The Service Pension Bill passed by the House last week seems likely to take its final shape in a conference committee. It will be remembered that the Senate originally passed a Dependent Pension Bill, which it was estimated would call for an extra outlay of $38,000,000. The House substituted the Morrill bill, which gives a pension to every soldier who served ninety days upon his reaching the age of sixty, and to any soldier under sixty who is disabled from any cause. The Senate has declined to concur in the substitute, and has referred the matter to a conference committee. It will be contrary to all precedents if this committee does not prove favorable to the claim agents. Indeed, the Washington correspondent of the Philadelphia *Press* says that it is the expectation of Senator Davis, Chairman of the Pension Committee in the upper branch, that the measure, when it comes out of the conference committee, will include a dependent clause, "*and will involve a somewhat larger expenditure than the Morrill Service Bill*"—which was about $50,000,000 a year.

Republican organs are beginning to perceive that the policy to which their party is committed in Congress means nothing less than a deficit. The Philadelphia *Press*, for example, has an article entitled "A Little Plain Arithmetic," which points out that the enactment of the Pension Bill which was passed by the House on April 30 will use up the surplus over and above the sinking fund, and that the McKinley Tariff Bill, with its free-sugar clause, will leave nothing for the sinking fund. The Silver Bill which has been agreed upon by the caucus will take $10,000,000, with loss on coinage, and the public improvements contemplated will call for $12,000,000 more than the estimates, while public buildings and other additions to the estimates stand for another $10,000,000. "This," says the *Press*, "is a deficit of $72,000,000, if Congress carries out its present plans and the payment of pensions and the debt both go on. If the payment of the debt is stopped, the reduction of the revenue will take the rest; and the Silver Bill, and public works, buildings, and so on, will still leave a deficit of over $30,000,000." Our Philadelphia contemporary also calls attention to the interesting fact that a deficit for the fiscal year 1891 will be reported on the eve of the next Presidential election, and that "it will call for explanation of a kind which no party in this country has had to make since 1860, when the Democrats had to report a deficit."

It is useless to ascribe the defeat of the Copyright Bill on Friday to mismanagement. Its friends doubtless did handle the procedure very clumsily, but mismanagement could not have killed the bill had there been in the House a stronger sentiment of honesty. The trouble is, that those who are indifferent to the ethical aspect of the case are so numerous that they keep the open friends of dishonesty, the people who like a thing the better because the product of unpunishable theft, constantly on the edge of victory. What happened on Friday is no less disheartening for the friends of good government than for the friends of the bill itself. All we can say to the latter now is not to be discouraged, but to keep up the fight. "If hopes are dupes, fears may be liars." Thieving habits of eighty years are not to be overcome in one year, or may be in ten. In no country in the world should the champion of a good cause be less disheartened by delay than in this, for in none has persistence worked such wonders.

The proposal to have Congress pass a law to prevent gerrymandering in the States would be humorous if the matter were not so serious. The scheme is based upon the claim that partisanship governs the division of States into Congressional districts, which is true; but the preposterous feature is the further claim that partisanship will be avoided by having Congress interfere, as though a Senate in which "Bill" Chandlers are leading spirits, and a House which chooses a Thomas B. Reed as Speaker, were free from partisan bias! We are glad to see that, although the other Republican members of the Committee reporting the bill make an alleged outrage by the Democrats in districting Missouri one of their arguments for the proposed change, Mr. Frank of Missouri, himself a Republican, dissents from their action, saying with entire truth that the bill is intended to cover a political exigency, for the purpose of perpetuating a party in power, and insisting that no constitutional provision ought to be brought into requisition at any time for such a purpose, and certainly not if the power had never before been exercised for the general weal. This is obviously the non-partisan view of the proposition, and it is a sufficient commentary upon the pretence that the change would abolish the partisanship now complained of in the States that only one Republican member of the Committee took this view.

Our esteemed contemporary the *Congressional Record* contains occasionally some apparently trivial statement, which upon examination proves to possess no little importance. Such a statement appeared the other day in the paragraph, on page 4030, which reports the receipt of a message from the President announcing that "the following bills were presented to the President April 14, 1890, and, not having been returned by him to the House of Representatives, in which they originated, within the ten days prescribed by the Constitution, they have become laws without his approval: An act (H. R. 1043) granting a pension to Theresa Herbst, and an act (H. R. 4840) to increase the pension of William Boone." William Boone was an Illinois volunteer, who enlisted in August, 1862, was taken prisoner in November following, and at once paroled, and, while at home on parole and engaged in celebrating the Fourth of July, 1863, at Aurora, Ill., was terribly injured by the discharge of a cannon. Theresa Herbst is a name no better known to fame than that of William Boone; but the act granting her a pension is a notable one, because it establishes for the first time the principle that the Federal Government may reward a man who served in the Confederate Army. John Herbst enlisted in Company G, One Hundred and Fortieth Regiment, New York Volunteers, August 26, 1862, was captured August 19, 1864, soon after joined the Confederate forces, and, after nine or ten months' service in that army, was recaptured by Union troops while in arms against the United States Government. Having taken the oath of allegiance and explained that he deserted to the enemy in order to escape the hardships of prison life, he was released and mustered out of the service October 11, 1865, and died three years later. He had never applied for a pension, but years afterwards an application was put in for a pension to his widow, on the ground that when discharged from the army he was suffering from rheumatism and dropsy.

The noteworthy feature of the Herbst and Boone cases is the fact that similar bills were passed by Congress during the last Administration, and in each case defeated by the veto of President Cleveland. In the Boone case, Mr. Cleveland pointed out that there was no relation whatever between the man's military service and the Fourth of July casualty, and no more reason why he should receive a pension because of that casualty than any companion who chanced to be injured at the same time; and he quoted from a letter written by the soldier, in which he said: "I never thought of trying getting a pension until my old comrades urged me to do so." In the Herbst case Mr. Cleveland presented a straightforward statement of the facts, and then refused his signature on this ground: "The greatest possible sympathy and consideration are due to those who bravely fought, and, being captured, as bravely languished in rebel prisons; but I will take no part in putting a name upon our pension-roll which represents a Union soldier found fighting against the cause he swore he would uphold, nor should it be for a moment admitted that such desertion and treachery are excused when it avoids the rigors of honorable capture and confinement. It would have been a sad condition of things if every captured Union soldier had deemed himself justified in fighting against his Government rather than to undergo the privations of capture." Contrast Cleveland's course with Harrison's. The former saved the nation from the disgrace of rewarding faithlessness; the latter, equally cognizant of the facts, shirks the responsibility of approving such action, while lacking the courage to interpose his veto, and thus allows bills of this kind to become laws.

Gov. Hill, as was expected, filed a "memorandum" on Friday showing that he is a true friend, and almost the only friend of ballot-reform now in public life in this State, and that the public is really indebted to him for all that is good in the bill that has just been passed; that many changes have taken place in the attitude of other people towards this measure, but that he has from the first been steadfast and true. All this is in the nature of light comedy, however, and will contribute much to popular amusement on the Saturday half-holiday. What we should like to see from his pen would be a really serious work on the subject with which he is best acquainted, namely, "Holes." A monograph from him, entitled 'Hill on Holes,' or 'The Holes I Have Been In,' or 'Recollections of Holes by Dave Hill,' would be very widely read, and be a permanent and valuable contribution to political literature.

The issue by a United States judge of a writ of habeas corpus for Kemmler, the convict now awaiting execution in Auburn prison, on the ground that there is a question under the Federal Constitution whether execution by electricity may not be a "cruel and unusual punishment," is one of the oddest judicial incidents of recent times. The question has been passed on, after full argument, by the Court of Appeals of this State. Neither Kemmler nor any one employed or authorized by him, except *ex post facto*, has raised the point. The lawyer who obtained the writ appears to have been an interloper, who did not make known his purpose to Kemmler until after the writ had been obtained. In fact, although he veils his motives in great secrecy, he seems to be really acting neither for the convict nor for the United States Constitution, but in order to satisfy his own mind as to the legality of the use of the electric fluid for penal purposes. We suppose the writ of habeas corpus cannot be refused; but as the return is fixed for June 10, and an appeal may be taken should the decision be adverse to Kemmler, the execution may be considered indefinitely postponed. The arguments of the lawyer who has taken up the case would, if sound, give the Federal courts complete supervision of the penal legislation of every State in the Union, not only as regards manner, but as regards time and other conditions, and, in fact, would give every criminal the chance of two trials before the execution of his sentence.

We presume that the people of New York without a single exception were amazed last week to learn that a bill abolishing capital punishment had passed the Assembly without debate, receiving seventy-four votes, or nine more than a majority of the whole number of members elected. This is a measure of such far-reaching character, so fraught with the interests of society for weal or woe, that whenever, among American commonwealths or among civilized nations, it has been adopted or seriously considered, it has been studied, debated, and sifted in every possible way for years before being finally voted on in the legislative body. To rush such a measure through without any previous discussion in the press, or the pulpit, or on the stump, without any investigation by committees, or any debate in the Legislature itself, is what we might look for in an assemblage of drunken thieves, but hardly in any deliberative body on the face of the earth. The newspaper representatives at Albany are nearly unanimous in charging that the bill has been put through by bribery, and that the money to pay for the votes comes from a moneyed corporation that is interested in preventing the Electrical-Execution Law, passed last year, from going into effect. Certainly something else than public interests must have been the motive power urg-

ing the Legislature to stultify itself in this way. A year ago it passed the Electrical-Execution Law; now it passes another law to prevent that one from going into effect.

The Rev. Dr. Charles H. Parkhurst preached a strong sermon Sunday morning upon the spectacle which this city, "with hundreds of churches and 100,000 communicants," presents to-day as it stands before the world with "all its municipal life dominated by a band of felons, murderers, bribe-takers, gamblers, dive-keepers, and rumsellers, whose only title to candidacy was their deviltry, and their only apology for being elected the apathy of the saints and the subserviency of respectable men to political bossism." This is simply a truthful statement of the case, but the remedy which Dr. Parkhurst suggests for it does not go far enough. He says: "It is as much the duty of a New York Christian to go to the polls on election day as for him to go to the Lord's table on communion day." Mere going to the polls will not answer unless the intent and purpose of the Christian when he gets there be to vote in strict accordance with the needs of the city, without reference to any other consideration whatever. His going will do more harm than good if, when he gets there, he is thinking of how his vote will affect the tariff, or the election of a President or Governor, or some other question not in the remotest degree connected with the city's welfare. If he votes in accordance with any party demands of this kind, he is far more guilty of a neglect of Christian duty than if he had not gone at all —is, in fact, guilty of a breach of trust both as a Christian and a citizen. How did the present "band of felons, murderers, bribe-takers, gamblers, dive-keepers, and rumsellers" get into power? Simply because thousands of Christians went to the polls and voted for Col. Erhardt because his candidacy was a party necessity for a national victory on the tariff, knowing all the time that the sole effect of his candidacy, so far as the city was concerned, would be the election of Grant. Until Christian citizens can take a higher view of their duty as voters than this, it will be much better for the city if they do not vote at all, for their going to the polls is as sure an aid to our present government by criminals as the direct voting of the Tammany gang.

What every Christian and other intelligent citizen should be thinking of when he goes to the polls, is the effect of his vote upon the city and its inhabitants: how it will affect the poor above all others, for they are in the end the worst sufferers from misrule; how it will affect the schools, the paving and care of the streets, the sewers, the docks, the courts, everything that goes to make the city a community regulated by civilized men rather than by a band of thieving barbarians. No citizen can solve this problem wisely if he is thinking all the time of the tariff or the solid South, and of how his vote will affect those questions. He must ask himself: "How will my vote affect the city? Will it help to let the Tammany gang in or will it help to keep it out?" No honest, conscientious voter could have asked himself that question in November, 1888, when Hewitt, Grant, and Erhardt were running for the Mayoralty, and voted for any one save Hewitt; yet 73,037 Republicans, including thousands of Christians, voted for Erhardt because they thought the tariff and Harrison of more importance than the interests of the city. It is useless to denounce Tammany, and to hope to rid the city of its iniquitous rule, so long as Christians perform their duty as citizens in this way. They, and not Tammany, are the culprits, and against them the pulpit should thunder its loudest anathemas.

The exceeding quiet which prevailed in all the great capitals on May Day, and the poverty of the processions, showed what a tremendous uproar is often raised in this world by a very small number of persons. Of course, the military and police preparations may have had much to do with the peaceableness which prevailed, but they cannot have diminished in any marked degree the numbers of those who took part in the public demonstrations. In London 2,000 was the largest muster, in Berlin 20,000 out of 300,000 workmen; and in Vienna there was nothing but a holiday with many meetings which passed resolutions in favor of an eight-hours' working day. In Paris the display was quite insignificant—for Paris—and in New York the labor display passed almost unnoticed. This is all a very good illustration of the folly of the tremors which every now and then run through society about communism, socialism, and anarchism. The number of people who are ready to go beyond speechification in promoting anything that can be called a radical change in the present social organization, is really too trifling for serious consideration. If they were to exert themselves to the utmost, they could not succeed in carrying out their views beyond the creation here and there of a few easily suppressed riots. If this were borne in mind, how much alarmist literature on the labor question we should be saved. Social organizations are based on human nature, and grow along the lines traced out by human nature, and human nature will never agree to pass its life in a huge boarding-house with a lot of ranting orators regulating the diet and hours of sleep of the inmates.

The appearances are now that the Balfour Irish Land Bill will be passed, in spite of the very severe criticism it is receiving from all parties. The *Economist* has had an attack on it of the most destructive character from the point of view of the English financial world, but the trouble is that there is no union among its opponents, a point on which Mr. Balfour dwelt gleefully in his recent speech. The Irish attack it because they have not been consulted about it, but this position is weakened by their also opposing it as a favor to the landlords—something which the landlords deny. If they had rested simply on their right to be consulted about it, they would have produced more effect. Their position is weakened, too, by the fact that the tenants have shown no disinclination to profit by the money already advanced under the Ashbourne Act, over $25,000,000. It is difficult to see why as a matter of business the Irish should refuse to accept the money, as long as the British Treasury is willing to advance it. It is not for them to point out the danger that it will never be repaid, or repaid with difficulty. This is an objection for the British taxpayer to make. The defence, too, has been weakened by Parnell's offering some amendments to the bill without consulting his own side, which the Ministry seem willing to adopt. Where the ministerial calculations will probably fail is in overestimating the effect on the home-rule agitation. There is not the smallest prospect that the Irish will cease in our time to send eighty-six Home-Rulers to the House of Commons, and as long as they do, the home-rule question will remain in the forefront of British politics.

Mr. Depew's announcement, two years ago, of the adoption of the policy of protection by Holland, finds a show of confirmation, though a little late, in recent occurrences in the Netherlands Parliament. A Catholic Deputy, M. Bahlmann, introduced a bill for the levying of a protective tax on cereals. He supported his proposal with the usual protectionist arguments: The farmers were being ruined by foreign competition. A tax for their benefit was to make them rich, and this, in accordance with the mysterious way in which protection moves its wonders to perform, without increasing the price of bread. Almost all the Catholic Deputies favored the measure, as did also some others. But the Government opposed the whole thing, taking the position that the prosperity of Holland depended absolutely on commerce and navigation. The country could not be sufficient for itself, and only under a system of free trade could there be that sharing in the world's trade which was so essential. Holland was almost the first of the European nations to break away from the policy of protection, and the Administration was sure that the country had no desire to return to that folly. The subject was revived afterwards, when the Ministry was interpellated as to the possible effect of the Berlin Labor Conference on the customs policy of the governments participating in it. The Minister for Foreign Affairs, M. Hartsen, took occasion to reassert the determination of the Ministry to persist in the settled fiscal policy of the nation, and pointed out that such subjects had been expressly reserved from discussion at Berlin, so that there need be no fear of an attack on the economic principles of the Netherlands. Mr. Depew has thus not even got an *ex-post-facto* justification.

NEW YORK'S BALLOT-REFORM LAW.

GOVERNOR HILL has approved the Saxton Ballot Bill, which finally passed both houses of the Legislature without opposition. While not so perfect a measure of reform as the advocates of the Australian system hoped to secure, it will bring about improvements in our election methods which will be little less than revolutionary in their power for good. Not one of the vital principles of the system has been abandoned in the compromise which has resulted in the passage of the law, the only changes being in the nature of modifications of some of the methods by which the system is to be operated. Briefly summed up, the law insures to the voters of this State in all future elections (for the law goes into effect on July 1, 1890) a complete system of secret voting with exclusive official ballots, maintained at the public expense, operated by sworn public officials, and removed entirely from the control and interference of political organizations.

The greatest gain of all is the exclusive official ballot or ballots. Under the Australian plan as embodied in the Massachusetts and nearly all other American ballot laws thus far enacted, the names of candidates are placed upon one large blanket ballot, in some instances in alphabetical order, in others in party groups. To meet one of Gov. Hill's objections, the New York law splits the blanket ballot into as many separate ballots as there are parties or factions making nominations, giving to each a ballot, yet without its party name at the top or anything to indicate the politics of its candidates. These separate ballots, together with a blank ballot containing nothing except the names of the offices to be filled at the election, are handed to the voter when he enters the polling-place. Upon each is a coupon, or counterfoil, upon which the ballot clerk puts his official endorsement and the number of the voter, entering the corresponding number opposite the name of the voter on the tally-list. The voter must take all his ballots into a compartment and there prepare one of them for voting. He can paste on one or as many names as he pleases ; he can even paste an entire new ticket over the face of the blank or any other one of the ballots ; or can write an entire new ballot in the blanks ; but he can deposit in the ballot-box only one of the set received, and must fold the others in the same way as if he were going to vote them, that is, with their official endorsements visible for identification, and deposit them, after their coupons have been removed, in a locked box provided for the purpose. When the voter offers the remaining ballot to the clerk in charge of the ballot-box, the latter must tear off the coupon before depositing the ballot, thus removing all chance of identification of ballots in the counting.

Let us consider what is gained by this method of voting. In the first place, there is absolute secrecy. No one is allowed to do any electioneering within 150 feet of a polling-place, and no one is allowed to accompany a voter into a compartment save in cases in which the voter is physically incapacitated to mark his ballot. The result will be, that from the time a voter enters a polling-place till he has discharged his duty, he will be absolutely secluded from espionage or intimidation of any kind. His boss, or employer, or briber may give him a "paster," but can get no proof that he has used it in voting. The same uncertainty will exist in regard to the regular party tickets. Every voter will have a set, but no one can obtain proof as to which one has been voted. As for the independent voter, and the "scratcher" of every sort, he has all the ballots before him in compact form, and can make up his ballot to suit himself with far more ease than he could under the old system.

But the greatest gain for the independent voter is the change in the system of nominations and of ballot distribution. Heretofore it has been practically impossible for an independent movement of any kind to get its ballots distributed at the polls. Hereafter such movements are on equal terms with the most powerful party organizations. If 1,000 voters agree in desiring to have a candidate for Governor or an entire State ticket put in the field, they have only to send in petitions to that effect to have the name or names of their candidates printed on all the ballots and handed to every voter at the polls. Fifty voters, and less according to the size of the locality, can have the name of any candidate they agree in favoring placed upon the ballots for any except a State office or Brooklyn and New York city offices. In this city and Brooklyn 300 voters can have the name of a candidate for Mayor or any other city or county officer put on the ballots and distributed in any polling-place; and 100 voters will be sufficient to have the same results accomplished for member of the Legislature or other district officer. This is an incalculable gain. It puts it in the power of the respectable voters of the city to confront the political machines with a complete Citizens' ticket, whenever the former fail to make satisfactory nominations, and to get that ticket honestly distributed at the polls, a thing which under the old system was, of course, impossible. The expense of printing and distributing ballots for any movement in opposition to the regular political organizations in this city has heretofore been anywhere from $60,000 to $100,000, with slight chances for fair distribution even then, as the hired workers almost invariably betrayed their trust to the machines.

All excuse for "assessments" upon candidates is taken away by the law, for all expense of elections is henceforth to be borne by the State. This is a blow at Tammany's most abundant source of income, for it has been the custom of that organization to levy a grand total of assessments upon candidates which was from three to five times the amount actually disbursed in electing them. It is pretty well known that the late John Kelly laid the foundation for his handsome fortune with the surplus of these assessment funds. Whether Tammany will continue the practice of selling its nominations to the highest bidder in this way, is doubtful. It will have great difficulty in doing so safely if the Governor's amendment to the Corrupt Practices Act passes the Assembly as it has passed the Senate. That requires a complete itemized statement from all campaign committees, as well as candidates and their agents, of every dollar received and expended, and if it becomes law, Tammany can rest assured that there will be efforts made to have it strictly enforced.

"THE PARTING OF THE WAYS."

ARE they who discussed the Worsted Bill in the House at Washington on Tuesday last quite sure that they went to the bottom of the question presented by the bill ?

Congress cannot give an interpretation of the Tariff Law of 1883 which the judicial power is bound to obey as statute-law in a case now pending in the law courts between a tax-gatherer and a tax-payer. If Congress were in 1890 to endeavor to say what Congress intended in 1883, that would be an endeavor to exercise judicial power. Therefore Congress can do nothing that will, in pending cases, constrain the law-courts in deciding what Congress meant by the tariff law of 1883. What Mr. McKinley or Mr. Carlisle may think Congress intended in 1883 is quite irrelevant and inconsequential. Not a member of the present Congress would be heard if called as a witness to testify in court what Congress intended in 1883 by "woollen" or by "worsted." Congress can pass a declaratory law binding in the future—only in the future—but that would be prescribing a new rate on "*worsted* cloth." It is misleading and confusing persiflage for any Congressman to declare now what Congress meant seven years ago when it used the fifty-years-old phrase, "manufactures of worsted." That meaning is for the courts, not Congress, to discover.

A majority of the Ways and Means Committee wishes and intends, in 1890, to exclude importations by hook or by crook, by the taxing power or the commercial power—*fas aut nefas*—but Congress had not come to that decision in 1883. The intentions of 1890 cannot be injected into the laws of 1883. And yet the contention of President Harrison—echoed by the majority of the Republican Ways and Means—that we should endeavor in this country to prevent foreign trade, excepting so far as it may be found necessary to import articles which our country cannot possibly be made to produce, is not novel. We have heard little of it for a dozen years, because Democrats have controlled the House and the contention could not be embodied in legislation; but we hear of it now because protectionists do now control the Government at Washington.

"Protection" is an imported plant. We took it from England. Protection and a tariff *only* for revenue cannot live together. That is what the leading teachers of protection in this country have always taught. Mr. Carey, in his 'Past, Present, and Future' (p. 472), says: "Tariffs for *revenue* should have no existence. Interferences with trade should be tolerated only as measures of self-protection." Prof. Thompson, in his 'Political Economy' (p. 232), says: "Duties for *revenue* . . . are highly un-

just." Nearly fifty years ago were printed in the '*Tribune* Almanac' the very contentions set forth in the recent majority report by the Ways and Means Committee, as one can see in the Almanacs for 1842 and 1846. In that for 1842 is a paper by Charles Hudson of Massachusetts, which pursues the line of argument of the report with much greater literary skill. In that for 1846 (p. 12) Horace Greeley condemned the policy which kept European cloth-makers on the European continent and American grain-growers on this continent, as one of "great improvidence and waste." The cloth-growers should be brought hither. Further on he formulated this proposition, which in 1890 is to be put into our statute-book: "Let us encourage and *diversify* home production until everything to which our position is genial shall be produced on our own wide-spread territory and fertile soil." Our Mr. Evarts said not long ago that he should be ready for free trade only "when protection had so far developed all our industries that the United States can sell in competition with all the world, and at the same time be free from the necessity of buying *anything* from all the world." He looked to American primacy in production and trade as an object to be accomplished not by striking off our industrial fetters created by taxes on arriving raw materials, but by closing our ports, isolating our country, compelling ourselves to buy only American products, bounty-feeding our industries by taxes, and only opening our ports whenever we could produce everything and supply ourselves. When that can happen Prof. Thompson intimates (p. 223, where he says) that "it will ordinarily take the life-time of two generations to acclimatize thoroughly a new manufacture, and to bring the native production up to the native demand."

One sees that such a contention cannot be encountered successfully by displaying tables of percentages showing how much we are taxed on articles we consume, for protectionists will reply that, great as the taxes may be, protectionists will increase them till the foreign article is excluded; and if taxes will not do it, we will exclude under the commercial power. We are not seeking revenue, they will say, or to adjust taxes, but to exclude the foreigners' products. If driven to the wall, protectionists may adopt a "tariff for revenue only," like the British tariff, on articles we cannot produce, in order to get revenue, and then put an embargo on foreign articles similar to those which we can produce if we will expend money enough thereon. Protectionists are "fooling and monkeying" when they babble about revenue as the chief object, protection as an incident. They allure Democrats into a *cul de sac* when they lead them to fancy that is the real issue. Protectionists now concede that protection has not protected, but they insist that the failure has been because the country has not been protected sufficiently by taxes on foreign imports. Currency reform and taxation reform have, in a Democratic sense, gone backward if the pending silver demand and the pending protectionist demand shall be embodied in law. Instead of more free raw materials, we are to have their importation less free. The Chinese wall is to be strengthened and built higher. Democrats in Congress cannot prevent it this session, unless there shall be Republican defection. If the pending tariff bill shall be enacted, it cannot by Democratic votes be repealed till 1895 at the earliest.

If the policy of the two McKinley bills is to be our American policy, then of necessity there will be less and less each year of foreign trade, and less and less need of subsidized vessels for transportation. We shall have less and less need of a navy, unless to blockade our own ports, keep out the hated merchandise of the foreigner, and repel his assaults on our Chinese wall. Clearly we have come to "a parting of the ways."

THE SERVICE PENSION BILL.

With only a brief period for discussion, the House of Representatives last week passed a bill which introduces a new principle in the pension system—that of granting a pension of eight dollars a month to any man who served in the army or navy, beginning when he reaches the age of sixty and continuing during the remainder of his life. The bill also allows a similar pension to any soldier under sixty who is disabled, no matter what the cause of such disability, and to the widow of any soldier when she shall reach the age of sixty, or when she shall be without other means of support than her daily labor.

This measure is a substitute for the Dependent Pension Bill recently passed by the Senate, and no doubt is entertained that the upper branch will agree to it and that the President will sign it. It is therefore as good as settled that this vast extension of the pension system will be effected within a very short time. No more important measure will be passed by the Fifty-first Congress than the bill which was rushed through the House on April 30 with only three hours allowed for debate.

Mr. Morrill of Kansas, who stood sponsor for the bill, estimated the number of persons who would be put upon the pension roll under its provisions at 440,000, which would involve an additional annual cost of $39,629,000. This estimate, however, was based upon the age limit of sixty-two years, for which sixty was afterwards substituted, so that Mr. Morrill's own figures would run the yearly bill considerably above $40,000,000. Mr. Grosvenor of Ohio, who also wished to depreciate the importance of the change, said that this bill, added to the Prisoner of War Bill, when the latter was passed, would add 450,000 names to the pension roll, and would make that roll consist of 950,000 names, while the total expenditure for pensions would reach $150,000,000 per annum. All experience indicates that the estimates of its friends will fall far short of the demands actually made upon the Treasury; and judging from such precedents as that afforded by the Arrearage Bill, it is safe to say that the Morrill bill will call for at least $80,000,000 a year.

The passage of this bill practically disposes of the surplus. Secretary Windom's estimate of receipts for the coming fiscal year was $385,000,000, and of expenditures, including the sinking fund, $341,430,477, leaving a surplus of $43,569,522. The estimate of expenditures allowed only $98,587,252 for pensions, instead of the $140,000,000 or $150,000,000 which the advocates of the Service Pension Bill admit will be needed. To carry out other extravagant schemes which are projected, it will be necessary to repeal the sinking fund or to increase taxation. In either case the Secretary of the Treasury will be unable to redeem the $114,000,000 of 4½ per cents which fall due on the 1st of September, 1891.

But the great expense of this pension scheme is the least of its evils. The nation can afford to increase its outgoes by $40,000,000, or even $80,000,000, a year if it is wise to do so. The trouble about the service and dependent-pension policy is that it demoralizes alike the immediate recipients of the bounty and the communities in which they live. A large proportion of the half-million of people who are to be added to the pension roll are persons who have no possible claim to consideration. Some of them were worthless as soldiers during the war; others are now "hard up" simply because they have grown shiftless and dissipated since the war; others are well-to-do, and in no possible need of any increase to their income. The simple fact about the matter is, that any old "bummer" who can establish the fact that he was connected with the Union Army in any way for ninety days, even if he got no further than the recruiting camp, may now have his name placed on the pension-roll and draw $8 a month for the rest of his life; and so, too, may any prosperous comrade who has amassed a competence since the war.

Moreover, it must be considered that the age restriction will soon disappear entirely. It has just been cut down from sixty-two to sixty years, and it will not be long before the Congressional demagogues will advocate its abolition, on the ground that some men are as old and as much in need of help at fifty as others at sixty, and that discrimination is unfair. We may as well, therefore, take it for granted that at no distant day everybody who had anything to do with the Union Army, good, bad, or indifferent, will be placed on the pension roll.

The spectacle of hundreds of thousands of men drawing from the Federal Treasury $100 apiece a year to which they have no just claim, will have a most unfortunate effect upon their neighbors, and thus, as they will be scattered all over the North, upon the general public. It debases patriotism to a money basis, and makes love of country too nearly equivalent to love of the almighty dollar, and the war for the Union altogether too much like a war for the spoils.

A NEW MOVE IN COLUMBIA COLLEGE.

The Trustees of Columbia College, under President Low's initiative, adopted on Mon-

day a report which completely reorganizes the College and puts it definitively on the footing of a university, with faculties of philosophy, political science, mines, and law, each independent in its own sphere, but working under a university council made up of representatives of each faculty and of some selections made by the President. The University will give the Master's and Doctor's degrees, and the Council will "advise the President as to all matters affecting these degrees, the correlation of courses, the extension of University work in new and in old fields, and generally as to such matters as the President may bring before it."

The importance of all this, which may not at first sight be perceptible to those who are not familiar with university matters, is that it contains a further, and, indeed, full recognition of the fundamental principle of university organization, which has hitherto had so little countenance in American colleges, namely, that the teaching body, and not the property or the managers of the property simply, are the university; that you may have millions of endowment and acres of buildings, but if the teaching body are not in control of the things to be taught and of the manner of teaching them, you have no university. Considering how largely American colleges have owed their foundation and growth to voluntary contributions from men who never had the advantages of a university education, and had achieved their own success in life by the successful application of commercial standards to the various problems which confronted them, it is not surprising that even our best colleges are only now emerging from the condition of large estates to be prudently managed by business men, and the professors from the rôle of tutors called in to give such instruction to children as fond parents may think suitable. Until within twenty years, in truth, the only colleges which had secured emancipation from the property theory were the denominational ones, over which the clergy naturally exercised at least coördinate jurisdiction with the moneyed men. The others lay under the yoke without much hope of release, until a layman was appointed President of Harvard, and the Johns Hopkins foundation was put in charge of another with full powers.

Since then it is no exaggeration to say that there has been a great awakening among American colleges and great progress made in the direction of devoting their endowments to giving young men the higher education, instead of teaching the rudiments to young boys. This latter is really what Columbia did in the first quarter of the present century. The public knew very little more, and cared very little more, about what passed within its walls than about what passed within the walls of any day-school in this city. The first sign of any real development took place under Dr. Barnard, who had sound and large views of university functions; but he was, until within a few years of his death, when age had abated his powers, hampered by the property theory. Mr. Low is the first President who has entered on his functions untrammelled, and with adequate ideas of the true work which a university has to do for the community, and of the true relation of the property, and the buildings, and libraries, and laboratories to the teaching body. They are the university. They would be the university if the buildings were burnt down and they were giving instruction in tents in a vacant lot.

John Stuart Mill, in a famous article on universities written forty years ago, said the true function of a university was to "cultivate philosophy," meaning by philosophy mainly the laws of the human mind working in every field of thought. It would be foliy for us to seek to put any of our universities wholly within the borders of this definition. The true work of an American university is to furnish to every man a fair chance to attain all attainable knowledge in every field of human activity, and to furnish it in such wise and through such channels that no eager student, no one even who loves knowledge for its own sake simply, shall turn away unsatisfied and say that he can do better abroad. The greater the demand is for knowledge "with money in it," to use the slang phrase, the greater the need of provision, above all in this country, for those who love the "still air of delightful studies," and feel how much the salvation of the modern world must depend on the size of the class which is devoted to "the things of the spirit." No high standard of scholarship can ever be maintained, and no such appreciation of knowledge as will lead young men to scorn delights and live laborious days in search of it, can be maintained or cherished in any institution in which the professor's office is not magnified and his judgment exalted to the utmost. The present reorganization at Columbia looks distinctly in this direction. It must have the effect of stimulating the love of culture among the undergraduates, of making the University, more than ever, what all our colleges ought to be, but what only a few really are, a seat of learning.

BROWNELL'S FRENCH TRAITS.

PARIS, April 17, 1890.

IT would take too long to analyze all the causes of the extraordinary indifference to foreign criticism which is one of the traits of the French national character. I will only say here that it must not be confounded with what we call chauvinism. It is not a form of pride, it is not a pretension of the "grande nation." It is something much deeper: it arises from a conviction that, such as we are, we cannot be well understood by anybody but ourselves, and that, whatever our failings may be, we have been for a long time, and are still, in the forefront of civilization. You will never find a well-bred Frenchman boast much about his own country, its literature, its victories, its art; you will find hardly any who does not take a permanent inward satisfaction in the feeling that he is a living atom in that great body, "France."

It will always be a somewhat ungrateful task for a foreigner to write an essay of comparative criticism on France—at least, if his object is to be read by the French. The task is difficult, and the reward is uncertain. I have read with much interest the 'French Traits' in which Mr. W. C. Brownell has condensed his observations on France. He has studied carefully our social instinct, our morality, our intelligence, our sentiment, our manners, our women, our artistic instinct, the spirit of our princes, our democracy. His mind is subtle, catholic, and generous. There is in his style a certain fluidity which makes it sometimes difficult for him to condense his thought. He has such a desire to be just and impartial that he sometimes takes us round and round a subject without allowing us to stop and to have a quiet and definitive view.

Mr. Brownell, with reason, attaches much importance to the sociability of the French people, and he may be right when he looks to the Catholic religion as one of the causes of this sociability. He says that fraternity is, as it were, "in the air" in France, and he adds that this sentiment "is the poetic side of the notion of equality." It is, he says further, on account of its intense sociability that "France is so inexhaustibly interesting—because, in one way or another, she, far more than any other nation, has always represented the aspirations of civilization, because she has always sought development *in common*, and because in this respect the ideal she has always followed is the ideal of the future."

It will always be difficult for us to know ourselves, much as we may try to follow the Greek precept. The difficulty is the same for a nation as for an individual, and nations are, even less than individuals, given to self-inspection. They follow their hereditary instincts; they learn to look upon their prejudices as if they were virtues, and upon their selfish aspirations as if they were the duties imposed on them by destiny. Sometimes they hear a word of truth from the mouth of a foreign judge; but if the truth is unpleasant, they console themselves easily with the reflection that the judge is incompetent, or biassed in his opinions by his national prejudices. I have often been struck, however, in this respect by the differences which are to be noticed in various countries in their sensitiveness to foreign criticism. It may, in a general way, be said that the older a nation is, the more insensible it becomes. Young nations are like young people, who are easily moved, and who do not bear criticism with equanimity. It must be remarked, also, that criticism does not touch us in the same manner when it comes from different quarters. We don't much mind the criticism of a Japanese, or a Chinaman, or a Bulgarian. An American, who will hardly pay any attention to the remarks of a Spaniard, an Italian, I might perhaps say also a Frenchman, will be much more attentive to the observations of an intelligent Englishman. The reason of this is obvious: we like to be judged by our peers. Community of race, community of thought, will always establish intellectual ties between the various members of the Anglo-Saxon family.

I should infer, from my own observations, that of all nations the French are probably the least susceptible of paying much attention to the criticisms of other nations. Saint-Simon likes to say, when he speaks of some very proud man of quality, "Il se sent"—he feels himself, he is conscious of himself. I look in vain for words to translate exactly his terse expression. So does the French people "feel itself"; it has the assurance which is given by centuries of high

culture and of glorious history. A Frenchman will look with absolute indifference on the caricatures of *Punch* or of *Kladderadatsch*, and if there is something clever in them, he will be the first to enjoy it.

In his chapter on the social instinct, Mr. Brownell cites certain words of Gambetta's, but they were not faithfully reported to him. Gambetta was no Socialist, and in one of his speeches he attacked Socialism. Mr. Brownell writes: "There are no questions," said Gambetta superbly, "but *social* questions." What Gambetta really said was this: "There is no Social Question—there are social questions," meaning that the social difficulties must be treated and attacked one by one, but that there is no universal panacea for all the troubles of human society.

Having attached so much importance to French sociability, Mr. Brownell will not surprise us when he writes that "French morality is a direct derivative of the social instinct. Owing to the development of this instinct among them, morality is rather a social than an individual force, and the key to its nature is to be found in the substitution of honor for duty as a mainspring and a regulator of conduct." The distinction is a very plain and a very real one. Between the two there is all the difference that there is between the inspiration, say, of Lovelace's fine lines:

"I could not love thee, dear, so much
Loved I not honor more";

and that of Wordsworth's apostrophe:

"Stern daughter of the voice of God."

This chapter on "Morality" is remarkably fair. Mr. Brownell does not follow the vulgar prejudice which would find the French lacking in moral sense; he understands the French view of morality, the Latin view. He can be just to our ideal, which is partly elaborated in the depth of conscience and partly external. I cannot quite agree with him when he says that religion has not much to do, in our time, with this ideal, and when he affirms that "the great body of the French people is Voltairian.' The question which keeps our people rent in twain, so to speak, is the religious question. The *Kulturkampf* which was inaugurated by Gambetta when he said, "Le cléricalisme, c'est l'ennemi," resulted in the election to our last Chamber of Deputies of 200 Opposition members. (There are, in the present Chamber, about 180 Opposition members; but you must always keep in mind the tremendous power of the Administration in France.) I believe there is no exaggeration in saying that religious ideas have not lost their force with half the nation at least; and if you analyze the sentiments of the unbelievers, you will find them very different from those of the philosophers of the eighteenth century. See what a distance there is between the philosophy of 'Candide' and the philosophy of Renan. Even in science, you feel a deep religious aspiration. Musset said:

"Qui de nous, qui de nous va devenir un Dieu?"

I remember reading, during the Exhibition, excited lines by a clever writer who compared the rays of light shining from the top of the Eiffel Tower to the *Labarum* of Constantine. How difficult, indeed, is any analysis of French character. To-day, one will say with Voltaire, "Et cependant, cultivons notre jardin"; the next day, another will tell you that there is no happiness except in sacrifice. Balzac's "Human Comedy" shows you all the shades, all the extremes of French morality—the heroes, the saints, and the sinners.

It would be ungrateful in us to find fault with Mr. Brownell, when his sympathy for us leads him almost to partiality. His power of admiration seems never to abandon him. He enjoys the sensations obtainable from our café concert entertainments, and contrasts them with "those produced by the melancholy songs and the burnt-cork buffoonery under whose benign influence the Anglo-Saxon sensibility is so wont to expand." He admires excessively 'Madame Cardinal,' that creation of M. Ludovic Ha'évy's, and thinks that "these brief pages of *genre* will live as long as any masterpiece of the kind in literature." He calls it "a contemporary national document of the first class." He speaks of the "immensely clever and impressive work of M. Guy de Maupassant and M. Richepin." But his criticisms are, on an average, very just, very correct. The chapter on "Intelligence" shows the greatest familiarity with all our writers, even those who have not yet attained great fame. The stars of the first magnitude do not make him blind, and he can see the failings of Alexandre Dumas the younger, of Taine, even of Renan and of Victor Hugo.

In a "Tableau de Paris" manners and women must necessarily take a large place. Is it true that with us "le charme prime la beauté"? One of our poets—I believe it was Voltaire—said, "la grâce, plus belle encore que la beauté," but beauty, real beauty, will always hold her own, even in Paris; and if I needed a proof, I could find some examples in the American colony of Paris. Madame Récamier, when she was getting old, said to a friend: "Ah, my dear, it is all over. When I walk the streets, the little chimney-sweeps don't turn their heads any more." They do turn their heads at many whom I could name, and who do not all fall under this definition of Sébastien Mercier: "French women are remarkable for piercing, mischievous eyes, elegant features, and sprightly countenances, but fine heads are very rare among them." Mr. Brownell seems to share the opinion of Mercier. He tells us that "Mme. Sarah Bernhardt is well known to be what is called a *fausse maigre*"; in the balls of the Faubourg St. Germain, in the bal de l'Opéra, "the face may be positively common, but the figure is nearly sure to be superb." These are perhaps trifling remarks to make in a philosophical study of the position and the influence of women in French society. This influence, however, is well analyzed. There is not in France, as there is in America, "a separation and exaltation of woman's sphere far above contact with the rude strife of natural passions and complex interests, the intricate and absorbing conflict of business, politics, amusement, and ennui, of which the real drama of life is composed."

I have no room left to speak of the last chapters on the "Art Instinct," "The Provincial Spirit," "Democracy." This last chapter especially is particularly interesting, as it is a sort of justification and vindication of the action of the Republican party and the Republican Government during the last twenty years. This part of the work is, in my opinion, too journalistic—if I may use the word—too polemical. There is more originality in the concluding chapter, "New York after Paris." We go to Europe to become Americanized, said Emerson. Mr. Brownell says very amiably that "France Americanizes us less than any other country in Europe."

THE TRIUMPH OF AN IDEA.

FORLÍ, April 12, 1890.

AURELIO SAFFI is dead! To-day the city that gave him birth on the 13th of October, 1819, is overflowing with a sad, silent multitude, who have come from the remotest parts of Italy to pay the last tribute of love and sorrow, and accompany his remains to their last resting-place in the cemetery where his ancestors repose and where his noble-hearted mother was laid by other hands than his, while he was toiling in his exile to free the land, then crushed in the entwined embrace "of Pope, of Emperor and Kings," which now echoes his name in the palace of Italy's one King and in the meanest hovel of his beloved Romagna.

Six and thirty years ago with Saffi we undertook a tour throughout England and Scotland to lecture on "Italy for the Italians." Of sympathy there was plenty, nor was help refused; but of belief that the Italians would ever expel their foreign and domestic tyrants, and uprise from the ashes of the past a united, independent nation—only a dreamer here and there indulged in this wildest of Utopias. Saffi did believe—indeed, seems to have been born with the certainty—and from his boyhood worked instinctively to transform the idea into reality. By birth an aristocrat, by inclination a student—nay, a very bookworm—his gentle manners, noble form, and sweet, thoughtful face won every one who came in contact with him. "Could this be a Republican, this courteous gentleman—one of the demagogues, the triumvirs of Republican Rome—Mazzini's *alter ego?*" asked Englishmen who knew not Joseph in the olden days. And little thought many a reader of the Blue Books on Italy that one of the first important documents published in 1846 was penned by this young student of Forlí, fresh from the University of Rome, where he had just taken his degree. Nor did Saffi himself know till quite lately that the protest which he drew up in the name of the patriots of the Romagna against the pretended reforms of the Papal Government, had been considered of such importance by the English Ambassador as to be treated in official fashion. It occupies twelve pages of the Blue Book's correspondence on the affairs of Italy, part i, and so complete is the idea of national existence that it merits perusal even now.

Saffi was then in Rome, ostensibly practising law. He belonged to the secret society of patriots whose centre was Forlí, and when two Monsignori, Janni and Ruffini, were sent to calm the turbulent spirits of the Romagna with promises of reform, he was chosen to draw up a protest against the false promises and the party who could be contented by them. The revolutionary animus of the protest was in marked contrast to the prayers and supplications of the moderate faction for reforms, for a little breathing-space for one province, for one State. Then came Pio Nono, and when he blessed Italy the Romagna worshipped him; when he withdrew his benediction, he was himself accursed, fled to Gaeta, and the Romans elected their Assembly, which proclaimed the downfall of the temporal power and the Roman Republic. Saffi, elected deputy for Forlí, only entered into correspondence with Mazzini at the close of 1848; he was named Minister of the Interior before Mazzini, working in Tuscany for unity, came to Rome. We have before us an unpublished letter, in his own clear handwriting, to his mother, whom he was never more to see, dated Rome, April 29, 1849. On the morrow, the 30th of April, the French, under Oudinot, attacked the city, were defeated and driven back. The rest of Rome's truly glorious tale is known. Saffi, triumvir with Mazzini and Armellini, resigned when further defence was proclaimed impossible. After a few months in Switzerland with Mazzini,

Saffi also came to London, returning to Italy in disguise. There, in 1852, he was the soul of the conspiracies that kept the Pope and Austria in hourly terror. Returning to England, he earned his living by his pen and as a professor at Oxford. When the war of 1859 was proclaimed, he would take no part "with the murderer of Rome for ally," but, immediately after the peace of Villafranca, cast in his lot with his countrymen, affirming their right to decide on their own form of government. Garibaldi in 1860 offered him the prodictatorship of Sicily, but he declined. After the plébiscite in homage to national sovereignty, he entered Parliament, and was one of the most active members of the first Italian Parliament from 1861 to 1863. Then, with Garibaldi, Bertani, and others, he resigned, and never again would stand as candidate or accept a seat when elected.

During his exile in England he married Georgina Crawfurd, sister of the Scotch member, and found in her a devoted helpmeet in his work, an exemplary mother to their four sons. The struggle for national existence over, his old student proclivities returned in full. His life was spent in study and in striving by every effort in his power to elevate morally, and materially ameliorate, the condition of the populations of the Romagna, where the long abasement of priestly rule had left such deep and terrible trace. Gentle as a child in all his relations with rich and poor, he could be terrible in his ire against sin and sinners. Deeds of blood—stabbing in the dark—are but too common still, but Saffi's deliberate, constant crusade against all violence or lawless action has reduced them to an extent that would alone justify his title to patriotism. He was a republican to the core, and as such demanded of his co-religionists "purity of life, obedience to law, fulfilment of duty, the fountain of all right."

When Mazzini died in 1872, Saffi devoted himself to the publication of the great teacher's writings, prefacing each volume with a lucid exposition of the times and circumstances in which it was penned. In 1875 it seemed to Saffi and other republicans that the time was come for all to take part in political elections; that all who had not a conscientious scruple or personal repugnance to take the oath to monarchy, should enter Parliament and strive to wring from the Government the long promised, never effected reforms. The moderates, dreading his influence, resolved to prevent the consequences. Villa Ruffi, where a private meeting was being held, was invaded, Saffi and others seized, handcuffed, and dragged to prison. After three months' detention, he was released and "absolved." This act precipitated the downfall of the moderates. Saffi made no fuss, no protest, returned to S. Varano, where he farmed his little estate on the half-and-half métayer system, and wrote his chief work, on 'Alberico Gentile,' "that synthesis of the law of nations; pages," says Giuseppe Ceneri, "which are inspired by immutable faith in the progress of humanity towards ever higher, ever purer ideals." Such was the enthusiasm created by this work among cultivated and thoughtful men that the municipality of Bologna named "Count Marcus Aurelius Saffi" honorary citizen, inscribing his name in its golden book. And the University of Bologna invited "this patriotic philosopher, this sapient jurist, to enter its ranks and assist the other professors in the education of the young generations on the broad lines of law and civic wisdom."

So in 1878 Saffi was created *dottore collegiato onorario* of the Faculty of Jurisprudence in the University of Bologna. His lectures were frequented by professors as well as by students. First he gave a course on "Public Law in the Italian Communes from the descent of Otto I. into Italy to the famous Lombard League"; then on "The Origin and Causes of the Difference between the Political and Judicial Institutions of England and the Other States of Western Europe which arose in the Middle Ages from the ruins of Roman Civilization"; later, on "Public Law in Ancient Italy, Ancient Rome, and the Middle Ages." He was engaged on a course of lectures on the "History of Diplomacy and Treaties" when, some three months since, the first attack of illness prostrated him. Over-study, over-work was the cause, for his lectures at the University never interrupted his arduous toil over Mazzini's writings. His preface to the seventeenth volume, giving the true story of the Paris tragedy of 1871, is a masterpiece. It was impossible to induce him to rest sufficiently, and on the eve of his death, hastened by his last public appearance at the inauguration of Mazzini's bust in Forlí, he had prepared his papers for returning to Bologna and continuing his lectures. The text of Mazzini's eighteenth volume is prepared, with a sketch of the preface; and he had also superintended the choice and copying of Mazzini's letters to political and private friends, and especially to his worshipped mother, the copies being made by his devoted wife, Georgina, now the heart-stricken widow. Death came suddenly as he was sleeping by her side. Only the youngest son of four was with her at S. Varano. The other three came too late to see the father alive; but they are all noble fellows, and will prove worthy of the name they bear.

To friends the blow is as unexpected as it is terrible. Only last week Saffi, reported as quite convalescent, sent to us in Mantua urgent appeal for such letters of Mazzini's as are in our hands, and wrote a beautiful letter to the son of Achille Sacchi, after the death of that noble patriot, one of the defenders of the Roman republic, wounded on the day that Manara was killed and Rome occupied by the French. A letter breathing all the simple, absolute belief in God, in immortality, in the one mission of man to do his duty to his fellowmen here below, one rarely reads in these days, but it was the heart and soul of Saffi, who perhaps alone among Mazzinians shared the religious views of his friend and master.

And now all is over. We have left him alone in the subterranean vault of the cemetery of Forlí, not less than 20,000 mourners following the hearse with reverent, sorrowful step. It has been no official ceremony, though the municipality of Forlí undertook the funeral, and the Syndic, with Menotti Garibaldi, Fortis, Under Secretary of State for the Home Department, representing the Government, with other six, representatives of municipalities and workingmen's societies, bore the pall. No! Saffi was loved and reverenced as the good genius of the Romagna, the apostle of "God and the People, Italy one and free." Four artillery wagons were laden with the wreaths and floral crowns sent from every part of Italy, redeemed and unredeemed (for Trent and Trieste sent their representatives to the funeral of this stanch champion of their right, as members of the Italian family, to be united to Italy in Rome).

BOLOGNA, April 14.

The commemoration promoted by the Workingmen's Society has been worthy of Saffi and "his people." The enormous theatre was crowded; the platform draped with ivy and camelias; the workingmen's associations from all parts of the Romagna, with their flags and standards, in the pit and on the boards, the élite of Bologna in the boxes. Venturini, the President of the workingmen, in the chair, in a few words gave the keynote—"the desire to show how entire was the harmony between the workmen of hand and brain. This it is that bids us believe that the great social question agitating the world may be resolved not by hate, but by love; not by violence, but by pacific means in this our young free Italy." Ceneri, Italy's greatest jurist, spoke with deep emotion of Saffi, master, friend, colleague. Then Filopante; the only Bolognese survivor of the representatives of the Roman republic, spoke: "The Roman republic is under an eclipse, but in due time, if the future is not spoiled by rash impatience, it will shine forth afresh to give light and life to all the nations of the earth united one with the other, by paternal ties, in an indissoluble federation." All allusions to the necessity of peace among nations were hailed with warm applause. Carducci, nervous with emotion, held the house as he rapidly indexed the history of Italian redemption and her redeemers, who loved Italy not as a mere land, but as we love a living woman, the mother of grief, the bride of hope.

Sad as it is to see these last of the old guard depart, still it is a relief to forget the petty struggles of the hour, "the Byzantine strife of parties," in contemplation of the triumph of the idea. Saffi lived to hear the Italian Government decree a national monument to Mazzini in Rome. His family and friends outlive him to read King Humbert's telegram to the widow, expressing his sorrow and sympathy with the nation's grief for the loss of this true Italian, this great and noble patriot.

J. W. M.

Correspondence.

THE SCHOOL-BOOK BILL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your issue of April 24 contained an editorial that was so much at variance with the spirit of reform that usually dominates the *Nation*, as to call for a correction that I am sure you will be willing to allow. The article in question is entitled "A Very Queer Bill," and is founded upon a basis of error, as you will see upon further information and reflection. After stating, correctly, the specific object of the bill, which is to provide for a central board that shall have full control over all the text-books in use in the public schools of the State, the article says: "One trouble with our whole system of public schools is, that we have already too many boards, too much dictation, and too much machinery." Wisely said; there are too many boards, and the object of this bill is to take the matter out of the hands of the multiplicity of Boards of Education all over the State, which have abused their power most shamefully for the last quarter of a century, and put the control in the hands of *one* board, instead of a large number of boards. If all the evils that are anticipated from the proposed change were to be multiplied a thousand fold, they could not begin to be as bad as the evils that have existed in this city for twenty-five years, and that will probably continue to exist for as long a time to come unless some such bill as this can be passed before then.

The article says: "It is well known, so profitable is the sale of text-books, that there has always been a lively competition among rival firms to secure the supply for any one large

city." This sentence, as a statement of fact, is absolutely incorrect. There has not been anything approaching to competition in that line in this city or in Buffalo or in most of the other cities of the State for a great number of years. There may have been such a competition before the war, but not since then. So true is this, and so well known is the truth, that the story of the book-ring that rules this city has been told in our newspapers over and over again at every spring election when members of the Board of Education have been nominated by the book-ring (at political party caucuses) and elected by the people. The statements have never been denied—only laughed at. Tweed's old question has always been asked, "What are you going to do about it?" and the compliant answer has usually been given back by the voters at the polls, "Nothing." Not in every ward of the city is this invariably the case, but almost always enough are chosen to give the ring a good working majority. The efforts of good citizens were put forth more vigorously this last spring than ever before: some bad candidates were disavowed by their own party organs, and enough anti-ring men were elected to give us the victory, as we hoped. Only another disappointment was in store! The anti-ring candidate for President of the Board was not in all respects the most desirable man possible, and one of the newspapers that had been supposed to be true to reform took advantage of that fact and assailed him with such a torrent of abuse that he was defeated. The desire of the book-ring was attained, though not in the customary manner.

To make the matter of the utter absence of competition more plain, let me allude to an article that appeared in the *Evening Post* a few days ago. In speaking of the bill in question it said that well-informed people openly charge that the bill "is a corrupt job, the sole object of which is the financial profit of the 'School-book Trust,' the combination of four large publishing houses," whose names it proceeded to give. This is the most extraordinary statement ever made in a paper of the high standing of the *Evening Post*. The complete misconception on which it is founded will be seen from the following facts, known to be facts, publicly stated repeatedly by the writer and others associated with him, and never denied:

Years and years ago the first three of the houses mentioned (and one or two others), recognizing the uselessness of expensive competition, entered into a pact, not so formal as the Trust that has just been created, but quite formal enough, by which the whole State was parcelled out; each house was to have a particular city or cities, and the agent of no other house was to cross the boundary line. The first of the houses named took this city, and it has kept it ever since. Its agent here is one of the most astute politicians in Rochester, and all his skill is brought into play—first, at the caucuses of both parties, then at the polls, then in the Board of Education. Since that arrangement was made, not a single text-book, not a bottle of ink, not a piece of chalk, not a single item of school supplies has been introduced into any one of the public schools of Rochester without the direction of that agent, who occasionally allows some other dealer to furnish some insignificant articles, just enough to enable him to say that not quite everything comes from the same house, but not enough to appreciably affect the profits of his principals. Of course the prices which he charges are fixed by the house in New York, and have no relation to the general laws of trade. The trouble, annoyance, and expense to parents and pupils, caused by the arbitrary change of text-books, are almost intolerable, and it is to remedy this injustice, if possible, that the Citizens' Educational Association of this city is in existence.

These facts may be new to you; they are very familiar to all our citizens, and have been recited frequently at public reform meetings. At one of those meetings, more than a year ago, a committee, of which the writer was a member, was appointed to frame a bill that should remedy those evils by taking the control of text-books and school supplies out of the hands of a particular publishers' board of education. The bill was sent down to Albany and went through several stages in the last Legislature, but the agents of the book-ring were on hand and the bill was swamped by a Danaë-like shower. The same bill, with the full endorsement of the Citizens' Educational Association, has been sent down again this winter, and is now before the Senate. It is to be hoped that it will pass both houses and receive the Governor's signature. We have, however, little expectation of that; another inundation of current arguments will probably overwhelm it, as before. That is looked for, but the antagonism of those who ought to be its friends is as surprising as it is unpleasant. Criticise the provisions of the bill as much as you like, but do not say that its sole object is the profit of the School-Book Trust when it was framed by those who have been fighting the book-ring for many years; and do not say that there is a lively competition when there is none whatever.

WM. F. PECK.

ROCHESTER, April 29, 1890.

[Our remarks were not confined in principle to the State of New York, but if they had been, we should still object to Mr. Peck's remedy. We have no faith in a Board of Education selecting text-books for the whole State, much less in their preparing suitable books, or causing them to be prepared "by experts." Experts arise by competition in the ordinary course of trade, and are tested by the actual experience of the teacher. If the Board were qualified to pick out the expert, that would not insure the making of a good book. The law of freedom here as elsewhere gives the best results, and, while favoring constantly the best and most spontaneous productions, allows the more enlightened communities to take full advantage of them. It also tends to minimize, in the domain of history, the theological conflicts which the proposed Board would be very likely to precipitate, as well by omission as by commission.—ED. NATION.]

INDIRECT EVIDENCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the April number of the *Contemporary Review* is a remarkable article, by Mr. A. V. Dicey, on the possibility of applying the Swiss Referendum to Great Britain. It is somewhat curious to see so conservative a writer, and one so strongly under the influence of legal tradition, toying with such a radical innovation; and indeed he cautiously observes that he is not advocating it, but only aiming to show that the arguments against it are not conclusive.

My reason for alluding to this article now is to point out how, indirectly and quite unintentionally, it shows how a ministry may hold seats in a legislature without being dependent upon it for the tenure of office, or bound to resign upon an adverse vote of the majority.

"As the tenure of office is (or may be) immediately connected with a Minister's success in carrying a given bill through Parliament, there is great difficulty in his renouncing legislation proposed by himself when he finds the country will not support his bill, without his at least incurring the charge of undue tenacity in clinging to office. The reference of a particular law—say a Parliamentary Reform Bill—to the people for approval or rejection, would greatly increase the freedom and improve the moral position of the Minister who advocated the measure. If the bill were accepted, things would stand exactly as they do now when a bill finally passes into an act. If it were rejected, the Minister could, like a member of the Swiss Council, accept the rejection as a final expression of the nation's will. It would soon be felt that he might with perfect honesty pursue the course which would now be taken by a member of the Swiss Council. He need not pretend that his opinion is altered. He might say openly that he still, as a matter of opinion, thought his own bill wise and politic. But he might also say that it was a matter on which the nation was final judge, and that he accepted the nation's decision. In all this there would be no pretence at conversion. There would simply be a pledge as to conduct. The Minister might continue to administer the affairs of the country as honorably as Peel held office after the passing of the Reform Act, or as a servant of the Crown in the days of Elizabeth remained in the service of the Queen, even though her Majesty had, on some high matter of state, rejected his advice."

If, in this extract, instead of the word "nation," we read "Congress," why would not the argument be just as good? Certainly it would not in Great Britain, because, as a Parliamentary vote is the only thing which can make a ministry, a similar vote must of necessity unmake it. If the Queen really appointed the Ministers, she might keep the same for twenty years, as the late Emperor William did Prince Bismarck. But in this country, where the President, and therefore the Cabinet, go to the nation every four years for approval or rejection, we might have all the benefit of the action of a ministry upon Congress without any such dependence upon Congress for their seats.

As akin to the subject, I observe, in your literary notices, that Prof. von Holst thinks that if Mr. Bryce had gone more thoroughly into the legal aspects of the Constitution, he would hardly have ventured the conjecture that a European cabinet might have solved the slavery question, whereas, in the American Congress, "it was the function of no one authority in particular to discover a remedy, as it would have been the function of a cabinet in Europe." If the strength of a mouse can add anything to that of a lion, I remark that for a quarter of a century I have been laboring to establish just this proposition of Mr. Bryce's, having begun, in the weakness of youthful enthusiasm, by publishing a pamphlet upon it at the outbreak of the war. *Me judice*, it is Dr. von Holst, and not Mr. Bryce, who, in this respect at least, has not bestowed adequate study upon the political history of the United States.

It is precisely this absence of a national authority which has again subjected the country to a glaring outrage of the lobby in the shape of the Silver Bill. Does any human being suppose for a moment that the nation as a whole wishes for silver inflation? It is hardly extravagant to say that all the financial institutions of the country would, as one man, if they were asked, record their opinion against it. It is, pure and simple, the result of a combination of silver-mine owners taking advantage of the extraordinary facilities for intrigue furnished by the way in which the Government at Washington is carried on. There is no one thing which needs so strongly to be impressed upon

the rising generation as this, that the arch-enemy which threatens the prosperity and even the life of our institutions—the poisonous miasma which calls, politically speaking, for all the resources of modern science in drainage and sanitation—the many-headed hydra, in the conflict with which the young Hercules of the Republic will need all the strength he can draw from his mother earth—is *the lobby*.

G. B.

Boston, April 26, 1890.

Notes.

For half his life (and he is now seventy years of age) Mr. John Lovell, the well-known publisher of Montreal, has contemplated a 'Gazetteer and History of every County, District, Parish, Township, City, Town, and Village in the Eight Provinces, with descriptions of more than 3,000 Islands, Lakes, and Rivers in the Dominion of Canada.' Having already carried to successful, if not profitable, conclusion two mammoth Directories of Canada (1856) and the Dominion (1871), Mr. Lovell has the requisite experience and connections for the vaster undertaking of his Gazetteer, as to which he will be content with nothing short of eleven volumes. The expense he estimates to be so great that only a subscription, in advance, of $150,000 will warrant his proceeding with the undertaking, and a sixth of this sum has been already pledged. There will be eight Province maps, and illustrations if paid for by persons interested.

The Messrs. Scribner will publish immediately 'How Shall We Revise the Westminster Confession of Faith?' by seven representative revisionist Presbyterian divines, including Drs. Vincent and Briggs. They announce also the second of the translations from Imbert de Saint-Amand, 'The Happy Days of the Empress Marie Louise,' and 'Dizzy Joe, and Other Comics,' from the pencil of A. B. Frost.

'The Mythology and Monuments of Ancient Athens,' by Miss Jane Harrison and Mrs. A. W. Verrall, and 'The Golden Bough: A Study in Comparative Religion,' by J. G. Frazer, are in the press of Macmillan & Co.

George H. Ellis, Boston, will make a volume of 100 pages of Mr. Edwin D. Mead's addresses on the Roman Catholic Church and the Public Schools.

In June, Ginn & Co. will publish 'The Leading Facts of American History,' by D. H. Montgomery, a companion to the same author's 'Leading Facts' of English and French history respectively.

John Wiley & Sons have begun to issue a series of twelve volumes, 18mo, from new plates, of Ruskin's complete works at a moderate price. Uniform with these will be a second series of 'Selections from the Works of John Ruskin,' edited by Mrs. Tuthill and others.

Among several German and French texts in preparation by Henry Holt & Co., we name Mérimée's 'Colomba,' edited by Prof. W. I. Knapp of Yale. A 'Short French Reader' and a 'Short German Reader,' by Prof. W. D. Whitney, will be brought out by the same firm.

Of late years the books of the "Bibliothèque-Charpentier" have tended toward an excessive naturalism. Now M. Charpentier announces a new collection in the same handy form, and in this "Nouvelle Collection" (New York: F. W. Christern) are to be included novels of literary merit, not risky and not namby-pamby—in short, fit reading for a lady of education and taste. The prospectus declares that the mere fact that a book appears in the "Nouvelle Collection" is proof "qu'elle peut être laissée sans contrôle entre toutes les mains, même entre celles des jeunes filles." Among the authors who have promised to contribute are Alphonse Daudet, André Theuriet, Hector Malot, and Théodore de Banville. The first volume to appear is 'L'Abbé Roitelet,' a simple and sympathetic sketch of a country priest who is devoted to bird-catching. It is by M. Ferdinand Fabre, and is eminently innocent. There is a quaint charm in the description of the Christmas feast in the Cévennes.

George Keil, Philadelphia, has in hand a 'Medical Register Directory and Intelligencer,' edited by Dr. William B. Atkinson.

The reproduction by "process" of a Webster's Dictionary of 1847 as a commercial venture (the copyright having expired) in 1890, is certainly one of the humors of the trade. No doubt there are plenty of people so much in need of dictionary learning as to be taken in by this revival of an obsolete book, but there ought to be a general warning against the deception which alone makes success possible.

The third volume of the 'Century Dictionary' marks the completion of one-half of this noble work, and concludes with the letter L. The compounds of *in-* alone fill more than 150 pages; the *hy-* derivatives from the Greek upwards of thirty. The specific entries under *index*, *Irish*, *iron*, *knife*, and *lamp* are good examples of the cyclopædic character of the Dictionary, as, to cite one of each, "Index Librorum Prohibitorum," "Irish Church Act" of July 26, 1869, "Italian iron" (a fluting iron), "War to the knife," "Student lamp." The illustrations maintain their high degree of excellence. Their abundance is apparently affected by the large number of abstract and scientific terms in this division of the alphabet.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have added to their list Mr. W. E. Griffis's Life of Matthew Calbraith Perry, and given it a second edition, without ostensible revision. Miss Sarah Orne Jewett has selected for the Riverside Aldine Series eight of her shorter stories, under the title, 'Tales of New England,' and has thus provided good entertainment in a form as refined as her workmanship.

A little less than three years ago we noticed Mr. Hubert Hall's 'Society in the Elizabethan Age,' a diorama rather than a panorama: society manifested in types, *e. g.*, the landlord, the steward, the tenant, the burgess, etc., rather than after the manner of the historical novel. Mr. Hall now publishes a third edition (London: Swan Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan), and is able to substantiate still further the whitewash applied to his hero—for "Wild Darrell," Lord of Littlecote, landlord and courtier, is the main figure of his group, and serves the purpose of a hero in fiction. The book is very attractive externally.

Mr. Oscar S. Straus's work, designed to show the influence of Hebrew history and ideas on the formation of the republic of the United States, has after five years been translated into French by Mme. Aug. Couvreur, wife of an ex-President of the Belgian Chamber ('Les Origines de la Forme Républicaine du Gouvernement dans les États-Unis d'Amérique' Paris: Félix Alcan). Prof. Laveleye contributes a preface in which he insists on the natural harmony between Catholicism and despotism, and explains the failure of the French Revolution by the dominant religion of the country. He makes, in his rather scanty references to America, some curious errors, as when he says that Massachusetts established from the beginning the separation of Church and State, which was really effected only during the present century.

Mr. J. H. Wigmore's work on the Australian ballot is being published in full in a Japanese dress, and Prof. Ely's 'Political Economy' is about to share the same distinction.

The late Dr. Milner Fothergill was very felicitous in expression, and he thought much and clearly on subjects that concerned his fellowmen. His posthumous essay, 'The Town-Dweller' (D. Appleton & Co.), expanded from a paper before the British Association for the Advancement of Science, and published under the editorship of Dr. B. W. Richardson, is equally acceptable in style and suggestive of thought. Dr. Fothergill maintains that life in crowded cities, however it may stimulate the wits, deteriorates the body, so that, without fresh immigration from the country, the urban race would soon die out. This unpleasant prospect is so clearly brought into view that citizens interested in their posterity may enjoy the argument intellectually, although not happy over the impending fate. Their air, food, and habits are so diverse from those of rural life that each succeeding civic generation yields to its environment in retrogression. We have only space to quote, as a sample, the remark, "It is a great pity that education must go on during growth" (p. 95), which, as it seems opposed to the course of nature, will give some a start, but with which, as it is true, every student of physiology will agree. The little book is full of such texts, with clear-headed commentary.

Alexandre Dumas, *fils*, has for a fourth time gathered into a volume his scattered pamphlets and articles, and the new 'Entr' Actes' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern) is marked as the first number of a second series, which is fair encouragement for a belief that a second volume will follow in due season. The chief contents of the present volume are "Les Femmes qui tuent et les Femmes qui votent" and "La Recherche de la Paternité." But a letter chiefly about collaboration, another to M. Sarcey on the drama, and a third to M. Paul Alexis, are the most interesting to the general reader—though we may doubt if M. Alexis enjoyed the epistle addressed to him.

Mr. Joseph C. Rowell, Librarian of the University of California, puts forth a novel 'Contents-Index' of the "comparatively small but valuable library of reference" over which he presides. It is the product of a regular practice of "indexing books and magazines immediately upon their receipt," and of giving the students the benefit of this in MS. at once. The publication of Poole's Index has enabled Mr. Rowell to discard a vast number of references to periodicals, and his compact and abbreviated index makes an octavo volume of but 519 pages. In spite of the limitations of his material, he has made a widely available addition to existing helps to study and research. Every library should own one or more copies of his index. Mr. Rowell deserves great praise as a pioneer in a field in which he is perhaps more likely to find imitators than coöperators. His second volume awaits the accruing of forty or fifty thousand additional volumes.

We make to-day a passing record of the appearance of indexes to volumes i.–x. of the Baltimore *American Chemical Journal* and *American Journal of Philology* respectively.

The *Academy* of April 12 announces some remarkable discoveries concerning Giordano Bruno that have been made by Dr. Remigius Stölzle, Professor of Philosophy at Würzburg. In the town library he has found a MS. of the 'Liber Triginta Statuarum,' which is more

complete and correct than the Moscow one; and in the University library of Erlangen two other MSS., commentaries upon Aristotle. These last were composed when Bruno was in the College of Cambrai, at Paris. They are not written in his own hand, but have been copied by others. All these documents, and others that Prof. Stölzle has found that bear upon their author's life and writings, have been sent to the editors of Giordano Bruno's works, Messrs. Tocco and Vitelli, and will be published by them.

The Italian Ministry of Public Instruction has offered prizes and honorable mention for dialectic vocabularies presented before June 30, 1893. The prize-winners will retain their copyright, but cannot touch their money till their manuscripts have been printed.

In August, Antwerp will celebrate the 300th anniversary of the death of the famous printer, Christopher Plantin, whose workshop, now a public museum, is one of the chief attractions of the Belgian city. Simultaneously will be inaugurated the new Museum of Fine Arts and the Museum of Antiquities, and it has seemed a good time to hold a conference of all persons concerned in the art of book-making and book-publishing. The programme runs on from material considerations of form, types, pagination, indexes, illustrations, to duties on books, copyright, founding of public libraries, etc. Persons desiring an invitation to the conference should address Mr. Max Rooses, General Secretary, at the Musée-Plantin-Moretus, of which he is the learned curator. The American tourist will do well to make a note of this interesting occasion.

Some of our readers may like to know of the existence of a Society for the Study of the Old Masters, originated and conducted by Miss E. B. Waring of Newport, R. I. It aims to facilitate the study of Crowe and Cavalcaselle's 'History of Painting in Italy' and 'Life of Raphael' by what we may call a circulatory Grangerizing or "extra illustration." Text and photographs are passed from hand to hand among the subscribers in a manner made familiar by book clubs, clubs for microscopic study, etc. Mrs. E. F. Stephenson, 1216 Tenth Avenue, New York, is the Secretary of the above Society.

— The May *Atlantic* puts in the first place a careful notice of Ibsen, who seems for the moment to be the name to conjure with in the magazines. Critically the article is neither better nor worse than the score by other writers upon the same topic. A more unusual, indeed a unique subject, is the sketch of Sir Peter Osborne, the hero of Castle Cornet, by the editor of Dorothy Osborne's letters, that delightful volume with which our readers were made acquainted on its appearance two years ago. Sir Peter was a worthy father of his daughter, nor has a more excellent example of the old English strain, simple, strong, and true, been set before us for many a day than comes out in the few letters of Sir Peter here given, in which he exhibits the constancy of his allegiance to King Charles under the double strain of Warwick's friendly overtures on the part of Parliament and the enmity of Sir George Carteret, the King's representative. The character of Sir Peter is a bright spot in the dark history of the Rebellion. Another historical paper is on the well-worn romance of Mary Queen of Scots, and describes the funeral scene by the light of some unused documents. Agnes Repplier writes with great good sense of the affectation by which the too innocent reader pretends to like books which he is told he should enjoy, and in the course of her remarks aims a shrewd remark or two at the excesses of critics of the smaller kind, whose only stock in trade is some popular fad or personal enthusiasm of their own. Mr. Morton concludes his vigorous examination of the objections to civil-service reform with an attack upon the "rotation-in-office" superstition, which has seldom been reduced to such an appearance of mere silliness as by his argument and invective. There is rather more than the usual proportion of fiction in the number.

—From the advanced sheets of the First Annual Register of Clark University it appears that that institution is entirely committed to post-graduate work, which for the present is confined to the five departments of mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, and psychology, with modern languages taught to meet the needs of students in these fields. The policy of the Trustees to strengthen to the utmost departments already existing before proceeding to the creation of new ones, is to be scrupulously adhered to. The year has been a prosperous one. The number of students has embraced graduates of forty-eight colleges. Twenty-eight lecturers have given thirty-three courses, with an average attendance of eight hearers to each course. In addition to the thirty fellowships and scholarships established by the founder, others have already been founded by outsiders who have been impressed with the plan and scope of the institution. The status and salary of the Docents, who are entirely independent of the heads of departments, and whose relations are directly with the President, have just been materially raised. Their honors and opportunities are reserved for men of pronounced scientific attainment whose work has already marked a distinct advance beyond the doctorate, and who wish to engage in teaching and to deliver a limited number of lectures on some special chapter of their department. A number of them have been provided with individual rooms, and expensive apparatus and books have been purchased for their work. If they desire, and their qualifications are approved, they may be invested, as the highest formal academic honor, with the *licentia docendi*, the terms of which can now be furnished; and so far as this diploma can have the significance of a title or degree, it will be regarded by the University as a brevet college professorship. The existence of such a select body ought to diminish the difficulties under which college trustees sometimes succumb in selecting professors. A central building of ninety rooms and a chemical laboratory of sixty are already nearly completed. The library already contains more than 10,000 bound volumes and receives nearly 200 periodicals.

—Dr. Charles Waldstein finished his excavating work at Platæa in the second half of March. The members of the Archæological School at Athens who assisted him there were Mr. W. J. Hunt, Messrs. H. S. and C. M. Washington, Mr. Shelley, Mr. H. T. Hale, and Mr. J. F. Gray. Their first object was to make an accurate map of the ancient city of Platæa, so far as it is now visible. The site has been thoroughly surveyed; the walls, which are over two and a half miles in circumference, have been measured; and the publication of the results will place them at the service of all classes of students. A careful paper on the topography of the battle-field of Platæa has also been prepared by Mr. Hunt, and will be illustrated by a new map drawn by Messrs. Hunt and Hale. Dr. Waldstein carried on other excavations at several points within and without the city walls, but without discovering as yet one of the three important temples (Athena, Hera, Demeter). In the course of the excavations some interesting inscriptions were encountered, the most important of which was a large slab containing a portion of the famous Edict of Diocletian, "De Pretiis Rerum Venalium." Last year Dr. Waldstein found at Platæa fifty-four lines of the Latin preamble to this edict. About half a mile from the scene of this find was discovered another slab, of about the same dimensions and in the same form, of the body of the edict in the Greek text, and it appears to be likely that the preamble was given in the Latin originally, whereas for the use of the people the text itself was published in Greek. The portion of the price-list contained in this tablet is the one dealing with the price of textiles. A part of it is published and known from other fragments, but there are interesting variations even in this part. A column and a half of the prices here given has hitherto been unknown, and supplies the beginning of the eighteenth chapter in Waddington's edition, hitherto wanting. Another inscription records dedications on the part of women to a goddess, probably Artemis or Demeter, and contains a large number of interesting feminine names. Dr. Waldstein intends to complete his excavations at Platæa next session.

— The second edition of W. Cunningham's 'Growth of English Industry and Commerce' (vol. i., Cambridge University Press, 1890) contains more than twice as much matter as the first edition, which was published in 1882. The author aims to give such an account of the development of English industry as may be easily followed by persons but slightly acquainted with history and political economy. At the same time, the book contains much that will interest and instruct the special student of these two branches of learning. The author emphasizes throughout the interdependence between the industrial and political history of England, keeping constantly in view the principle that "the economic institutions and ideas of each age are relative to their political and social environment." The book is an admirable one, and may safely be recommended to teachers and students of English institutions. We do not think that the author fully comprehends the situation of the mediæval Jews of England (pp. 187–193). For example, we doubt his assertion that "every legislative effort was made in the thirteenth century to induce them to conform to ordinary ways and take to other callings, so that they might be assimilated into the life of the places where they lived" (p. 190). In fact, the King's repeated demands for enormous sums of money tended strongly to keep the Jew away from ordinary callings, which yielded small profits. In the Appendix (pp. 501–579) some valuable documents are printed *in extenso*. The author seems to ascribe the tax of a fifth on the movables of the Londoners to the twelfth century (p. 541); but there appear to be good reasons for placing this levy in a later period. On the whole, the book is free from faults, and is a very scholarly piece of work.

— Somewhat more than a year ago, we chronicled the founding of the *Vierteljahrschrift für Litteraturgeschichte*, edited by Bernhard Seuffert. The second volume, now lately completed, justifies the good opinion of the enterprise we had then formed from the prospectus and the initial numbers. Among the noteworthy articles of the past year may be mentioned, first, a long and scholarly essay by Oscar Netoliczka upon German pastoral poetry

of the eighteenth century. The paper traces the history of the German shepherd-idyl in its relation to Theocritus and Virgil, and to the French pastoral, and also gives a good account of the theory on which these fantastic aberrations were constructed and defended. The study is an interesting one, and ought to be the more welcome from the fact that the literature examined is so very insipid. Of much interest also is an essay by Werner Pfau upon "Old Norse in Gerstenberg." Gerstenberg, born in 1737, was the first German to utilize Norse mythology in poetry, and was, in this matter, the immediate precursor and inspirer of Klopstock. Students know what a curiously fantastic and unhistorical conception Klopstock and his contemporaries had of the ancient Norseman. Kelts, Scandinavians, Anglo-Saxons, and Deutsch-men were mixed up together, and all were known as "our ancestors." The conception of the ancient Germans as a race of brave, hardy, and guileless sentimentalists fitted in well with the scenery of the Ossianic poems, and with Rousseau's theory of civilization as the progressive deterioration of man; and out of it all arose that comical episode in the history of German poetry known as the "Bardengebrüll." The essay we speak of shows in detail just how Gerstenberg got his impressions of the Northmen. It is written with wide and thorough scholarship, and with excellent critical discernment, and is the more remarkable as being the posthumous work of a young man who died in 1887 at the age of twenty-two.

— Another article of the *Vierteljahrschrift* which deserves mention is one by Hermann Conrad upon "Carlyle and Schiller." This describes the genesis of Carlyle's interest in German literature, but makes too much, we think, of Schiller's influence. It is going too far to say that "his [Carlyle's] saviour in his time of utmost need was Schiller"; especially when Carlyle has very emphatically told us that it was Goethe. An interesting feature of this paper is its review of Carlyle's critical judgments with regard to Schiller. In general Herr Conrad finds Carlyle rather shallow; he objects to him that his criticism consists so largely in the expression of mere personal feeling, and that it sticks too close to the moral and religious point of view. He disapproves Carlyle's later and cooler essay upon Schiller, as compared with the earlier 'Life,' and especially takes the Scotchman to task for placing Schiller "far below" Milton (which, by the way, Carlyle does not exactly do). "What has the world of to-day," exclaims our German essayist, "what will future centuries have, from Milton?" We do not care to assail the position that Schiller is on the whole a more universal poet than Milton, and has more to say to modern men; but we do wonder why it is that German critics of the present day can, as a rule, see nothing in Milton except a famous and respected fossil like their own Klopstock. The reason is of course to be found partly in Milton's theology and in the partisan temper of his mind. By virtue of these qualities, he strikes the Germans as a pamphleteer and a preacher, quite devoid of that genial breadth which they admire in Chaucer, and especially in Shakspere. But if we mistake not, there is another reason weightier than this. Milton's strength and charm, so far as he is now read for enjoyment by the English-speaking race, consist very largely in his superb management of the English language, and in his all but "infallible touch in matters of rhythm." These are qualities which the foreigner can rarely appreciate at their true value.

ADAMS'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION OF JEFFERSON.—I.

History of the United States of America during the Second Administration of Thomas Jefferson. By Henry Adams. Vols. III. and IV. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1890.

In this continuation of the history of the United States during the second term of Jefferson's Administration, from March, 1805, to March, 1809, we mark the presence of the same thoroughness of research, sobriety of judgment, even-handed impartiality, and accuracy of statement which, in the earlier volumes, commanded the respect of intelligent readers even where they could not always share the writer's point of view. In the present volumes, Mr. Adams moves over his ground with even a greater sense of the security inspired by a conscious mastery of his subject. In the former volumes he seemed to write under the shadow, if not under the glamour, of a political fame which he could not always substantiate to himself, even while confessing its fascinations; while the strange contradictions which he supposed himself to find in Jefferson's personal and political character were occasionally reflected in "the shifting and uncertain flicker" of his own critical judgments, as he held up his mirror, now in one direction and now in another, to catch a series of "semi-transparent shadows." In the volumes before us we see no traces of mental hesitation, or of the historical reserve which turns upon itself with more doubts and questionings than it can solve. The diction of the writer, always pithy and sententious, gains in fluency as he advances from stage to stage in his narrative.

In resuming his story at the beginning of Jefferson's second term, Mr. Adams notes the fact that at that time the Republican President "had made a democratic polity victorious at home and respectable in the world's eyes." The day had come when, in his second inaugural address, he could frankly exult in the success of that sanguine political philosophy which had lifted him into the Presidential seat, and when he could even indulge in covert sneers at the vaticinations of evil with which his advent to power had been heralded by the clerical and political magnates of New England. This second inaugural address, it is known, contained a mock-earnest homily which, in being nominally directed to a commiseration of our Indian tribes, because of the subjection in which they were held by their chiefs and "medicine men," was really levelled at that portion of the New England people who, under the influence of what Mr. Adams calls their "clergy, lawyers, and keen-witted squirarchy," persisted in standing aloof from the dominant mass of their fellow-citizens. The poor politics of such a rhetorical fetch was exceeded only by its bad taste. Mr. Adams is careful to tell us that Gallatin remonstrated against the indecorous allusion.

But the emphasis thus given by Jefferson to the declared antithesis which had now come to exist between the recalcitrant Federalism of New England and the self-complacent Republicanism which prevailed elsewhere in the United States, only causes us the more to regret that Mr. Adams has nowhere essayed a philosophical explanation of what seems to us among the most striking phenomena in our political history—to wit, how it came to pass that what was originally a social democracy in New England became the foundation of the most inveterate form of aristocratic politics ever exhibited in our annals; and how it was that a social feudalism in the South, built on an institute so anti-democratic as predial slavery, became the seed-plot of a popular political philosophy which degenerated at length into the so-called "vulgarity" of the Jacksonian era. This inquiry is not one which lies outside of Mr. Adams's purview as an historian, for it is one which enlisted the curiosity of speculative politicians at the very beginning of Jefferson's second term, when the dividing of the ways in our national politics had become sufficiently pronounced to indicate that the differentiation was not casual, but followed the trend of divergent tendencies hidden in our social strata.

Less than two months after Jefferson's second inauguration the causes of this separatism in the politics of New England were made a topic of formal discussion in the official journal of the Administration, the *National Intelligencer*, and these causes, as then and there analyzed (we abbreviate their substance in our own terms), were reduced under the following heads: The original religious separatism to which the New England colonies owed their origin; the clannishness and pride of opinion engendered by a sense of superior education; the greater compactness of the population, lending itself to the easier assimilation of opinions; better interior arrangements for the dissemination of ideas from a central point; the welding processes of the Revolutionary period, during which New England was confessedly at the head of the political movement; the consolidating tendencies of the early fiscal policies of Washington and John Adams, enuring to the special advantage of a people living by their wits rather than by agriculture; and, finally, the greater dependence of New England trade and industry on the fostering care of the Federal Government, a fact which naturally made the New England people averse to the independent and bucolic politics of Virginia. Such were, in substance, the views held by partisans of Jefferson when, at that early date, they undertook to account for the New England stratification in our national politics. It would have been instructive to see these constant elements of our party formation surveyed by Mr. Adams from that higher point of view which we have reached to-day. Bryce makes only a passing allusion to the subject.

With a theory of statesmanship broader than that announced in his first inaugural address; with opposition to his rule practically annihilated; with politic concessions which were slowly conciliating the favor of the more moderate class of Federalists, Jefferson stood in 1805, as Mr. Adams thinks, "nearly where President Washington stood ten years before." The prospects of a true American nationality had never seemed so promising, and this, too, in spite of the fact that "the national Government was controlled by ideas and interests peculiar to the region south of the Potomac." The acquisition of Florida, was, for the time being, the goal of Southern ambition, and hence it was that "the Florida question" became in the spring and autumn of 1805 the burning question of the Republican Administration.

Mr. Adams shows that it was Napoleon's countercheck quarrelsome, interposed against the diplomatic moves of Monroe in the course of his tedious and abortive negotiations with Spain, which "decided the fate of Jefferson's second administration"; because it was that countercheck which compelled Jefferson to reverse the positive and energetic policy to which he had been previously committed, in pursuit not only of Florida, but also of our just reclamations against Spain for wrongs done to our commerce. During the residue of his term he was doomed to halt and vacillate among conflicting opinions and dubious policies, which

left an impress of indecision on all his subsequent dealings with Spain and with the French autocrat. The French Emperor, in becoming the arbiter of Spain's destiny, had become the master of the political situation as between the Spanish Court and the United States. After the victory of Austerlitz he found it still easier to impose his policy of expectation both on Spain and on the United States. In the end our whole controversy with Spain, by reason of its dependence on the will and pleasure of Napoleon, and by reason of being caught in the meshes of Talleyrand's tricky diplomacy, assumed the appearance of "a French job." It is doubtless easy to say that the fluctuations of our policies at that date were peculiar to the characters and purposes of Jefferson and his Secretary of State, as men who were agreed to make peace their "passion"; but it seems to us, even from Mr. Adams's showing, that much of their hesitation was inherent in the political situation, and was common to them with the whole country. When Mr. Adams says that "one question alone was to be decided"—to wit, whether the Administration should seize this moment to break with Napoleon—it still remains to be said that this "one question" had as many heads as the mythologic hydra, and as many coils as the monster octopus. If Jefferson, argues Mr. Adams, had crossed the Sabine in August, 1805, and had occupied Texas to the Rio Bravo, as Armstrong, our Minister to France, and Monroe, our Minister to England, united in advising, and if then Spain had gone to war with us, and had dragged France in her train, all the difficulties of Jefferson "would have vanished in an instant." He might then have seized Florida, adds Mr. Adams, while his controversies with England would have fallen to the ground, for England would then have been his ally; and had this state of war continued for two years, till Spain threw off the yoke of Napoleon and once more raised in Europe the standard of popular liberty, "Jefferson might perhaps have effected some agreement with the Spanish patriots, and would then have stood at the head of the coming popular movement throughout the world." It is easy to write history as a prophecy of the past, but it is not so clear that the chain of events in Europe would have been the same if the links of the chain on this side of the Atlantic had been broken at the points indicated by Mr. Adams.

From this time forth, as Turreau, the French Minister at Washington, acutely phrased it, "to conquer without war" became "the first fact in American politics." The necessities of the political situation conspired with Jefferson's instinctive and philosophical love of peace to turn him away from all affirmative or aggressive measures. And now, too, it was that Spanish cruisers began to prey on American property, that France grew more and more arrogant in defence of her Spanish ally, and that England exasperated even the mercantile community, in spite of their timidity, by setting up a virtual blockade of our ports, under the pretence of watching for the recovery of British "deserters," alleged to be commonly employed in our merchant service. Mr. Adams here sees very clearly that the tameness with which our country submitted to the arbitrary pretensions of England was not entirely the result of cowardice, but was a sort of Hobson's choice supported by a comparison of expediencies. "Nations," he truly says, "rarely submit to injury without a motive." It was seen that "if the United States Government went to war to protect British seamen [enlisted in our service] America would lose all her mercantile marine, and these same seamen for whom she was fighting must, for the most part, necessarily return to their old flag, because they would then have no other employer."

In the winter of 1805-06, what with the violent opposition of the Federalists, the equally violent factiousness of the Republicans who fell away in the gainsaying of John Randolph, and the spirit of aggression which showed itself in simultaneous acts of war from England, France, and Spain, the position of Jefferson, as Mr. Adams admits, was difficult "beyond that of any other American President." And after "the two-million act" had been wrung from a reluctant Congress for the purpose of buying from Spain, at the dictation of France, the territory supposed to be ours (or at least claimed to be ours), under the Louisiana bargain with Napoleon, it was openly charged by embittered political enemies and estranged political friends that the President had become a creature of the French despot. The author shows that this latter charge was manifestly unfounded, and that the unwillingness of the Administration to offend Napoleon arose from no "Gallican sympathies," but from the conviction that Napoleon alone could give Florida to the United States without the expense and losses inevitable in a war. Such a charge, however, after it had once been lodged in the popular mind, could only breed fresh corrosions when subsequent phases of our politics came to lend fresh color to the damaging imputation, without having any better foundation in fact.

As if these international feuds were not enough, domestic treason now came to embarrass the Administration with privy conspiracy under the very eaves of the Executive Mansion; with the menaced revolt of the Western and Southwestern territory; and with filibustering expeditions against the Spanish-American provinces. However singular may have been "the veneered profligacy of Aaron Burr," as Mr. Adams graphically describes it, and however bad may be his eminence among American "conspirators," it is certain that his treasonable plot was no sporadic incident in our annals. It was a "sign of the times" that our political sky grew red and lowering with this portent in 1806, because similar portents had come before to vex our politicians with fear of change. To bring our metaphor down, perhaps too rapidly, from heaven to earth, we may say that Burr's Disunion project was part and parcel of a whole brood of misgrowths begotten in the mud and slime of the early period in our annals. Of such earlier misgrowths as the plottings of the Spanish Associations in Kentucky and Blount's conspiracy in 1796, we may say that they sprang from a chronic political unrest which dated, in Kentucky, from the year 1786, or earlier, when the possession of the Mississippi Valley was put in peril by a league of the Northern States in the Continental Congress. They were constantly nurtured besides by British machinations in Canada as well as by the unwieldiness and the insolence of Spanish misrule at New Orleans—the unwieldiness inviting to aggression, and the insolence provoking to resentment. In the conspiracy of Burr these permanent elements of disorder were accentuated by Federalist discontents in New England, by factional rivalries in New York, by schismatic dissensions in Virginia, under the lead of John Randolph, by the easy optimism of Jefferson himself, who was always slow to put himself on guard against impending mischiefs, and last, but not least, by the disaffection of the Creole population in Louisiana, smarting under a sense of wrong at the despite done them by the Territorial Government imposed from Washington.

That a spirit of popular giddiness and revolt had become rife in our politics at that juncture is shown by the line of connection between Burr's schemes and those of the old Spanish Associations and political societies of Kentucky, as also by the fact that Miranda's expedition worked at cross purposes with the plans of Burr, because, in springing from the same buccaneering politics, and in coming at the same time, it threatened to operate as a diversion from the Spanish part of his plot. How intricate and yet how continuous was the chain of events which at that period complicated our home politics with foreign entanglements, we may read in the single fact that the law of 1798 enacted for the maintenance of our neutral obligations (being the law under which Smith and Ogden were tried for complicity in the Miranda expedition) was a law which had been enacted by Congress while John Adams, as Vice-President, was President of the United States Senate, and which had been framed for the express purpose of inhibiting the machinations of Genêt. Yet such was the "cursed spite" of that disjointed time that the first person tried under the law was Col. William S. Smith, a son-in-law of John Adams; and the United States Judge who was first called to administer this law was Matthias B. Talmadge, a brother-in-law of Genêt. Foreign embroilments, partly personal and partly political, mix with the woof where they do not make the warp of our politics in those days. Wilkinson, the general-in-chief of the American Army, not only was the confidant and accomplice of Burr's scheme (at least in its earlier stages), but had also been for twenty years a stipendiary of the Spanish Government. Judge Sebastian of the Kentucky Court of Appeals was an annual pensioner of Don Carlos IV. Yrujo, the Spanish Minister at Washington, and son-in-law of Gov. McKean, the Republican Governor of Pennsylvania, meddled so openly with our politics that the scandal became at length unendurable. At a little later date we find the British Government employing a paid agent, one John Henry, to watch and abet the progress of Federalist disaffection in New England.

In order to follow the involutions of Burr's treason, we must clearly seize the fact that what he meant to be a tragedy, but which turned out to be a farce, was in its substance and form a trilogy. His plot comprised three dramas rolled into one. At one stage of his operations and with one set of adherents he intrigued for the expulsion of the Spaniards from North America; at another stage and with another set of adherents he conspired for the severing of the Mississippi Valley from the Atlantic States; while at still another stage and with still another set of adherents he contracted for a plausible scheme of land speculations which offered a lure to the avarice or ambition of his victims. Perhaps it could be wished that Mr. Adams, with all the lucidity he brings to his exposition of this historical episode, had attempted a little sharper definition and clearer characterization of the several classes who were drawn by Burr into some sort of complicity with his projects, according as he unfolded to them, in whole or in part, the interdependence of his several schemes. To some of his partners he doubtless communicated only so much of his plan as implied an attack on the Spanish provinces of North America, to be made so soon as the United States should be embroiled in a war with Spain—an event believed to be then impending. To a chosen set of accomplices, like Dayton and others, he confided the seditious pur-

pose of his plot in its full proportions; while another set may have supposed, at first, that they were invited to embark on a gigantic scheme of land jobbery and colonization on the Wachita River. Each of these schemes could be used as a stalking-horse behind which to push the one or the other of the projects that seemed, for the time being, to be the least alluring, or which could not be exposed without some danger of startling timid souls and of repelling men who, whatever may have been their military or predatory instincts, were at heart too patriotic to have entered into the conspiracy with full knowledge of its treasonable intent. It is because of the deceptive covers under which Burr worked that so many men among his confederates who *perhaps* were innocent, must rest for ever under a damaging suspicion of guilt.

It is known that he "counted on the aid of Great Britain" as the "pivot" of his whole movement. Without that aid, says Mr. Adams, he could not depend on the co-operation of the Creoles in Louisiana. And when Pitt showed no haste to follow the suggestions of Merry, the British Minister at Washington, Burr refused to wait for the coveted support of England, and precipitated his descent on the lower Mississippi, which, in any event, was the destined base of his operations, whatever their nature or extent might prove in the evolution of his drama. "Had he been wise," says the author, "he would have waited, and perhaps he might in the end have brought the British Government to accept his terms. If Pitt intended to plunder American commerce and to kidnap American citizens, he must be prepared to do more, and Burr might calculate on seeing the British Tories placed by their own acts in a position where they could not afford to neglect his offers." Foiled in his effort to get the sinews of his war from London, he next intrigued, through Dayton, with the Spanish Minister at Washington, in hope of levying blackmail on Spain, and, in his desperation, even conceived a light-headed *coup de main* for the capture and abduction of the whole Administration, with a view to the instant replenishment of his military chest and to the occupation of a coigne of vantage from which he might treat with "the residual fractions" of the United States. The confused state of public opinion which enabled Burr to frame his plots without detection is thus described by Mr. Adams:

> "So thick an atmosphere of intrigue, especially in Spanish matters, was supposed to pervade the White House; men's minds were so befogged with public messages about a Spanish war and secret messages about peace; with private encouragement to Miranda and public punishment of Miranda's friends; with John Randolph's furious charges of duplicity, and Madison's helpless silence under these charges —that until the President himself should say the word, Burr, Wilkinson, Dayton, and their associates were safe, and might hatch treason in the face of all the world."

Mr. Adams gives a graphic description of the collapse of Burr's conspiracy, his ignoble flight from the appointed scene of his operations, his arrest on the Spanish frontier above Mobile, his deportation to Richmond, and his trial there on a charge of high treason before Chief-Justice Marshall.

For the failure to compass a conviction of Burr on the indictment found against him, Jefferson, as every one knows, was inclined to lay the blame at the door of the Federalist Chief Justice. He gave publicity to his disappointment and chagrin by formally inviting the Congress to inquire whether this defeat of justice had been caused by a defect "in the evidence, in the law, or in the administration of the law." The sting of this clause was, of course, found in its tail-piece; and the flout was aimed at the Chief Justice in the face of the whole country. The narrative of Mr. Adams can leave the reader in little doubt that the breakdown of the prosecution was due to the incompleteness of the evidence, and this incompleteness was mainly due to the laches of the Administration. Jefferson had taken no prompt steps to hold Burr and his confederates in surveillance while they were "hatching treason," and, therefore, the prosecution was unable to prove the "overt acts," or to combine the nexus of events required to meet the conditions of the law of treason as expounded by Marshall. Mr. Adams shows that there were facts enough to support the charge if only they had been properly arrayed and duly corroborated.

It seems to us, however, that the historian hardly does full justice to the causes which defeated the prosecution of Burr on the occasion of his first arraignment in Kentucky by Daveiss, the United States District Attorney. However true it may be that Judge Innis was suspected of "Spanish sympathies," and however true it may be that some of Daveiss's witnesses "vanished," it was still more disastrous that some of his witnesses turned against him. John Wood, for instance, after thundering so loud in the index, by the pretended revelations he made in the *Western World*, was swift to say under oath that he knew "nothing which would amount to evidence," and even significantly added that he "had changed his opinion respecting Mr. Burr, and was then persuaded that Burr had no intention of doing anything contrary to the laws and interests of the United States." Street, too, the "fighting editor" of the *Western World*, as Mr. Adams describes him, was similarly reticent as a witness. Alike at Frankfort, at the trial in the territory of Mississippi, and in his final assize at Richmond, Burr was fortunate in the character of the witnesses summoned against him by the prosecution. In the last-named ordeal, Gen. Wilkinson, on whom Jefferson mainly depended for the conviction of Burr, was a man whom John Randolph did not scruple to portray as the only person he ever saw who "from the bark to the very core was a villain," and even Hay, the prosecuting attorney, was compelled at last to discredit that thrasonical soldier.

The sequel of Burr's trial brought only fresh mortifications to Jefferson. On the bench of our Supreme Judiciary he had been "thwarted," as he believed, by Marshall. In the House of Representatives he was "baited" by John Randolph for the patronage given to Wilkinson. Before the public he was made "the scapegoat at once of Burr's crimes and of Wilkinson's extravagances," because he was blamed for the long immunity allowed to the former and for the undue complaisance practised towards the latter.

THE DUKE OF COBURG'S MEMOIRS.

Aus meinem Leben und aus meiner Zeit. Von Ernst II., Herzog von Sachsen-Coburg-Gotha. Dritter Band. Berlin: Wilhelm Hertz; New York: Westermann. 1889. 8vo, pp. 726.

THE Duke of Coburg brings his memoirs to a rather abrupt conclusion in his third volume. The summary manner in which he despatches all the interesting and important events subsequent to 1866 is in striking contrast with the minuteness with which he describes every minor detail previous to that date; and the explanation he gives of this change of method indicates that he had intended, and would have liked to pursue, a different course, but was restrained by the same motives that prompted Talleyrand to postpone the publication of his memoirs to a time when all the prominent personages of his day should have passed from the scene. The newspaper rumors to the effect that Bismarck had objected to the publication of portions of the Duke's manuscript, and that Queen Victoria had similar views in regard to other portions, thus seem to have had some foundation in fact.

The volume opens with a view of the situation of Europe at the end of 1859, after the conclusion of the Treaty of Zurich, which the author pronounces hardly paralleled in modern history, inasmuch as every provision of it was in direct contradiction, not only of accomplished facts, but of the intentions of most of the Powers. Public opinion was at the same time much disturbed by Napoleon's pamphlet, 'The Pope and the Congress,' which was taken as an intimation that the Emperor had further wars in contemplation. It soon became apparent that all he wanted was to prepare the way for the annexation of Savoy and Nice to France, to which Cavour gave his assent on March 2, 1860, and which came near bringing about a rupture between France and England, as is set forth in the despatches of Lord Cowley printed in Sir Theodore Martin's Life of Prince Albert. Germany was at this time in a deplorable situation, being in constant dread of the French autocrat's mania for the rectification of frontiers by annexations to France. Prussia had proposed a revival of the Holy Alliance, but had met with rebuffs from both Russia and Austria. The Duke infers, from private information he received, that in the west of Germany there was sympathy for France, and reports that in some quarters it was even supposed that Prussia itself would not be opposed to making cessions of territory for the sake of peace.

Such fears were in some measure set at rest by an interview between Napoleon and a number of German sovereigns at Baden Baden in June, 1860, at which the Prince Regent of Prussia intimated that Germany was a unit on the question of making no cession of territory, and Napoleon breathed nothing but peace and good-will. The Duke reports an interview he had with the French Emperor, in which the latter complained that he was the victim of universal and unfounded distrust, and said that if he entertained all the warlike projects which were ascribed to him, he must be crazy. In regard to the Italian campaign, he said that he had been luckier than he expected, and had given the Austrian army credit for greater efficiency than it had displayed; that its campaign had miscarried through a lack of energy, and through a reluctance of the various commanders to assume any responsibility. The total impression which the interview made on the Duke was that Napoleon was sincerely desirous of peace for the time being, and had not full confidence in the ability of France to cope with a European coalition. After Napoleon's departure, the German princes held a conference, which, however, led to no practical results.

The Duke devotes several chapters to *Schützen-Feste*, *Sänger-Feste*, *Turn-Feste*, and other truly Teutonic mass-meetings which filled the air with inflated patriotic utterances that are empty enough in themselves, but, in view of the subsequent march of events, seem almost ludicrous in their childishness. Most of these meetings took place in Coburg or in Gotha, the Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha being the only German sovereign who entertained or

had the courage to display any sympathy with the national and popular aspirations of the liberal classes of Germany, and who, as mentioned in our notice of his previous volumes, did not hesitate to hold intercourse with revolutionist refugees in London.

No less out of relation with the present condition of Germany was the Congress of German Sovereigns which assembled at Frankfort, in August, 1863, on the invitation of the Emperor of Austria, for the purpose of considering a reform of the Federal Union. Prussia declined to attend, upon the ground that any projects of the kind should first be considered by the various ministries. This was undoubtedly the first move in the masterly game which has since been played by Bismarck, who had taken the helm only a few months before. William I., who, after being Prince-Regent of Prussia, succeeded to the crown at the death of his brother, on January 2, 1861, would probably never have completely shaken off the hereditary subordination to Austria if he had not been continually braced up to the task by the iron will of his Prime Minister. A most important day in the history of Germany was October 9, 1862, when Bismarck was appointed President of the Ministry and Minister of Foreign Affairs. Austria was then in the ascendant, and her ascendancy was only enhanced by the Congress of Frankfort. How little any one, even in the best informed and highest circles, dreamt of the subsequent course of history, is shown by an incident related by the Duke. The Queen of England was on a visit at Coburg, in August, 1863. The Emperor of Austria, on his way home from the Frankfort Congress, stopped there and had an interview with the Queen at which, by her request, the Duke was present. After complimenting the Emperor upon the skilful manner in which he had presided over the Congress, the Queen added that, although it was not her affair to concern herself with German politics, she had a personal request at heart, inspired by maternal anxiety for her children. Whatever might be the divergent views of Austria and Prussia concerning political matters, she hoped that, under all circumstances, the Emperor would never allow the position and rights of her dear children in Berlin to be infringed upon. To this same period belongs the inception of the Mexican Empire, which was designed by Napoleon to serve the double purpose of reflecting glory on the French arms and securing the friendship of the house of Hapsburg. It appears, however, that Napoleon himself was not as sanguine about the success of the undertaking as was the Empress Eugénie; for the Duke mentions that when he was in Paris in March, 1864, the Emperor took him aside, and, referring to Maximilian, said: "It is a very bad business; in his place I would never have accepted" (meaning the Mexican crown).

A considerable portion of the volume is devoted to the Schleswig-Holstein transactions, and throws new light on the devious ways of Bismarck in his conduct of the most arbitrary and ruthless undertaking of his public career. The Duke of Coburg was intimately mixed up in this affair, being the first to recognize the Duke of Augustenburg as Duke of Schleswig-Holstein; the latter was a resident of Gotha, and took into his service as ministers two of the ministers of the Duke of Coburg, who gave them an indefinite leave of absence for that purpose.

By the Treaty of London of 1852, it had been agreed by all the Powers that, on the death of the King of Denmark, Prince Christian should succeed to the monarchy, including the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein. The Duke of Augustenburg, for a money consideration, signed away his claims to the duchies, which, indeed, he had no means of enforcing. In accordance with this agreement, Christian IX. was proclaimed King of Denmark on the death of Frederick VII. on November 15, 1863. On the following day, Duke Frederick VIII. of Augustenburg proclaimed himself Duke of Schleswig-Holstein, under the claim that his father had no right to sign away the son's birthright, and that he had not himself been a party to the transaction of 1852. Holstein being a member of the German confederacy, the Danish Ambassador appeared at the session of the Diet on November 21 to announce the accession of Christian IX., while the Envoy of Baden appeared as the representative of Frederick VIII., both claiming to be admitted as delegates. A motion was made to exclude the Danish Envoy, but Austria and Prussia opposed it on the ground of being bound by the Treaty of 1852. The motion, however, prevailed, and for the first time in the history of Germany the two leading States were outvoted by the remaining ones. It was a peculiarity of the situation that the German Confederacy as a body had not signed the Treaty of 1852, although several of its members had done so. In December, troops of the German Confederacy entered Holstein, which was at once evacuated by the Danes. A motion made by Austria and Prussia that Schleswig should also be occupied by German troops was voted down, whereupon these two Powers declared that they would take the matter into their own hands, and thus practically disrupted the Confederation. A motion made by Austria that the Duke of Schleswig-Holstein be ordered out of the dominions he claimed, had also been defeated. Before the final rupture Prussia and Austria had agreed to act in unison on the basis of the Treaty of 1852, and to recognize no other consideration. On January 16, 1864, these two Powers made a demand on the Government of Copenhagen for an abrogation of the Danish Constitution of November 18, in so far as it affected Schleswig-Holstein, to whom certain rights had been guaranteed by the London Treaty. This move was followed by an invasion of Holstein by an Austrian-Prussian army, before whom the German troops retired as from an enemy. Actual hostilities began February 1. The contest was too unequal to admit of any doubt as to its results, and the defeat of Denmark was a foregone conclusion.

In April, 1864, a conference assembled in London to attempt a solution of the quarrel. On May 15, Prussia formally repudiated the London Treaty, although up to that date the treaty had furnished the only pretext for the invasion of Denmark. At the London conference Bismarck now represented, contrary to everything that had gone before, that Prussia was only holding Holstein in trust for the rightful heir, the Duke of Augustenburg. However, the conference broke up on June 25, without achieving anything. In the meantime Prussia had been negotiating with Russia in regard to the claims of the house of Oldenburg to the Danish duchies. Finally, on August 1, Denmark ceded all of its claims to the duchies to Austria and Prussia without reserve. The troops of the German Confederacy, which were still in the conquered duchies, were ordered by Prussia to evacuate the territory.

In December, Austria proposed to cede the duchies to Duke Frederick, but Prussia refused. In February, 1865, Prussia offered to agree to the cession on condition that the army and navy of the duchies should be under the command of the King of Prussia, and that the post-office and telegraph should also be under the Prussian control, together with some minor concessions which would, in themselves, not have offered much of an obstacle. This offer was rejected by Austria, and the Duke of Coburg is of the opinion that before making it Bismarck had assured himself of its rejection by sounding the opinions of leading Austrian statesmen. He was thus quite safe to make a comparatively moderate proposition, the acceptance of which would have seriously interfered with the elaborate scheme he had contrived, and which was crowned with success by the Gastein Convention, dividing Schleswig and Holstein between Austria and Prussia. After arriving at this point, Bismarck was not at a loss for pretexts for a war with Austria for which all his previous manœuvres had been only preliminary. The annexation of Holstein to Prussia, with a total disregard of all rights, treaties, and professions, followed as a matter of course.

The part which the Duke of Coburg took in the war of 1866 was but slight. With the hereditary good luck of his family, he happened to be on the right side, and earned the gratitude of Prussia instead of incurring its wrath. He was engaged in the battle of Langensalza on June 27, which resulted in a defeat of the Prussian troops by the Hanoverians, but was nevertheless followed two days later by the capitulation of the King of Hanover and all his army. Perhaps the most valuable service rendered by the Duke was in recommending Gen. Blumenthal to the Crown Prince Frederick William as his chief of staff.

Lack of space compels us to take leave of this book, which, along with much that is of purely German interest, contains a number of characteristic letters of Bismarck and other leading personages, together with a few entertaining anecdotes. Although it perhaps tells us very little that is strictly new, and is rather too long, it presents on the whole a not uninteresting picture of the evolution of the German nation during the past half century, and throws light on subsidiary episodes that are apt to be overlooked in formal histories.

CARDINAL LAVIGERIE AND THE SLAVE TRADE.

Cardinal Lavigerie and the African Slave Trade. Edited by Richard F. Clarke, S. J. Longmans, Green & Co. 1889. Pp. ix., 379, 8vo.

Documents sur la Fondation de l'Œuvre Anti-esclavagiste. Par S. Em. le cardinal Lavigerie. St. Cloud. 1889. Pp. lix., 715, 8vo.

THE crusade against the African slave trade recently preached by Cardinal Lavigerie throughout Europe was remarkable for this reason: it was, in fact, the Roman Catholic Church pleading with all Christendom, without distinction of belief, to right a foul wrong. For though the act of an individual, yet his rank and the sanction of the Pope gave the Cardinal's mission an almost official character. He was received, moreover, by Protestant England and Germany with such sincere and hearty sympathy for his cause as shows conclusively that now, on occasion, all religious differences among Christians will be forgotten in the common desire to reach a noble end. This marked success of his crusade was largely due to the Cardinal himself, than whom no one could have been found among the Roman priesthood so well fitted, either by his powers as an orator or by his previous career, to present the cause of the oppressed African.

Born in Bayonne in 1825, Charles Martial

Lavigerie early developed a decided inclination for the Church, and his ability and progress in his studies were so great that he was ordained priest, by special dispensation, before he had reached the canonical age. In 1854 he was appointed to the chair of Ecclesiastical History in the Sorbonne, and two years after Director of the Society for the Promotion of Christian Education in the East. In this capacity he went to Syria in 1860 to distribute the funds which had been collected, chiefly by his means, for the relief of the Christians then suffering from the frightful persecutions of the Druses. It was a service of great difficulty, not unattended with danger, but was performed with such success as to gain for him decorations from the French and Turkish Governments. He was the first French priest to enter Damascus after the massacre in which more than 3,000 adult males alone perished. Of the Christian quarter, which had constituted a distinct town of 2,000 houses and 30,000 inhabitants, he says:

"Their dwellings had been all levelled to the ground, so that not even a shed was left standing. Everything that possessed the slightest value had been carried off; all the woodwork, the hinges of the doors, the very locks and bolts having disappeared. . . . I should have imagined that the city had been visited by an earthquake, for it was impossible to make out even the direction of the streets."

It is not surprising that a man whose first personal contact with Mohammedanism was amid such scenes, and who has passed thirty years in ceaseless conflict with it, should show but scant respect for those theorists, like Canon Taylor, who would see in Islam's conquest of Central Africa simply a preparatory stage in the conversion of the negro to Christianity. At the age of thirty-eight he was made Bishop of Nancy and four years later Archbishop of Algiers, his present post.

Here he soon found himself in direct conflict with the Government, whose timid policy was that of determined opposition to every attempt to Christianize the natives. It even endeavored to prevent ordinary charitable work by the French clergy, such as relieving the sick and starving, and providing homes for the orphans of those who had perished by the cholera and famine in 1867-68. After a long and bitter struggle, the Archbishop secured the privilege of establishing hospitals and orphanages, but not of missions, among the Algerians. When Tunis was occupied by France, he was appointed by the Pope to administer its ecclesiastical affairs. In fulfilling his duties in this delicate position, the majority of the Catholic residents being Italians and opposed to the appointment of a French bishop, he was remarkably successful in harmonizing the various discordant elements. The Italian *Riforma* said that "his presence in Tunis was worth more to his country than that of an army." In 1882 he was created cardinal, an honor which would have been conferred earlier but for the opposition of President MacMahon, who was Governor of Algeria during the first years of his bishopric.

One of the secrets of Cardinal Lavigerie's success appears to be his power of obtaining both money and men to carry out his projects. This was shown especially in the missions which he established in the northern oases of the Sahara and the lake region of Central Africa. Though here his missioners were forestalled by the English, yet both Protestant and Catholic seem to have worked in entire harmony, a fact to which Father Clarke, as well as the English missionaries, bears testimony. No greater proof of the success of the work in Uganda an be given than the history of the persecutions by which it was temporarily checked. The heroism and constancy of the native Christians was fully equal to that of the early martyrs of North Africa, whom a grateful church has canonized. During the height of the persecution the Roman Catholic Bishop confirmed ninety-seven of these savages, being called up four or five times in a single night to administer this rite to men who knew that death on the morrow was the almost certain result of their confession. In the successive revolutions which have recently convulsed this powerful native state, the Christians who escaped death in the persecution were for a time driven from the country. A remarkable incident in Mr. Stanley's "March to the Sea," after his rescue of Emin Pasha, shows what manner of men they were during their exile. "We were quietly camped," he says, in a letter to Dr. Livingstone's son-in-law, "when we were made aware that a body of superior people had arrived. They wore cotton dresses, spotless white, and were just as well clothed as any of the tidiest natives of Zanzibar." These men, each of whom "possessed a Prayer-book and the Gospel of Matthew printed in Kiganda," were a deputation from a body of three thousand of these exiled Christians, who had come to ask Mr. Stanley's aid in their ultimately successful attempt to restore Mwanga to his throne, affirming that he had become a Roman Catholic. This aid was necessarily refused, but the incident made a deep impression upon Mr. Stanley, who pertinently asks at the close of his story, "What can a man wish better for a proof that Christianity is possible in Africa?"

Father Clarke devotes the latter part of his volume to a discussion of the general subject of the African slave trade, without, however, contributing to it anything very new or suggestive. He gives the testimony of eye-witnesses, in one touching case of a slave himself, as to the horrors of this traffic, and then treats briefly of the relations of Mohammedanism to slavery and Christianity. This is followed by a short account of the attempts to suppress the slave trade by Sir Samuel Baker on the Nile, and by other less well-known Englishmen on the Niger. The closing chapter is upon the various schemes for its suppression, which may be summed up as follows: The preventing the exportation of slaves by making it piracy, the prohibition of the importation of arms and ammunition, the overthrow of Moslem supremacy, the commercial development of Central Africa, the planting of stations, and the sending armed expeditions to put the traffic down by force. The latter is Cardinal Lavigerie's own plan.

There are two ways in which force can be used, one of which is in successful operation on the west coast of Lake Tanganyika. Here for several years a Capt. Joubert, a French soldier, has devoted himself to the task of defending a district from the slavers. The missionaries have supplied him with arms, and "he has formed a body of militia consisting of 200 negroes. These native soldiers," says the Cardinal, "would, it is true, not bear comparison with European troops, but they are no longer utterly defenceless, and they are able to strike awe, within a certain radius, into the slave-hunting Métis and their allies the Rugaruga." A hundred like members of the church militant scattered throughout Central Africa would go far towards solving the problem lately before the Brussels Conference.

The other plan is to establish armed posts on the various slave routes to prevent the passage of the raiders. But who shall man these stations? White men cannot undertake the task, though a thousand Frenchmen and Belgians alone have volunteered to do it, without a terrible sacrifice of life. Within thirteen years, of the small band of the White Fathers in Africa, eleven "suffered martyrdom, while more than fifty others have died from fatigue and hardships." The black man can do it with far less danger from the climate, and what nobler work could he desire than this? and why might not some colored Americans take part in it?

The second work at the head of our notice is a collection of documents prepared for the use of the members of the Brussels Conference, and also, we presume, for the anti-slavery committees which have been organized in France, Germany, Italy, Belgium, Portugal, Austria, and Spain through the efforts of the Cardinal. It is prefaced by a letter to the King of Belgium, giving a summary of the facts contained in the documents, which are largely extracts from missionaries' letters, as well as the Cardinal's plan for the enrolment of "a sacred gendarmerie" for service against the slave-hunters in the interior of Africa.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Beach, C. F., jr. The Modern Law of Railways. 2 vols. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.
Behrends, Rev. A. J. F. The Philosophy of Preaching. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Blackie, J. S. Essays on Moral and Social Interest. Edinburgh: David Douglas.
Bryant, W. M. The World Energy and its Self-Conservation. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $1.50.
Century Dictionary, Vol. III. G—L. The Century Co.
First Church of Christ in Quincy, Mass. Boston: Damrell & Upham. $2.50.
Fisher, Prof. G. P. The Nature and Method of Revelation. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Flint, J. H. The Law of Trusts and Trustees. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.
Gore, C. Lux Mundi: A Series of Studies in the Religion of the Incarnation. 4th ed. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $5.50.
Why the Solid South? Or, Reconstruction and its Results. Baltimore: R. H. Woodward & Co.
Wilder, M. P. The People I've Smiled With. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Wilkins, A. S. Roman Literature. (Primer.) Macmillan & Co. 35 cents.
Wilkinson, H. Legends of Ancient Rome from Livy. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Wilkinson, S. The Brain of an Army: a Popular Account of the German General Staff. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Williams, M. Reminiscences. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 2 vols. $7.
Woodford, C. M. Naturalist Among the Headhunters. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.75.
Young, L. Simple Elements of Navigation. John Wiley & Sons.

Fine Arts.

SOCIETY OF AMERICAN ARTISTS.

If an intelligent foreigner—Goldsmith's "Citizen of the World" or the writer of the 'Persian Letters'—were now in New York, and wished to form an idea of the artistic culture of this great people, he would probably be taken to visit the exhibition of the National Academy, and would come away from it a sadder if not a wiser man. The error would be excusable—the name alone of the National Academy of Design is imposing, and its comparatively venerable age and its wealth and position would incline our traveller to look there for the art of America—but it would be none the less an error. Any one, foreign or native, who wishes to know what American artists are doing, what are the tendencies and achievements of the young but vigorously growing art of this country, may learn by going, not to the Academy, but to the twelfth exhibition of the Society of American Artists now open at the Fifth Avenue Art Galleries.

There are those who regret this fact, and complain that all this work does not go to the Academy; who vainly appeal to the artists to "concentrate" their efforts, and to make of the Academy exhibition the one strong showing of American art; but the artists will not hearken, and obstinately reserve their best work for the smaller and later show. May it not be

the fault of the Academy itself if it has failed to retain its place in spite of its many advantages? At any rate, it has failed, and the present exhibition of the Society is not only the best one it has yet held, but is far and away the best exhibition of the year, and, probably, the best exhibition of American art ever held in this country. Among its 206 works by 123 artists, of whom 50 are members of the Society and 73 are outsiders, is to be found, with few exceptions, all that is freshest, and best, and most vigorous in the work of the year, all that shows the point reached by to-day's achievement and the direction of to-morrow's progress.

The result is highly encouraging for the future of art in America. It is an exhibition of a singularly high average of attainment, and of an even more noticeable variety of aim and method. Above all, it is an exhibition of things done, not merely of things attempted. The time is past when the Society could be fairly taxed with showing only sketches, studies, tentative efforts. It shows to-day results accomplished, and works of art in several lines as thoroughly carried out as by the artists of any country in the world. It is true that the "subject picture," the picture of anecdote, is conspicuous by its absence, but this is a healthy sign of artistic life; it is true that there is a certain amount of work by men who are rather feeling for new means of expression than fully expressing themselves by means thoroughly acquired and assimilated, but it is by such effort that progress is made. There is still enough of work which can without exaggeration be called masterly to show that we have artists who know their language and have something to say in it, and to justify the boast that the art of America already ranks second only to the art of France in the world's production. There are pictures which might be placed in any collection, in any part of the world, with an assured confidence that nothing better of the same sort could eclipse their merit.

One member of the Society, who sends seven canvases, is one of the first living masters of direct and brilliant technique; another, cut off in his youth, is represented by a marine which, for strength and delicacy, need fear no comparison; the President is represented by five little pictures, which are altogether delightful in their justness of perception and frankness and skilfulness of execution. Composition and the drawing of the nude figure are perhaps the weakest points of the American school; but here also the present exhibition shows what we have of earnest effort and achievement as it can be seen nowhere else, while in landscape the whole gamut is struck, from sombre tonalism through frank naturalism to the latest experiments in brilliant light of the followers of Monet.

The sudden death, at the age of twenty-nine, of Mr. Robert A. Eichelberger, adds a special and melancholy interest to his picture, No. 73, entitled "Surf and Fog," but its intrinsic merit would suffice to make it one of the leading pictures in this or any collection. Its title tells its story—the surf rolling its sheet of foam to the spectator's feet; while the sun, encircled with orange light, struggles to pierce the dense sea fog; but words cannot convey a sense of the power of drawing in form of wave and foam-sheet, the absolute justness of value and color, the restrained force, coupled with exquisite refinement, of the execution, which make of the picture a work of the highest merit and the most interesting marine we remember ever to have seen. No one can have known until this picture was shown what a loss the art of America had suffered in Mr. Eichelberger's death, or how deeply that sad event was to be deplored. What he had already done had been enough to show that he was an artist of great promise; he was cut off in the very hour of achievement. The Society has done what it could to express its sense of loss by giving his last admirable work one of the places of honor in the large gallery, and by draping the panel it occupies with black, and placing upon it a tablet with the dates of his birth and death.

From this we turn to a very different work, Mr. Sargent's "La Carmencita," No. 153, which hangs at the end of the long gallery, and is, from its position as well as from its character, the most conspicuous picture in the exhibition. Mr. Sargent is of all living painters perhaps the most consummate virtuoso, and this picture is the most astonishing display of his virtuosity that we have seen. It is vain to look to him for thought, profundity, harmonies of tone or line; but Paganini was none the less great because he was not Beethoven, and Sargent is the Paganini of painting. For sheer audacity and brilliancy of execution the picture is a marvel that would evoke the admiration of artists the world over. In a New York gallery to-day is a picture fresh from the easel of an American painter that would have been praised by Hals and bought by Velasquez. Such work is not likely ever to be popular with the great public which knows nothing of the difficulties vanquished, and is only disquieted by the strangeness of the means employed; but for a painter it is the source of one of the keenest pleasures that art can give him, and his brother artists do well to treat Mr. Sargent with the highest consideration. Of Mr. Sargent's six other canvases, the most interesting, as showing him in another mood, is the "Summer Morning," No. 158, in which some of the methods of the impressionists have been most intelligently appropriated, and in which the sense of the sunlight reflected from the water and rippling up the white dress and into the face of a charming young woman is delightful.

The third place of honor in the large gallery is occupied by Mr. Bunker, who, in "The Mirror," No. 23, has far surpassed his former efforts and achieved rare grace and distinction. Varyingly excellent also are the portraits by Messrs. Dewing, Beckwith, Tarbell, Benson, Wiles, and others, and different from any of these, yet equally excellent in its way, is the sober, almost severe, "Portrait of Mrs. Schuyler Van Rensselaer," No. 44, by William A. Coffin.

Mr. Chase is represented only by some of his little canvases this year, but he loses nothing by it, for these are of his very best, which is tantamount to saying that no one else could have done them so well. One in particular, "At Kathleen Villa," No. 37, is a wonderfully lovely bit of light and color and air. Mr. Chase and Mr. Sargent are the two best *painters* of the Society, but their talents differ profoundly in quality. Mr. Sargent is the better draughtsman and the more audacious executant; Mr. Chase has the finer sense of color. Mr. Sargent is apt to conceive his figure *in vacuo*, while the best of Mr. Chase's art is his sense of relation. Another very clever executant is Mr. Wiles, whose studio interior entitled "Discouraged," No. 203, is remarkable for the sense of air and space got by direct *morceau* painting with a crisp brush. Though somewhat mannered and unpleasant in handling, Mr. Thayer's "Portrait of a Lady," No. 173, is charming in character, and Mr. Weir's "Reading," No. 196, has his wonted beauty of quiet tone. The range and variety of style in the work here exhibited could not be more clearly shown than by the contrast between the bright gayety of Mr. Blum's "Ca' d'Oro," No. 13, with its reminiscence of Rico, and the almost solemn sobriety of Horatio Walker's "Canadian Pastoral," No. 191, than which no more beautiful piece of color is often seen.

In the way of serious treatment of the nude, there are fewer things to praise. Mr. Low sends two of his smaller compositions, and Mr. Shirlaw, in his "Psyche," No. 163, is more modern in color than is usual with him, if still mannered in the treatment of form. Mr. Benjamin R. Fitz sends also a small nude figure, "The Reflection," No. 79, well drawn, though with great concision and suppression of detail, and painted with much feeling for breadth of tone. It is one of the good things of the exhibition, and somewhat of a surprise in that it is the first work on such a theme exhibited by him. Mr. Cox, who is always a prominent contributor to the Society exhibitions, and who is as notable as a painter of portraits as of the nude, is represented by three pictures: "An Eclogue," No. 49, "The Birth of Venus," No. 50, and "Diana the Huntress," No. 51. In the last-named two pictures, both small canvases, we find single female figures painted with his usual technical excellence, and in the "Diana" especially, a young and slender woman whose body is lithe and strong, great delicacy of line and modelling. It is, moreover, refined and just in color, and loses nothing—as the "Venus" does to some extent—by its background, which is quite in harmony with the figure and well disposed as to mass. "An Eclogue" is the most ambitious composition which the painter of "Poetry and Painting" and the author of the admirable designs for "The Blessed Damosel" has exhibited. Certainly no reproach of insufficiency or lack of thought can be brought against the picture, and it stands, perhaps, as the completest work in the exhibition. There are four female figures; the group is excellent in the great lines, and the landscape, simply treated, possesses the decorative element which painters of to-day so often seem to find it hard to attain. It is an excellent canvas to cite as proof that the art of *picture-making* is not lost sight of by some of our figure-painters, in these days when so much praise is given to the more dashing successes obtained by striving not for all, but only for one or two of the many things in the wide range of the painter's art.

In landscape-painting there are several distinctly marked and divergent tendencies. Apart from one or two surviving examples of the "brown-tree" period, American landscape painters, as shown at the Society's exhibition, may be divided into three schools, the naturalists, the sentimentalists, and the impressionists. At the head of the first of these are Mr. Coffin and Mr. Donoho. Mr. Donoho's "Grouse Cover," No. 64, is a thoroughly manly and straightforward piece of work, firm in drawing and construction, and sufficient in truth of color. It lacks, perhaps, a little in charm and sentiment, but, on the other hand, his second picture, "November," No. 65, with its rising moon, goes as far in the direction of sentiment as is desirable, or as is compatible with his robust personality. Mr. Coffin's "The September Breeze," No. 46, is one of the best of these simply realistic landscapes. In method it is perfectly direct and simple, without affectation or mannerism, and the feeling of a sunny day in late summer is perfectly given. Its color is full and agreeable without being either black and sombre or glitteringly brilliant. It is quite unobtrusive and as simple as good-day, but nevertheless it is perhaps the

best landscape in these rooms. His other picture, "A Pennsylvania Farm—After the Thunder Shower," No. 45, is marked by the same sincerity of manner, while dealing with a much more difficult and unusual effect. It would be hard to say whether it is better than the other or not; the effort is more ambitious, the success less unquestionable. At any rate, it is one of the notable pictures of the year.

By Mr. Tryon's really charming "Morning in May," No. 182; by Mr. Dearth's three pictures, already too artificial and disappointing to his admirers of two years ago, we pass to the true sentimentalists, whose formula would seem to be: "Forget that the earth is solid; forget that the sun ever shines; never paint anything but moonrise, and ruthlessly sacrifice all drawing, all construction, all solidity, to a certain artificial prettiness of tone." To our mind, the jury has admitted too many of the pictures of this class for the greatest good of the exhibition.

Of the landscape-painters of the third class, the impressionists, it becomes us to speak with a certain reserve. They themselves profess to represent the art of the future. They are as confident that other forms of art are outworn as are the Wagnerites that the music-drama is the only possible form of opera. Claude Monet, their high-priest, is a bold experimenter, an explorer of unknown regions, an analyzer of light who would reproduce the visual image of sunlight by the decomposition of the solar spectrum. We are inclined to think that there were heroes before Agamemnon, and that the art of the past will not necessarily tumble into oblivion because of the discovery that three primary colors, placed side by side, give more of the physical sensation of light than does a bit of pure white paint. Still, original research, in any direction, can only result in good, and we can feel that Monet himself, even in his worst extravagances, is adding to the material of art, and preparing the way for those who shall use his discoveries with a saner judgment. Towards his followers we do not feel bound to the same respect, and think ourselves at liberty to criticise their shortcomings or laud their successes, according as we find them intelligent or the reverse in their application of the new methods.

The best of them all is Theodore Robinson. Mr. Robinson was an intelligent artist before he was an impressionist, and remains an intelligent artist now that impressionism claims him for its own. His "Winter Landscape," No. 151, to which the Webb prize has been awarded by the jury, has great distinction of color, and is a picture much beloved of his brother artists. His "Birdseye View," No. 152, with its clustered cottages seen in steep perspective, is most interesting in drawing, though a trifle flat and chalky in its attempt at color on a high key. Mr. Willard L. Metcalf's five pictures, Nos. 126 to 130, have also many solid qualities, and their use of impressionistic methods is kept well within bounds by a masculine intelligence. In "The Enchanted Hour," No. 93, by Childe Hassam, we see the attempt, by a very clever man, to use the methods of Monet in the production of a picture which in primary quality has much more resemblance to the sentimental English school of art. The result is fascinating at first sight, but wears a trifle thin upon further acquaintance. Finally, in the picture by Henry F. Taylor, No. 172, entitled "Sunlight Study," we have the extremest methods of impressionist technique applied with little knowledge of form or construction, the color hatched and plastered until the sky looks like rose-tinted rough-cast, and the landscape like mustard. For good or for evil, such a movement is interesting, and its extent can only be judged of at the Society Exhibition. We believe that it will prove, in the end, to have been for good. It cannot but tend to enlarge the means at the disposal of our artists for their self-expression, while its extravagances will die out of themselves.

In sculpture the Society shows a "Portrait Bust," No. 86, of much distinction, by Daniel C. French, and a graceful relief, No. 87, by the same artist; a charming bust of a little girl, No. 125, by Philip Martiny, the modeller of the Washington Centennial medal; a number of groups of animals by Edward Kemeys, jr., etc., etc.

We have not mentioned nearly all the fine or interesting things in this most interesting exhibition, but the longest article must some time come to an end, and we can only conclude by advising all those interested in art to go and see for themselves. If they are hopeful of the future of American art, they will see much to confirm their hopes; if they are despairing, they will find much comfort there. The hanging, as is usual in the exhibitions of the Society of American Artists, has been admirably done. May this fact not have something to do with the marked preference which our younger and more vigorous artists have shown for the Society?

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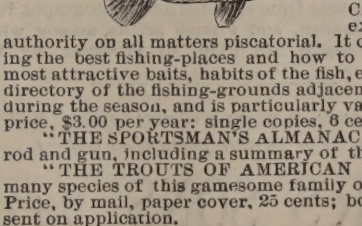

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 15, 1890.

The Week.

If anybody had said, at the beginning of the present session of Congress, that five months' time would be consumed by the Republicans in bringing a tariff bill to the point of actual debate in the House, he would have found nobody to believe him. Yet that is the upshot of the labors of Mr. McKinley and his Committee. They have been at work since December, and they now talk as though they expected to pass their bill through both houses and a conference committee by the 10th of July. The debate was opened by Mr. McKinley, who labored heavily to furnish some reason for increasing duties above the present exorbitant rates. He said that the country, in the election of 1888, virtually instructed Congress to pass a bill sustaining the principles of protection. He did not mention what the aggregate vote of the people was, or what kind of an instruction can be drawn from a minority. Under our system of government a constitutional majority often goes with a numerical minority. In such cases the numerical majority have nothing to say against the rule of the smaller number, but they may rightfully deny that any instruction is to be drawn from a numerical minority, or that any moral support is to be found in a gerrymander. (We use this word not in its conventional sense, but because it best expresses the situation—Mr. Harrison having received a majority of the electoral vote, while Mr. Cleveland had a plurality of the popular vote.) All of Mr. McKinley's speech, therefore, which drew inspiration from the vote of the people in 1888, was hollow and insincere. And if we look at the Chicago platform, we find only one specific instruction, and that is that the taxes on tobacco and on alcohol used in the arts should be repealed. This is not done, and Mr. McKinley offered an apology for not doing it. On the other hand, the duties on a vast multitude of things are increased for the purpose of paying campaign debts to particular classes and persons at the expense of other classes and persons. Of course, Mr. McKinley would not avow this, but it is impossible to understand the bill in any other way.

Mr. Mills's speech in reply to McKinley was in good temper, but charged with the fighting spirit. It expressed the confidence which all the foes of the robber tariff feel, that victory will perch on their banners next fall, and that it will be all the more decisive by reason of the monstrous provisions of the pending bill. The mercantile classes have never been so aroused and indignant during the present generation as they are to-day. The farmers have never been so uneasy as they are now. The manufacturers have never been so divided in sentiment on the subject of raw materials and of the tariff in general. The public, wrathful at the picking of their pockets by a cordon of Trusts that have sprung up within two years, are waiting to see whether Congress will afford the one remedy which it *can* give, instead of the slow and doubtful ones which look to litigation in the courts, and are getting ready to pronounce judgment on this particular grievance in the election of a new Congress next November. Mr. Mills's confidence is well founded.

The colloquy in the House of Commons between Mr. Jesse Collings and Sir James Fergusson, Secretary of the Foreign Office, reported by cable, contains something which we commend to the attention of the promoters of the Fair in Chicago. Sir James Fergusson expressed doubts as to whether there was enough promise of advantage to British interests in the Fair to justify official participation in it, and he added:

> "It is probable that the manufacturers of Great Britain would, to a great extent, be deterred from sending exhibits to the Fair if the tariff precluded profitable sales in America."

This, of course, has reference to the effects of the McKinley bill, and it is a view which is undoubtedly shared to a greater or less extent by the manufacturers of the Continent. What object, they naturally ask, can we have in sending goods to a country which is actively engaged in shutting out foreign commerce, and in which importers of foreign goods and their agents are openly denounced as persons engaged in a disreputable calling, and threatened with a denial of the protection of a jury for their property? Any one who supposes that Europeans do not notice the inconsistency of holding an international fair under a Government which is trying to close its ports against foreigners, and that they are not amused by our anxiety for steamers to run to foreign countries while legislating to prevent their bringing return cargoes, underrates their sense of humor. The chances now are that the Chicago Fair will be simply an American Fair, and that "the world" will have but little to do with it. This would probably have been true of the proposed Fair in New York also. The McKinley bill abroad produces the impression that American democracy is lapsing into barbarism, especially when taken in connection with the action of Congress on the question of international copyright.

It is a rare occasion when we can find anything to commend in the performances of Congressman Boutelle, but he introduced a bill in the House last week which deserves only praise. It is in the shape of a section which it is proposed to add to the Inter-State Commerce Act, and reads as follows: "That nothing contained in this Act shall be construed to authorize the sale or traffic in intoxicating liquors in any State contrary to the laws thereof." The Supreme Court took occasion to say, in the decision rendered by Chief Justice Fuller last week, that Congress may pass an act of this sort permitting the States to apply their own laws to the traffic in liquors imported from other States, and there are evident and abundant reasons why it should pass such an act, while no objection is apparent. It is universally conceded that the States ought to enjoy this power, which most people supposed that they possessed before the supreme tribunal decided to the contrary; and the only way they can now secure it is through the passage of such a bill as Mr. Boutelle has introduced.

Some very grotesque comments have been made upon the Supreme Court's "original-package" decision, but the palm must be awarded to certain "temperance workers," mentioned by the Washington correspondent of the Boston *Journal*, whose "theory seems to be that the complexion of the Court was changed by electing Mr. Cleveland, who was enabled to appoint two extreme States'-rights Democrats to the bench, and, but for the fact that they have seats on that bench, this decision might not have been rendered." To appreciate fully the humor of this theory, one must reflect that the States'-rights side of the pending question was that which held that each State possesses the power to regulate the liquor traffic for itself, while the Federalist side was that which maintained the supremacy of Congress; and that the two Democratic appointees of President Cleveland, Fuller and Lamar, both took the Federalist side, along with Miller, Bradley, and Blatchford of the Republicans. Equally amusing is the theory of "Rising Sun Stove Polish" Morse that the people really responsible for the decision of the Court are the men in this State who voted for St. John in 1884. "The third-party Prohibitionists of New York," he says, "elected Cleveland by giving him the electoral votes of that State. Cleveland appointed Chief-Justice Fuller, a Democrat, and made a majority of the Supreme Court in favor of the liquor traffic possible. Had they helped to elect a Republican President, Republican judges would have sat upon this question and a different decision would have been reached, and the decision of the lower court would have been affirmed." If a man like Morse ever stopped to think, it would puzzle even him to give any reason for supposing that, if Mr. Blaine had been elected and had appointed two Republican judges, those two Republicans would have been any more likely to vote with Harlan, Gray, and Brewer than with Miller, Bradley, and Blatchford.

Congressman McCreary's charge, that the abandonment of the contemplated trip of the South Americans through the Southern States was due to a "premeditated blunder" on the part of Mr. Blaine, is putting it a little

too strong. There was blundering enough, to be sure, and it was that which led to giving up the trip, but Mr. Blaine was far from desiring that result. One of the most distinguished of the foreign delegates has stated that the work of the Pan-American Congress could have been done in half the time actually consumed, had it not been for the faulty management of the affair by the State Department. Through the lack of material and a programme for the Congress, both of which should have been carefully prepared, through the delays caused in the attempt to foist a secretary upon the Congress personally distasteful to the foreign delegates, through the squabbling of the American representatives among themselves, through the fearful inadequacy of the clerical force, especially the translators, and through Mr. Blaine's obstinate efforts to get his plan of arbitration adopted in the form upon which he had set his heart, and which he did not get after all, the Congress was so spun out that the Southern tour was made impossible. Probably the only thing that reconciles Mr. Blaine to that failure is the fact that it strikes off some thousands from the deficiency bill he will have, in all likelihood, to present to Congress. The true point of attack for Mr. McCreary is the Secretary's bad management. Most diplomats would have concerned themselves about the details of such a gathering; but "American diplomacy" would appear to consist in turning them over to incapable subordinates, and in dreaming pleasant dreams.

If any one wishes to have a better understanding of the occult forces which succeed in defeating an international copyright law, he will find much light in a column advertisement which occupies a prominent position on the first page of the *Christian Advocate* for May 8. That paper is the official organ of the Methodist Episcopal Church and of the Methodist Book Concern. The advertisement opens with the following remarkable declaration:

> "A publishing firm of New York, having purchased a manuscript from Mr. Stanley relating exclusively to his Emin Pasha relief expedition, are preparing to publish the same in book-form some months hence. This firm has a perfect right to purchase manuscripts from Mr. Stanley, and to publish them if it so desires, and we also have the right to do the same thing if it pleases us; but neither we nor these publishers have any right to resort to misrepresentation for the purpose of misleading the public with reference to our respective books."

The advertisers, who are the Methodist Book Concern, go on to say, with thinly disguised phraseology, that their book will be made of matter which has cost nothing—that is, of pirated or stolen material—and that they will thus be able to sell it for less than half the price at which the publishers who have bought their material of Stanley will be able to sell theirs. They even denounce the latter publishers for trying to make the people "buy these high-tariff" and "high-priced books intended for the studious or the shelves of the rich, and not for popular use." Finally, as a parting word of instruction to their agents, these highly moral Christian publishers say:

> "Do not be frightened by the unjust and untrue statements which appear in papers, and which are supplied and paid for by rival publishers. Remember that *you can arrange with an editor for just as strong notices of your book, if you care to pay for them, because the business of an editor is to make money for his paper;* and as long as you pay him for what you desire inserted, he will treat you just as kindly as he will any one else."

Senator Quay, as Chairman of the National Republican Committee, is sending out circulars asking Republican voters to take his certificates of party membership and return him the coupons, with $10 for each coupon, in order that he may get together a fund for the distribution of tariff documents. He assures all subscribers that a "record will be kept" of their names, but gives no guarantee that he will not take their money for his own uses, as he took the money of the State of Pennsylvania when he was one of its public officials. A man who, as Secretary of State, took $260,000 from the State Treasury and lost it in stock speculation, and again as State Treasurer took $400,000 of the public money in his care and speculated with it, being able, because of better luck, to return it again, is not a safe person to trust with a large campaign fund for which there is no accounting to be given. We should suppose that subscribers would think of Quay's record before they sent back his coupons with $10, even if the certificates which he sends out do bear a fine portrait of Abraham Lincoln. In fact, Wanamaker's portrait would be a much more suitable ornament for the certificates in every way, for it would serve as a trademark for the kind of business which Quay is engaged in, and through which Wanamaker himself got into public office.

Mr. Beekman, the former Corporation Counsel, who has spent much time at Albany during the session of the Legislature which ended on Thursday last, is quoted by the *World* as having said of that body: "It's awful, awful! Any man who goes up there and watches them for twenty-four hours will say that anything would be better for New York than to be at the mercy of such a gang." Similar testimony has come from other witnesses, of equally high character and capacity for sound judgment, who have had occasion to go to Albany during the past few months. The estimates of the press almost unanimously coincide with these personal observations. It is agreed on all hands that the late Legislature is one of the very worst the State has ever been burdened with. Yet, after all, the amount of positive harm which it has done is very small. By a wise dispensation of Providence, the worst men and worst jobs were about evenly divided between the two political parties, and in every instance in which a common agreement to plunder the public could not be reached, failure was the ultimate result. If all the jobbers had united for a grand raid, the plight of the State would have been woful indeed.

The new registration law which the late Legislature passed should be set down among the most praiseworthy acts of that body. It will be of great service in aiding the operation of the new ballot law, and, in connection with that and the Corrupt-Practices Act, will give to the State the best series of election laws possessed by any State in the Union. Our present system of personal registration, which applies only to New York and Brooklyn, is, under the new law, extended to all the cities of the State, twenty-eight in number, while the system hitherto used in these smaller cities, registration in person or through a friend, is extended to all the rural portions of the State. In this way the entire State is brought under a complete system of registration by means of which fraudulent voting will be made so difficult as to be practically abolished. No man can vote on election day unless his name be found on the poll list when he asks for his ballots. He can vote no ballots save those he receives inside the polling-place, and he must prepare and deposit his ballot in complete seclusion, free from espionage of all kinds. If he accepts a bribe of any kind for his vote, or if in consideration of such bribe he refrains from voting, he will be liable to imprisonment for not less than three months nor more than one year, and will be excluded from the right of suffrage for five years. The law for counting the votes in New York has always been regarded as one of the best in the Union, and has proved, in several close and critical contests, to be a sure bulwark against tampering with the returns. Now that we are assured of an absolutely fair and untrammelled ballot, as well as a fair count, there can be no further apprehension of a dishonest election in this State.

Thanks to the juggling tactics of Mr. Gardenier, the Republican Chairman of the Committee on Codes, the amendment to the Corrupt-Practices Act, extending its provisions to campaign committees, failed to reach a vote in the Assembly. We have no doubt that the politicians of both parties were in cordial sympathy with Mr. Gardenier—for they have the best of reasons for not desiring to see the amendment become a law—and that a majority of the members of the Assembly were very glad not to have to vote upon it. As the law stands, however, it will give them much annoyance when the next election comes around, provided they run for office. They will be obliged to file sworn statements of every dollar received or spent in the campaign and election; and if anybody be disposed to follow them up closely, this requirement may get offenders into serious trouble. In this city, for example, every candidate who pays an assessment will be obliged to publish the amount of it under oath, under penalty of imprisonment for not less than three months nor more than one year if he does not, together with the forfeiture of his office in case he has been elected. The friends of honest government ought to form an organization of some kind for the express purpose of seeing that the law is obeyed to the letter, and that perjurers under it are exposed and pun-

ished. This would be a first-rate public service for our energetic City Reform Club to take in hand.

Louisiana alone, of all the States in the Union, elects her legislators for four years, each body of law-makers holding two sessions during that period. The second session of the Legislature chosen in 1888 opened on Monday, and it possesses a national interest from the fact that the Louisiana Lottery Company is to make a desperate struggle for a fresh lease of life. The term of its existence under the State Constitution is nearly ended, and unless it can secure the passage of a constitutional amendment permitting an extension of its charter, it will have to shut up shop. The managers make most alluring offers, promising to pay the State a million of dollars a year, and they have largely subsidized the press, so that there is too much reason to fear that they may succeed. Gov. Nicholls has proved himself a worthy executive by devoting a large share of his message to the Legislature to an earnest protest against the continuance of lottery rule in Louisiana. He drew a graphic picture of the despotism which the ring would exercise if it should secure a fresh lease of power. "Should this lottery get firmly planted in this State," he said, "it will own and hold the purchasable vote, solidly, in the hollow of its hands for ever; and, through it and by it, the liberties, the property, and the honor of the people of Louisiana are at its feet. It would make and unmake governors, judges, senators, representatives, commissioners of election, returning officers, assessors, and all other officials at its will. Merit would be disregarded, and the test for office would not be ability, integrity, public spirit, or worth, but subserviency to the behests of that company." He concluded by announcing his resolution to exercise all the influence of his official position to avert the threatened disaster and disgrace, and by invoking the co-operation of all good citizens. The lottery managers are reported to be confident that they have "fixed" a majority of the Legislature, but the manly attitude of Gen. Nicholls ought to arouse a public sentiment which will prove irresistible. It was the opposition of the Governor of North Dakota which blocked a similar scheme in that State last winter.

Even if the lottery ring should capture the State of Louisiana, it would still be possible to break its power. The company declares that only 3 per cent. of its revenue comes from the people of the State, so that a Federal statute depriving it of its present privilege of using the mails to gather money from all parts of the Union would render a new charter worthless. "The Anti-Lottery League of Louisiana," whose roll of officers includes many of the most distinguished citizens of the State, has been organized for the purpose of overthrowing the ring, and it makes an earnest appeal for the passage by Congress of a law which would prevent the company from using the mails. It ought to be possible to frame a measure which would secure this end without infringing upon the rights of the public, and such a measure should be passed. At present, as the appeal of the League truly says, "the United States postal service is the means used by the lottery company for the debasement of national morals," and such a state of things is nothing less than a national scandal.

One of the curious phases of the liquor question in England is the acknowledgment by the Government and the community that not only is a distillery or brewery property entitled to the protection of the law, but that a liquor-dealer's license is property which cannot be taken away from him, without compensation, except in case of misbehavior. Consequently, whenever the question of reducing the number of public houses comes up, the question of compensation to the holders of the licenses comes up with it. Those who know what the prohibitionist view of intoxicating drinks is in this country, can easily understand how fiercely the public is divided on this latter question in England. To pay the money of the taxpayers to people who have been poisoning the bodies and ruining the souls of the community to remunerate them for the loss of their hellish traffic, is a proposal which lashes an English teetotaler into fury. But the reverence for property, deeply implanted in every Englishman's bosom, has thus far secured the liquor-dealers against any such legislation as that which in Kansas and Iowa swept the breweries and distilleries out of existence, with the sanction of the United States Supreme Court, without the smallest compensation. Both parties in England have thus far shrunk from any proposal to take away licenses without paying for them. The present Ministry has undertaken to solve the difficulty by increasing the duty on spirits, so as to form a fund out of which to compensate the holders of licenses, and have incorporated a clause in the budget to this effect at the eleventh hour, and before any previous discussion of the object of the tax. This marked departure from Parliamentary as well as constitutional usage is, combined with the heat which always surrounds the liquor question, likely to make a great explosion, in which the Ministry may suffer considerable damage.

The break between Emin Pasha and Stanley, of which there have been rumors for a good while, now seems to be public property, for Emin has openly announced his distrust of Stanley, and intimates that if he were to tell what he knows about Stanley and Tippoo Tib, the great Arab chief of the Congo, it would create a great sensation. The reason he gives for desiring to take service with the Germans rather than the English, is that the English were "trying to derive advantage from the prestige of his name." There is no doubt that if he had joined Stanley, he would have gone to England in the rôle of second fiddle to that explorer, and he doubtless perceived this as soon as he was rescued. Stanley has said nothing to raise Emin's credit, and in fact has given rather a depreciatory account of his state of mind when he was found on the great lakes. Emin has taken service now with the Germans, and is to have some field of work assigned to him in Africa. But the German leader there is Maj. Wissmann, an able and resolute soldier and explorer, who is pushing his way vigorously into the German "sphere of influence." Much bad feeling is growing up among the African adventurers of both nationalities, and the situation is getting to resemble strikingly that in this country in the middle of the last century, when the English and French were contending for the valley of the Mississippi.

The late municipal elections in Paris—that is, election of members of the Municipal Council—were a fair trial of Boulanger's remaining strength in the place where he once was strongest—the capital. His followers expected to win forty seats for him, and they won just two positively, with a chance of three more on a second ballot. This seems to make an end of him politically. There is a rumor that he proposes, by way of bringing himself once more into notice, to return to France if the Government will give him a new trial, or, indeed, to return anyhow and take his chance; but this latter is very unlikely. The difficulty in the way of this programme is, that the French public has had a new sensation in the arrest and imprisonment of the Duc d'Orléans, who is a competitor of Boulanger's for the business of saving French society, so that it would be very difficult to get up another about a cast-off hero.

The financial situation of Italy is breaking down the Crispi Ministry to all outward appearance, and throwing the whole kingdom into political confusion. The unbearable burdens are undoubtedly due in the main to an endeavor to live up to the obligations imposed by the triple alliance with Germany and Austria. For example, in 1875, before the alliance, the army appropriations amounted to about $34,000,000. In 1889 they amounted to over $73,000,000, or more than double. In 1870 the naval expenses amounted to about $6,000,000. In 1889 they had reached $24,000,000 in round numbers, or four times as much, and besides this there have been several supplemental appropriations. Signor Magliani, former Minister of Finance, and now a severe critic of the Ministry, in a speech recently delivered at Naples, proposed to remedy all this by a readjustment of taxes which he thinks would bring in about $6,000,000, and by a reduction of about as much more in the naval and military expenses. The situation is an extremely critical one, and the remedy will have to be applied before long. The city of Rome has apparently already gone into bankruptcy, and other Italian cities may have to share the same fate unless the public burdens are lightened.

AN UNPLEASANT CONTRAST.

"I AM proud of their splendid courage when I remember that they are Americans," said Gen. Garfield in the House of Representatives June 25, 1864, speaking of the Confederates. "It is over, thank God!" said Senator Sherman, in speaking of the war, during a speech at Nashville, Tenn., March 24, 1887, "but the courage, bravery, and fortitude of both sides are now the pride and heritage of us all."

These utterances of leading supporters of the Union cause, one during the struggle itself and the other nearly a quarter of a century later, represent the feeling of all candid men regarding the soldiers of the two sections. Nobody thinks of claiming that one army was the superior of the other in manly qualities, and it is a source of pride to every patriotic citizen that the Southern troops displayed such courage and fortitude that no question of that sort can ever arise. One cannot contrast the soldierly qualities of Federal and Confederate, because they were identical.

It would be a terrible misfortune to all Americans if the men who served in either army should make a record after the close of the war which was unworthy of them, and it would be especially humiliating to the people of the North if that record should be made by Union veterans. Unhappily, it must be confessed that occasion has of late been furnished for a contrast between the ex-Federals and the ex-Confederates to the disadvantage of the former.

The surrender of Lee left the Southern soldiers without resources, to begin life again in a country devastated by war. Lee told Grant that his men had been living for some days on parched corn exclusively, and that he would have to ask the victors for rations and forage to keep them from starving. Grant voluntarily proposed that the Confederate soldiers should keep their horses or mules as a matter of necessity. Here is his description of the incident in his 'Memoirs':

> "I then said to him [Lee] that I thought this would be about the last battle of the war—I sincerely hoped so; and I said further I took it that most of the men in the ranks were small farmers. The whole country had been so raided by the two armies that it was doubtful whether they would be able to put in a crop to carry themselves and their families through the next winter without the aid of the horses they were then riding. The United States did not want them, and I would, therefore, instruct the officers I left behind to receive the paroles of his troops, to let every man of the Confederate Army who claimed to own a horse or mule take the animal to his home. Lee remarked again that this would have a happy effect."

It would be almost impossible to exaggerate the hardness of the ex-Confederate's lot when he returned to his home. Even if disabled by wounds or disease, he could not look to the authorities anywhere for relief, since the Federal Government treated him as a traitor and his State was too poor to do anything for him; indeed, at first he really had no State, living under military rule. In short, he had only himself to depend upon. But he was not daunted by the difficulties of his situation. He set to work and was soon making his own way in the world, and gaining both confidence and self-respect with every forward step.

The victorious army also returned to the million homes from which it had been gathered. The nation it had saved was prompt to recognize its services. Generous provision was made for the pensioning of any man who had suffered a wound or contracted a chronic disease during his service. The sufferers quickly availed themselves of the offer of aid, and within ten years after the close of the war the annual appropriations for pensions—then less than $30,000,000—began to show the falling off which was to be expected from the ravages of death among those on the roll. In 1875 the Union soldier's reputation in peace worthily sustained the honor which he had gained in war.

The situation is different in 1890. Instead of having fallen off, as was expected fifteen years ago, and would have happened in a normal state of things, the annual appropriation for pensions has more than trebled, until it now reaches about $100,000,000, while one branch of Congress has just passed a bill which would increase the demand by about $50,000,000 more a year. Instead of being a roll of honor, containing only the names of those who earned a claim upon the nation's especial consideration by casualties of service which disabled them from earning a living, the list of pensioners already contains thousands of men who are in no sense disabled, and who therefore have no moral claim to an allowance from the Treasury. The pending proposition to give a pension to every soldier when he reaches the age of sixty, involves grants to tens of thousands who not only were never wounded or otherwise injured, but who are as well off as the majority of their fellow-countrymen who are to be taxed for their benefit. And there is another project earnestly supported which proposes to abolish the limit of age entirely, and enable any man of forty-five, though he may have a competence, to draw eight dollars a month for the remainder of his life from the Federal Treasury, provided he was in any way connected with the Union Army for the space of ninety days.

These wholesale pension schemes to-day threaten to ruin the reputation of the Union soldier. While the soldier who served in the Confederate army represents the best element in Southern society—the men who have built up a new prosperity on the ruins of the old by working hard and depending upon themselves—the ex-Union soldier is coming to stand in the public mind for a helpless and greedy sort of person, who says that he is not able to support himself, and whines that other people ought to do it for him. According to the claims now made, victory left the representatives of the rich North worse off than defeat left those of the devastated South.

It is truly an unpleasant contrast. The mischief, however, is not as yet irreparable. If the self-respecting veterans everywhere throughout the North will follow the example of those in Galena, Ill., who declare that the pending schemes are "degrading to the old soldiers," and who call upon their Congressman to vote against all such bills, the demagogues at Washington will be forced to listen and obey. The only question is, whether demoralization has already gone so far that the spirit of manliness which has just blazed up in Gen. Grant's old home, will die out again, and leave the reputation of the Union soldier tarnished by himself.

THE PRESBYTERIAN TROUBLE.

THE session of the Presbyterian General Assembly, which begins at Saratoga this week, has this most striking characteristic, that it concerns hardly more the Presbyterians themselves, though to them it is an occasion of most absorbing interest, than it does Dr. Alden and his friends on the American Board, and equally their opponents — that is to say, the whole Congregational body — on one side, and the Roman Catholics on the other. It is an instructive instance of the virtual solidarity of modern dogmatic theology that the proposed revision of the Presbyterian standards shou'd thus affect the two extremes of the ecclesiastical scale by its relation to the vexed question of the "larger hope," or probation after death, and to the Catholic doctrine of "the middle state." But so it is, and the Presbyterians, proceeding *in medio*—in this case not the safest nor the easiest path—will find themselves watched, more passionately perhaps by the friends and the enemies of the "new theology" in the Congregational order, but quite as closely by the keen-eyed Roman Catholics, who are more alive than any other class of men to the direct results and multiple implications of any change in Protestant theology.

As to interest of the Roman Catholics in the matter, it is further strange to observe that it is scarcely at all excited by anything which affects them directly, such as the Presbyterian classification of "infidels, Papists, or other idolaters," which it is proposed to reform by omitting the word "other"; or the declaration that the Pope of Rome "is that Antichrist, that man of sin, and son of perdition, that exalteth himself in the Church against Christ, and all that is called God," which it is proposed to eliminate. These things the Roman Catholics regard with calm indifference, and if they did not, the proposed modification would avail nothing so long as the chapter on the Lord's Supper was suffered to remain. That chapter denounces the Roman doctrine of the mass as "most abominably injurious to Christ's one and only sacrifice," and as "the cause of manifold superstitions, yea, of gross idolatries"; so if it were allowed to stand unaltered, the Roman Catholics still would be declared idolaters. And striking out the declaration about Antichrist would be a work of supererogation, after Dr. Briggs's acknowledgment, in his book 'Whither,' that "Protestant divines have always recognized that the Church of Rome was a true church. . . . They unite with her in veneration of the noble army of martyrs—pious monks, bishops, archbishops, and popes—who have adorned the history of the Western Church. These are our heritage as well as theirs." If it can be a "true church" in which Antichrist reigned, and if Presby-

terians "venerate" popes who exalted themselves "in the Church against Christ and all that is called God," the Roman Catholics naturally will not mind much the fulminations of the Westminster Confession.

The interest of the Roman Catholics is not in these things—it is one with the interest of the Congregationalists; both depend upon the proposed recasting of the standards so that they shall be made to declare, in the words of the New York Presbytery's Committee, "the general love of God for all mankind, the salvation in Jesus Christ provided for all, and to be preached to every creature," and be "so revised as not to appear to discriminate concerning infants dying in infancy, or so as to omit all reference to them (section 3, chap. 10); and so as to preclude that explanation of section fourth which makes it teach the damnation of all the heathen, or makes it deny that there are any heathen who are regenerated and saved by Christ through the Spirit, and who endeavor to walk in penitence and humility, according to the measure of light which God has been pleased to grant them." These are cardinal points of Presbyterianism, and debate must run high over them when the fathers and brethren meet. They will be called upon either to deny or to reaffirm the decree of reprobation, or "foreordination of some men and angels to everlasting death"; election of some, so that "neither are any other redeemed by Christ effectually called, justified, adopted, sanctified, and saved, but the elect only," and preterition, or "the passing by of the rest of mankind," and "the foreordaining of them to dishonor and wrath"; and damnation of the whole non-Christian world, including non-elect infants. But it happens that to free the Confession from what these doctrines presuppose, or what grows out of them by necessary consequence, will require not mere excision, but total reconstruction, or rather a root-and-branch regrowth. These are central ideas of the system as contained not merely in the Confession but in catechisms, Plan of Government, and Directory of Public Worship. The idea of a limited atonement runs through the whole Presbyterian structure, and to withdraw it would leave nothing to hold the parts together. The Confession is full of implications, necessary conclusions, and plain insinuations, all to the same effect as the distinct declarations which some now wish to remove from it.

A means of compromise has been proposed by allowing the Confession to remain unchanged, supplementing it with a "short and simple creed," declaring "the love of God in Christ for all mankind"; but this would mean merely that the Presbyterians would have two opposing creeds directly contradicting each other. The simplest solution, and one consistent with express declarations of the Westminster Confession of Faith, would be to expunge every article and chapter except the first chapter; that on "The Holy Scripture," which declares that the Bible is the only "rule of faith and life," and that "the infallible rule of interpretation of Scripture is the Scripture itself." But this would be to abandon Presbyterianism, and really to take the whole Presbyterian body over to the "Disciples of Christ," who are virtually a sort of Baptist-Unitarians; so we may not look to see the matter issue in this form.

A secular critic will not be suspected of objecting on principle to restatement, or even development, of Christian truth. Development has the mark of primitive rather than of modern times. There is no reason why truth may not be developed in the nineteenth century as well as in the third century, provided the same conditions are given—the freshness and courage of the third century in dealing with doctrine might be displayed in our day, if it were supported by the same knowledge, zeal, humility, and readiness for martyrdom. Only there is the important circumstance that the whole Church now is never ready to speak all at once, in which circumstance attempts at "repristination" are somewhat perilous. The working-out of the renovated Presbyterian doctrine on the side of eschatology would be a very serious matter, and exceeding difficult, in view of all manner of contention certain to arise over it. "The souls of believers are at their death made perfect in holiness," says the Westminster Shorter Catechism, a declaration which the *Catholic World* says is "but a plenary indulgence without conditions." But Dr. Briggs says, "Immediate sanctification at death is an error added on to the orthodox doctrine of sanctification that makes it inconsistent and virtually destroys it." Prof. Briggs holds to an intermediate state, and inclines to the opinion that it is one of progressive sanctification, being obliged thereby to deny the particular judgment of each soul after death in order to maintain the theory that there are opportunities in the middle state for further sanctification of those who need it, including the heathen. This would be objected to at once by Dr. Alden and his friends, and by the Roman Catholics, as a theory devised simply to meet a difficulty created by Calvinism, and as introducing other difficulties in the way of orthodoxy greater than any which it undertakes to solve. What the precise answer of Dr. Alden's party might be we cannot say, but probably they would affirm themselves to be more Calvinist than the revising Presbyterians, which no doubt would be true. The Roman Catholic answer would be that the universality of the benefits of redemption in this life removes the necessity of the extension of them to a future state.

It is not necessary to pursue the subject further in order to indicate the origin of the Congregational and the Roman Catholic concern in the General Assembly's revision work. Every line of that work properly run out to its natural end will touch some matter of peculiar interest to one or the other of those bodies, and from both of them inquiries may proceed, answers to which the Presbyterians probably have not yet thought out. Why, for example, does the new eschatology omit its manifestly necessary corollary— prayers for the dead? Its view of man's condition after death would make the practice of praying for the dead a most urgent duty. It seems absurd for Dr. Briggs to stop short of this practice, the fact being that prayers for the dead furnish the bulk of the testimony for the primitive belief in the middle state.

ARE ORCHESTRAL MUSICIANS ARTISTS?

Much has been written recently regarding the question whether the Musical Mutual Protective Union could succeed in preventing the famous Strauss orchestra, which has just arrived, from giving concerts in the United States, on account of the Alien-Contract-Labor Law. But there is a comic side to this question which deserves some attention. Jokes generally lose their point if they have to be explained, but in this case a few historic references are needed to make clear the funny part of this business. In the Middle Ages, when instrumental music was coming into general vogue, for its own sake or as an accompaniment to song, the minstrels and other musicians were regarded as mere vagabonds. As Naumann remarks in his 'History of Music,' "they never achieved any social distinction or attained any civil rights. True it is that their existence was tolerated, but all real protection of the law was withheld from them. Indeed, to such an extent was this carried that a strolling player might suffer bodily injury, even by the sword of his assailant, and yet have no claim to compensation. The farcical performance of striking at the *shadow* of his wanton aggressor a blow similar to that which he himself had received, was the only protection the law afforded him. Thus this remarkable people, unwittingly possessed of a romantic spirit, remained throughout the Middle Ages honorless and homeless outcasts. Even the Church withheld its sympathy, and denied them the right to partake of the Christian sacrament."

As late as the eighteenth century, operatic performers were regarded as being without the pale of ordinary citizenship, and even composers and famous virtuosi were treated very often as servants. The indignities suffered by Mozart which induced him to leave Salzburg, are well known; and Sir Julius Benedict, in his 'Life of Weber,' gives this striking account of the state of affairs in London only three-quarters of a century ago: "In the huge 'reunions' of the aristocracy, artists were not expected to mix with the company. Shut up, till everybody had assembled, in a small room, bid by insolent lackeys to enter the gorgeous drawing-rooms by a back staircase, even *separated in some cases by a cord* from the rest of humanity, to avoid any contagion, commanded like any menial to sing their songs, . . . the concert over, either directed to take their refreshments in a separate room or to go home supperless—all this considered, it was not to be wondered at that even richly remunerated artists were disgusted with the treatment they received."

Within the last half century, however, the social status of musicians has rapidly improved, so that to-day not only distinguished artists but ordinary orchestral musicians,

provided they are gentlemen, are treated as such in society and admitted to the privileges of guests, because it is beginning to be recognized that to play a musical instrument well requires artistic intelligence and taste. If, therefore, the M. M. P. U. or the Balfe Club (which has presented a formal protest against the landing of the Strauss Orchestra), should succeed in keeping these musicians out, on the ground that they are mere laborers, on a level with hod-carriers and miners, and not artists, they would thereby prove that they themselves, the orchestral musicians of New York, are not artists, and that the social privileges now accorded them are undeserved. A neater boomerang could not be devised.

So much for the comic side of this business. But there is another aspect, which would be very serious indeed if a handful of musicians, most of whom emigrated to this country, should be enabled to prevent sixty-five millions of Americans from having an opportunity to enjoy the performances of one of the most famous orchestras in Europe. This would put an arbitrary power in their hands which no German Bismarck or Russian Czar even would dream of arrogating to himself, and which, if submitted to by the American officials, would make them the laughing-stock of all Europe. It would be wofully absurd even to subject the members of the Strauss Orchestra to individual examination, like Barnum's tuba-player, whose landing the M. M. P. U. tried to prevent, and who would have been returned to Europe had it not been for the interference of a newspaper reporter. For the Strauss musicians do not come here as solo performers, and are therefore not to be judged as such. They come here as integral parts of an orchestra which has won world-wide fame as an interpreter of a special branch of music, in which it has no equal. Mr. Seidl says of this orchestra that it "is altogether unique, and of its kind the most excellent in existence," and Mr. Wm. Steinway says that "no existing orchestra plays the characteristic music of the Strauss family with the Strauss vim, as the Strauss Orchestra does. To accomplish this, each player must be an artist." The great success of the Strauss Orchestra in London and in all the leading German cities which were visited last season, shows that Eduard Strauss has succeeded in keeping the orchestra which his brother and father conducted before him up to its former artistic level. And it is self-evident that it would be folly for him to engage any but the best artists in a city which is so full of first-class musicians as Vienna.

In the face of such facts, the M. M. P. U. will do well not to cover itself with ridicule and odium by interfering with the Strauss concert tour. But it is perhaps too much to expect this Socialistic cabal to act with discretion. A few years ago they tried to ruin the Thomas Orchestra by preventing Mr. Thomas from importing such musicians as he needed to make his band first-class; and we heard another distinguished leader say a few days ago that the high prices now asked by members of this "protective" Union had compelled him to give up his annual series of concerts in New York, and that things had come to such a pass that no one could venture to give a concert unless he was backed by a millionaire or a society.

AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY.

BOSTON, May 8, 1890.

THE spring meeting of the Society was held yesterday at the rooms of the American Academy. To the great regret of the members, Prof. W. D. Whitney sent in his resignation as President. Dr. Wm. Hayes Ward was elected to fill his place. The other officers elected for the year were: Vice-Presidents, Rev. A. P. Peabody, Prof. E. E. Salisbury, Prof. D. C. Gilman; Secretaries, Prof. D. G. Lyon, Prof. C. R. Lanman, Prof. W. W. Goodwin; Treasurer, Mr. A. Van Name: Directors, Mr. A. I. Cotheal, Prof. M. Bloomfield, Prof. J. H. Thayer, Prof. E. W. Hopkins, Prof. R. J. H. Gottheil, Prof. A. L. Frothingham, Prof. J. P. Taylor. Profs. Antonio Maria Ceriani (Milan), H. Brugsch-Pasha (Berlin), Eberhard Schrader (Berlin), and William D. Whitney (New Haven) were elected honorary members. Mr. Alexander I. Cotheal of New York sent a gift of $1,000 to the Society.

The following papers were presented: Prof. W. R. Harper (Yale), with a view to show the value of historical syntax, gave several studies of the Taylor inscription of Sennacherib. The following points were dwelt upon: the accusative in *u* and *a*, the relation between adjective and substantive, permansive, participle, infinitive, and noun with pronominal suffixes. Mr. Lester Brader, jr. (Yale), presented "A Classification of the Sentences in the Taylor Inscription of Sennacherib." Mr. George A. Barton (Harvard) spoke on "The Origin and Character of Tiamat," the Biblical *tehōm*, symbolized as a dragon. Dr. Wm. Hayes Ward spoke on "Babylonian Mythology as illustrated by Babylonian Art." The chief sources of information are the seal cylinders. Dr. Ward thinks that there is no figure of Gisdubar on the celebrated Sargon stone. The figure is rather that of the god of fertilizing waters. We see this from other examples in which there appears in addition an undoubted Gisdubar figure. This god of the fertilizing waters is represented with fish, and with streams coming from his shoulders or from his navel. Before the god there generally appears an attendant pushing a figure. In later art the stream disappears, and the figure seems to come forward willingly. Dr. Ward sees in this figure Shamash, the sun-god, who is also pictured with streams. The Abbu Habba tablet seems to represent the same scene as the one so familiar to us on the seals. When the streams disappear from the seated god, they reappear in the emblems of the sun-god, as four streams of water crossing a circle. There is no doubt that the figure on the Abbu Habba tablet is that of Shamash. The scene must therefore be laid in Heaven, and not in Hades, as heretofore supposed. In the Abbu Habba representation, the god rides upon the *upper* waters, in the neighborhood of which stars are plainly visible.

Dr. Robert Harper (Yale) made a communication in regard to three tablets now in his possession which he had brought back from the University of Pennsylvania's expedition to Babylonia. They belong to the so-called class of loan-tablets, and were unearthed at Niffer. They are dated in the years two and four of Ashur-itilli-ilani, King of Assyria. The dates are of chronological value. They show that the Babylonian Empire existed, if only in name, for four years after the death of Assurbanipal.

Mr. F. P. Ramsay (Wetheredville, Md.) proposed to substitute the terms "postpositive" and "prepositive" in Semitic grammar for perfect and imperfect. Dr. William M. Arnolt (Johns Hopkins) sent a criticism of Schrader's 'Keilinschriftliche Bibliothek,' vol. ii., and Prof. D. G. Lyon (Harvard) a criticism of Peiser's 'Keilinschriftliche Aktenstücke.'

Dr. Cyrus Adler (Johns Hopkins) presented an account of the Johns Hopkins and the Abbot Egyptian collections. The first consists of 680 objects collected by Col. Mendez I. Cohn in the years 1832 and 1835. Among them are two Coptic inscriptions deciphered by Mr. W. Max Müller. The Abbot collection, the property of the New York Historical Society, is well known. It is said to be fully equal to the great collections in Europe; Miss Edwards is authority for the statement that it is one of the best in the world. The more the pity that it is not put in a building where it can be studied to advantage, and that complaints have been made by several scholars that it is not readily accessible.

Rev. Lysander Dickerman discussed the Egyptian synonyms for the word pyramid. He finds the word to be Egyptian and not Greek, and to denote always "a sacred enclosure for the preservation of things."

Prof. R. Gottheil (Columbia) showed several photographs of a remarkable Alhambra vase now in the possession of Mr. Charles A. Dana of New York. The vase is said to have been dug up by some peasants in the Alpujarras, whither Abu Abdallah Mohammad (Boabdil) and the remnants of the Benu Nasr retired after they had surrendered Granada to Queen Isabella, January 2, 1492. The vase is a beautiful specimen of Moorish art. It is perfectly preserved, and contains several interesting Arabic inscriptions. Of the four other Alhambra vases known to exist to-day, that in the Hermitage at St. Petersburg is the only other one in a perfect condition.

Dr. A. V. Williams Jackson (Columbia) read two papers, on "Sanskrit *hrade-caksus* (Rig-veda x., 95, 6)", and on "Avestan Transcription." In the latter, Dr. Jackson pleaded for a uniformity of transcription, at least among American Avestan Scholars. Mr. Charles J. Goodwin sent a paper on "The Hermes Function of the War-God Scanda," based upon a hitherto unpublished text of the 'Atharva-veda.' The likeness between Scanda (from the root *skan*, to leap) and Hermes is very close. They are both gods of cunning and roguery. They have parallel functions, and resemble each other in many minor points.

The fall meeting of the Society will be held at Princeton College. R. J. H. G.

SMOKELESS POWDER.

PARIS, April 23, 1890.

IN the beginning of the month, a brigade provided with the new smokeless powder was sent to Champigny, near Paris, to give a representation of what an engagement under the novel circumstances would be like. Although the powder invented by M. Vieille dates from the time when Gen. Boulanger was Minister of War, the experiments have hitherto been strictly private. So this mimic engagement excited great curiosity among officers and military attachés of foreign Powers. Also a considerable number of *mondains* of both sexes were not disheartened by the early start necessary to enable them to reach the field by nine o'clock. Champigny was a well-chosen spot, owing to the configuration of the country—the villages

in the plain as points of attack, the hills occupied by the artillery, and the two forts of Sucy and Champigny commanding the region.

It took very little time after the engagement began, to realize how different will be the physiognomy of future battle-fields from those of the past. Artillery and musketry opened fire, and no smoke was visible! A single shot fired from the line of fusiliers was absolutely imperceptible, and a salvo fired by a squad at 300 yards only produced a thin bluish vapor that vanished almost instantly. The vapor attendant on the firing of a cannon was more discernible, but as quickly dissipated. To those near, it looked like a slight rise of brown dust, in no way resembling smoke. Had the cannon been loaded with projectiles, the vapor would have been less visible. But in no instance was the vapor dense enough to indicate—even at a short firing range—the position of artillery or infantry. As to the noise: the report of a Lebel gun, usually very loud, sounds to the soldier who fires it like that of a carbine, and cannot be heard 400 yards off. The sound of the cannon is lessened by half, with none of the reverberating roar or thundering; the report is brief and dry. Yet some of the civilians present were disappointed: they had anticipated more than a comparative silence, doubtless expecting to be in presence of weapons equivalent to pneumatic arms.

Such as it is, the new gunpowder, owing to its chief property (burning without sediment and causing no smoke), becomes an agent sufficiently insidious in modern warfare. The umpires who followed the manœuvres through their field-glasses felt something of this as both sides exchanged fire. More than once, but for their cognizance of the theme of attack and defence, they would have been liable (since there was no smoke to indicate danger) to grow confused as to the points that were safe or exposed, and allow a troop to pass under an invisible but deadly fire without scoring against it. Therefore, according to military men, such manœuvres cease to be a very efficacious training-school for generals and commanders-in-chief; they will contribute so little to familiarize them with the ensemble of a battle and the practice of following its different phases. The smoke of the battle-field has been a useful auxiliary to the commander-in-chief. The clouds and puffs floating over the lines of fire, which he followed from his post of observation — usually an elevated one where the atmosphere remained clear—certified the troops engaged, revealed to his practised eye an estimate of the adversary's forces, and showed him step by step the fluctuations of the battle. In short, they often told him more than the delayed reports of aides-de-camp. In future the commander-in-chief will see very little, almost nothing, if no battle takes place in a diversified or wooded country.

Of course it is admitted that powder without smoke cannot remain the privilege of the French Army. Other European nations have taken up the problem and work it *à l'envie*. Some boast of having a formula—Italy and Germany; Russia, too, who, for prudential reasons, awaits a war to manufacture hers. Hence advantages and disadvantages attending its use in the field of war will be common to both sides. Each acquires a better view of his adversary, but loses the protection that a veil of smoke afforded him. *A priori*, one can judge how doubly important becomes the advantage of being the first to see the enemy—unseen by him if possible. For this reason every detail in the uniform that might mark too conspicuously the presence of a troop is to be discarded. In the French Army red is to be replaced by gray, and the brass buttons will be bronzed. Bronzed also will be the bayonets. But, for all these precautions, surprises—and surprises are common occurrences in war—will be much easier to effect than before. The troops attacking an advance post will do so without calling the attention of the reserves. In the same way the advance post returning fire will not be heard, most likely, by its own lines, and will fail to give the alarm. The side that first receives the fire will suffer a serious disadvantage, for some time must elapse before it can ascertain whence comes the attack, and the forces belonging to either side, though they may not be two miles distant, will know nothing of the skirmish.

In consequence of the absence of smoke, and partial silence, reconnoitring will be arduous in future campaigns, and will necessitate a greater and a better-trained number of men than heretofore. Aerostats will not play such a part in tactics as the many military trials had prepared us to expect. According to far-seeing officers, the idea is to utilize captive balloons only for short and temporary ascensions in order to ascertain the position of the enemy before the attacks; also, in the defence of forts and cities, to mark the site of the besieging batteries. The observer's view is not so extended after all: for a balloon not to run too great risks of being hit, the enemy mu t at least be at a distance of 5,000 yards. Then, if it rises to 600 yards, the observer cannot overlook any small obstacles existing 600 or 700 yards behind the first limit of 5,000; in other words, a battery may remain unperceived by a man in a balloon at a distance of less than six kilometres. The virtue of this experiment has been tested from the top of the Eiffel Tower. The view reaches very far—as far as the hills of Normandy around Rouen; yet a battery filing under cover of an undulation in the landscape just outside of the gates of Paris could not be seen.

Owing to the distance that two armies will preserve during the preliminaries of a combat, cavalry will be intrusted with the perilous honor of getting information—perilous because a mounted troop is not easily kept out of sight, and the chances are against its being the first to perceive a well-intrenched advance post. For the rest, the rôle of cavalry will be greatly curtailed; the future charge without the protection of smoke to cover its advance is looked upon as problematic. Even in late wars the increased improvement in quick-loading arms had diminished its efficacy.

The results of the new powder in what concerns infantry are doubtful, they depend so much on the quality of troops. As long as well ambushed, the fusilier will be a myth—firing at 600 yards, his shots will neither be seen nor heard. If he has a good view of his adversary, he can make a better percentage on his shooting than he has ever done. But his rôle in battle is not to remain stationary. He must advance and show himself. No longer protected by a cloud of smoke, he will have to face a fusillade tenfold more appalling than that of any previous battle-field: then what will remain of the teachings of his chiefs that to show heels is certain death?

Here is another problem. Artillery gains everything by operating in a clear field. Before, it worked blindfolded, as it were; the enemy's smoke served as aim, and it was often a very deceiving one. Now the exact position of the opposed artillery will be visible unless exceptionally sheltered by some natural defence. With even chances, when once a battery has attained precision in its aim—which before could but imperfectly be determined on account of smoke—it will serve as a guide to the neighboring batteries, and thus the fire will be concentrated and more effective. Again, the men serving a battery will be more apt to follow calmly the commands of the captain when there is no smoke and less noise. But in that artillery duel considerations of shelter will have to be reconciled with those regarding a favorable offensive position, instead of being held secondary according to present theories, for reckless exposure will be equivalent to seeking death. Considering that artillery will be the mainspring in future wars, it will have to make the most of its power; its influence will often decide the day.

With all this perfecting of the mechanism of war, the question to be solved is if the soldier will become the perfect workman he is expected to be in order to make use of the tools destined for him. The consideration is purely psychologic, and modern theorists admit it. Now, will the soldiers' morale stand the comparatively normal atmosphere of future battle-fields? Without forcing the note, as some writers do who speak of a verdant country where no noise is heard, where nothing stirs, but out of which death is belched through invisible cannon and guns (simple physical laws are opposed to this uncanny conception of a silence so deep and invisibility so complete), it must be granted that with shooting at long range there will be perplexity in the apparent emptiness of the field. This uncertainty will have limits; but to what extent the soldier's nerves will be tried when, the stimulating excitement of smoke and noise failing, he will be more keenly alive to the horrors of the battle, is a question that without actual experience no knowledge of humanity can answer.

Such were the martial hypotheses I was ruminating among the first lilacs in a flower market as I reëntered Paris, when a man offered me a small handbill, pale-green, the color of hope. On one side a few lines set forth the European military debt, nineteen millions a day. On the other, a dove, bearing an olive branch, soared above the exhortation: "Paix entre les Peuples! Arbitrage International!"

LECOCQ DE LAUTREPPE.

AT SAINT HELENA.

U. S. S. *Pensacola*,
ASCENSION, March 16, 1890.

ARRIVED to-day—nearly a week out from Saint Helena, under sail all the way, and another ideal voyage. Here it is a pleasure to see H. M. S. *Archer* again, that good ship looking much like our own *Yorktown*, and having been the welcome bearer of our mails at Cape Ledo on the African coast, when visiting her sister ship, H. M. S. *Bramble*, attending upon the English Eclipse Expedition. Here, too, at Ascension, we find Admiral Wells, R. N., in his splendid flag-ship the *Raleigh*, but recently returned from Delagoa Bay. In a few days, however, the American frigate will be the sole occupant of the little bay off Georgetown, as it is named (or Garrison, as it is always called), for both H. M. SS. *Raleigh* and *Archer* are only temporarily here, on their way to Saint Helena. Meanwhile, pending certain naval evolutions, the instruments of the Expedition cannot go ashore, and we have excellent opportunity to view from our ship the Admiralty's stronghold of the South Atlantic.

Outwardly Ascension much resembles Saint Helena, in being an island of exceptional beauty—the beauty of sheer desolation, that is. Ascension seems positively innocent of verdure. I should not have supposed it possi-

ble that anything could appear more desolate than the frowning exterior of Saint Helena, but it is. At Ascension you see absolutely nothing but smooth, brown volcanic hills and rough black "clinker" plains. The little fortified town of Garrison, neatly kept, and with never an unused structure, makes the surrounding desolation seem even more desolate. Every now and then, as the cloud-cap on the distant summit of Green Mountain rises a trifle, you can see that there is after all on the island a suggestion of something green; but you cannot make out for sure whether it is vegetation or only a greenish rock of some kind or other. However, after the charming disappointment afforded by the interior of Saint Helena, I prudently reserve judgment on Ascension.

I might send columns about Saint Helena, but there is no time, and readers would be even less, I fancy; for pretty much everything about this far-famed isle has been said that can be said, except that there is yet much room for competent writing of its scientific history. In particular the geology has yet to be completed on which Charles Darwin, more than a half-century ago, made so thorough a beginning in his 'Geological Observations.' In later years, Capt. Oliver, R. A., did excellent work. Geologically, Saint Helena is volcanic hodge-podge; and a visit to certain portions of its rocky desert is, I dare say, as good as a trip to the moon. To the geologist who loves hard work, it must be a perfect paradise—no end of clambering up hill and down dale; in fact, if you are anywhere in Saint Helena, and want to go anywhere else, you have to go either up hill or down. The Sandy Bay region, regarded as the site of an ancient volcanic crater, was to me the most instructive geologically. I have never seen the effects of processes geogonic anywhere more definitely marked. Dykes there were, running in every direction—crosswise, in and out—in the plainest confusion, but even an astronomer could see that they must be dykes.

But any one seeing only Jamestown and Longwood, Napoleon's exile home, and that marvellous crater through which the road winds down to Sandy Bay, sees Saint Helena only in part. Other regions there are—the official residence of the Governor, known as "Plantation"; Oak Bank, the residence of the Bishop; and "The Briars," famous because Napoleon liked it and first lived there on arriving at Saint Helena; and in these and many other localities nature perpetually sustains a lavish wealth of verdure, tropic and sub-tropic. But I leave this for poets to tell about. None, however, can put it more beautifully or appropriately than did Saint Helena's best-known resident, good Lady Ross, who said to me, "Our island is an emerald set in bronze."

The entomology of Saint Helena was well done by Wollaston long years ago, and the botany is excellently presented by Melliss, whose large treatise (London, 1875) on this many-sided isle of the mid-South Atlantic is in many respects most admirable. As everybody knows, Saint Helena has been a favorite spot for the visits of scientific men from time immemorial. Naturalists in abundance, of course; but workers in exact science in ample number also, beginning with the distinguished Edmund Halley, who when only twenty came to the island in 1676, built an observatory on a ridge near the present road to Longwood—a spot still known as Halley's Mount, and distinctly visible as a ruin of walls overgrown with bushes. Here it was that Halley stayed two years, collecting observations of precision for a catalogue of the stars of the southern skies, and observing the transit of Mercury in November of the year after his arrival.

I had little idea that there were so many localities of scientific interest in Saint Helena until Prof. Abbe handed me just now a list of a score and a half, which I shall print in Bulletin No. 13 of the Expedition. Of course a few of these are prominently known, as, for instance, Johnson's observatory on Ladder Hill, occupied in 1823-'34 for purposes of stellar observations, published in 1835 by the Honorable East India Company; and by Dr. David Gill, now Astronomer Royal at Cape Town, who, in 1877, en route for Ascension to determine the parallax of the sun by east and west observations of Mars at its apposition that year, made the site of Johnson's observatory the base of his determination of the longitude of Ascension. Perhaps equally well known is the station of Foster's gravimetric work in 1829-'30, repeated by Mr. Preston of our Expedition, who has swung a pair of Peirce pendulums in the judges' room of the Courthouse, adjoining the Castle at Jamestown, and has further extended the survey by an independent determination at Longwood. There, by the kind courtesy of Gov. Antrobus of Saint Helena, and Monsieur Morilleau, Guardian of the Napoleonic Possessions in the Island, the gravity apparatus was all mounted and used in the Longwood New House, still building for Napoleon's occupancy at the time of his death in 1821. A better station for these delicate instruments than the unoccupied kitchen of this spacious residence could hardly have been found; in fact, at all the places where the pendulums have so far been swung, Mr. Preston has been singularly fortunate in chancing upon observing apartments where accidental variations of temperature, the bane of gravity-work, were practically nil. The kitchen floor at Longwood, of stone, was complete, excepting two large flags taken up years ago and sent to Washington for incorporation into the national monument.

Hardly less known is Lefroy's significant work, begun just a half-century ago, and maintained almost ten years, at the Saint Helena Magnetic Observatory, whose site adjoins Longwood New House. The building is now an inn, known as "Bagley's," and in the large room at the left on entering may still be seen marks in the floor, evidently where the instrument-piers stood.

Among other localities remarked by Professor Abbe in his interesting Bulletin are those occupied by Maskelyne and Waddington (1761), John MacDonald (1796), Admiral Duperry (1832), and Captain Sir James Clarke Ross, commanding the *Erebus*, and Captain Crozier, commanding the *Terror*, in their celebrated Antarctic voyage (1840). That Saint Helena will continue to be visited in the future by scientific and other workers goes without saying: its equable temperature, its healthful climate, the beauty of its scenery, its association with historic names, and its situation quite unique, all combine to make it a spot of rare attractiveness.

Quite as I surmised in organizing the Expedition with a department of meteorology included, results have been reached which are full of interest, and have important bearing on marine meteorology not only, but on land weather also. I can readily see that this department of the Expedition might easily have been less fruitful, had I been obliged to place it in charge of one knowing the literature and methods of his science less fully than Prof. Abbe. From a preliminary memorandum of his results, I collate here and there a paragraph.

I think I have previously alluded to his "nephoscope," specially constructed for this Expedition. Prof. Abbe has elaborated a method for its use in determining the actual height and velocity of clouds by combining observations made when the vessel or observer moves successively in two different directions, or with two different velocities; and he calls this the "aberration method," to distinguish it from ordinary parallax methods. His main work has been a determination of the motions of the atmosphere from a study of the lowest winds and the successive strata of clouds; and, to this end, he has maintained daily observations with the nephoscope at sea, and when possible on shore. The visible clouds, he concludes, give little or no information as to the motions of the atmosphere in the widest sense, but prove that the atmosphere is everywhere divided into local systems of currents, so that we have winds circling around a storm-centre, a high barometer, an ocean, or a continent; and, at least in the Atlantic, have no winds that circulate exactly as they would do on a rotating, uniform, smooth globe. The angles of inflow and outflow have been determined for three or four successive strata of air in mid-Atlantic; also the relations of the cloud-appearances to distant storms, squalls, rains, and changes of wind, with such accuracy that on many occasions predictions of such phenomena have been made and verified.

At Fayal the phenomena of the "hood" over Pico were observed to be the same as those at Mount Washington and in other familiar instances. Pico will be remembered as the symmetric cone rising from the island of like name to a height approaching 8,000 feet. It is perhaps the most striking natural object in the Azores, and its likeness to Japan's great sacred mountain Fuji-san is often remarked—though only a miniature Fuji of course. As Prof. Abbe says, a mountain obstructs the lower wind, and thus forms a scud cumulus (or cumulus whose ascending currents are due to obstructed wind rather than to heat). These cumulus currents themselves obstruct the wind at higher levels, and so it is pushed up, flows without forming discontinuous eddies, and thus forms the hood or arched cloud. The hood will form on the very peak if the air below the summit is calm, and the air below the peak itself can be considered as a small obstacle to a gentle current at its level. With favoring conditions, beautiful hoods form over ordinary cumulus clouds: it is simply necessary that the upward deflection of the disturbed rectilinear motion shall be so gentle as not to introduce sudden curves and eddies.

At San Vicente, Cape Verdes, the cirrus clouds were shown to have a local origin, while at Freetown, Sierra Leone, a study of the "arched squalls" showed that they, the African "tornado," and the afternoon thunderstorm of the Eastern United States have the same nature and are governed by like laws, while they differ only in degree. At Elmina, on the Gold Coast, the *Harmattan* was taken up and shown to be dry wind flowing from the interior of Africa at its winter season, with a deflection to the right, and bringing the ashes of local bush fires in the interior, commonly known as "dust from the desert." The whole phenomenon is perfectly analogous to the flow of dry, cold air from Canada over the Rocky Mountain slope and southeastward across the United States; also, the *Bora* of Russia and the *Pampero* of South America have a like physical origin.

At Cape Ledo, our eclipse station on the west coast and about 300 miles below the mouth of the Congo, Professor Abbe had extraordinary

chances to investigate the cirrus; it was a daily experience to observe large cumuli ascend bodily, lose their flat bottoms, become pear or balloon-shaped, and then spread out into fields of beautiful cirrus streaks and cirro-cumuli. The highest cirrus clouds were found to belong to a local horizontal circulation, near the seacoast, whose range was between the limits fifty miles east and west of the coast-line. At Loanda the phenomena of Cape Ledo were repeated, and Prof. Abbe presented to the Meteorological Observatory there a nephoscope similar to his own, securing the promise of regular cloud-observations with it. There are several meteorological observatories in Angola, and from their records Prof. Abbe will compile improved meteorological notes for our 'Sailing Directions' along the African Coast.

At Cape Town, the clouds on Table Mountain afforded remarkable illustrations, under novel circumstances, of important principles in meteorology and fluid motions; the winds and clouds were studied day by day from the Royal Observatory, and a system of deep-earth temperatures was initiated within the tunnel of the new aqueduct.

At Saint Helena, Prof. Abbe determined barometrically the altitude of many points as a basis for contours on Lieut. Palmer's excellent map of the island; and his attention being drawn to "the rollers," he concluded arrangements for a record, as complete as possible, of past observations of these unusual phenomena, and for future observations as well, in the hope of definitely ascertaining their source and the laws governing their recurrence. Rain at the island essentially depends on the trade wind, varying with its variations. Accordingly all the old rain-fall records were collected, and arrangements made for new ones on a scale so large that Prof. Abbe expects to derive from their discussion a better view of the general variation in the trades than can be obtained from the records of vessels merely. In addition to that, Governor Antrobus will make an effort to secure a permanent meteorological observatory on Saint Helena, a step whose importance can hardly be overestimated, if we fully regard the extraordinary geographic position of the island.

But enough of meteorology for now. Soon the pendulums will be swinging in Garrison, meteorological work will be under way from the summit of Cross Hill, the naturalists will be traversing the island forth and back; later the gravity instruments will be transported to the high-level station near the top of Green Mountain, and within a fortnight afterwards, the 8th of April, most likely, the *Pensacola* will again be homeward bound. Barbados should be in sight by the 3d of May, and Sandy Hook a month later. DAVID P. TODD.

Correspondence.

AN ODOROUS COMPARISON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Goschen has just laid before Parliament the annual budget. He shows that the estimate of expenditure made a year ago of eighty-six millions of pounds has been exceeded by £116,000, *or less than one-seventh of 1 per cent.* The revenue has exceeded the estimate by about 4 per cent., or £3,221,000, and he proceeds at once to dispose of this surplus as follows:

Barracks for soldiers	£300,000
Volunteers	100,000
Colonial and Indian postage	80,000
Release of duties on plate	200,000
Release of duties on tea	£1,200,000
Release of duties on currants (in consideration of concessions made by Greece on British exports).	210,000
Release of beer duties to local finances	386,000
Release of house duties	540,000
Leaving a balance for contingencies of	205,000
	£3,221,000

In other words, every reduction, except possibly the small duties on gold and silver plate, is made in the interest of the mass of consumers who have no special influence, and not in that of powerful private and local combinations, which might be expected to exert such influence.

Let us now turn to another picture, the figures for which I take from a leading daily paper, the only authority that I know of from which anything can be learned. Mr. Windom estimates the revenue for the next year in round numbers at 385 millions and the expenditures at 341 millions, leaving the pretty liberal margin of 44 millions, or nearly 12 per cent. It would be the height of impertinence (or rather of futility) for Mr. Windom to suggest either a disposition of the surplus or a mode of reduction of the revenue. And so, taking the side of revenue only, there comes a certain Mr. McKinley—of whom probably not one per cent. of the people of the United States ever heard the name or know where he comes from, who derives his reputation from the Tariff Bill, not the Tariff Bill from him (just as Mr. Mills did a year ago), who has no authority whatever, but is wholly dependent upon his Committee and the House—and prepares a tariff bill which, he says, would reduce the revenue by 71 millions, though as to whether it would or not there is not the slightest responsible evidence. If so, however, it would make a rather violent change from a surplus of 44 millions to a deficit of 27 millions. Whether it would or not must depend wholly upon expenditure, over which Mr. McKinley and his Committee have no control, but which belongs to another committee apparently not even represented by a Mr. McKinley, but wholly anonymous. It seems to be assumed that this Committee will stop the payment of 40 millions to the sinking fund, which would cause another bounce to a surplus of 21 millions. "Not much," as the paper referred to sadly observes, "but enough if the party in power chooses to live within the estimates."

It seems, however, that the party in power had no such idea. Mr. Windom's estimate for pensions is 98½ millions. The House has already voted 146 millions for pensions, and has at least one other bill favorably reported for 7 millions. Taking the first figures only, they would swallow up the 21 millions of surplus and leave 26 millions of deficit. Mr. Windom's estimate for river and harbor improvements is 12 millions. The House bill gives 21 millions, which would add 9 millions to the deficit, and make it 35 millions. Mr. Windom made no estimate for public buildings, but House and Senate together have passed or reported 25 millions' worth, which would make the deficit 60 millions, while if by any chance the bill to stop the sinking fund should fail to pass, the deficit would be over 100 millions.

It may be said that these things will not be done. Perhaps not; but nobody can say which will and which will not, or whether the close of the fiscal year will see us with twenty-five millions of surplus or deficit, while over all hangs the dark cloud, with almost equal uncertainty of its descent, of unlimited silver inflation. That is the sum of our system of finance.

What is the difference between the two? Simply and solely this, that in Great Britain the whole matter is left to the Chancellor of the Exchequer, acting upon his responsibility as a national official, while Parliament limits itself to approval or rejection of his measures. In this country no individual and no national authority has anything to do with the finances, which are left in sections to jarring and impersonal committees of local representatives, pulled about by private, local, and party interests of every description. So much is certain, that if we expect our finances to get into decent condition, we shall have to put them into the hands of the Secretary of the Treasury, and let him manage them, to some extent, at least, after the fashion of an English Chancellor of the Exchequer. G. B.

BOSTON, May 10, 1890.

CONGRESS AND THE LOTTERY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

FRIEND: How happens it, while the whole religious press and every respectable daily unite in condemnation of the Louisiana Lottery, that papers are allowed to be published at the capital of the nation advertising that iniquitous scheme, and the Government mails carry those same papers everywhere, even to the remotest corner of the republic?

There lies before me the 'Capital Almanac' of forty pages, handsomely illustrated, bound in covers lavishly gilt, and bearing on its title-page, as publisher, the name of "J. S. McIntyre, Washington, D. C." This particular copy came to me from Santa Clara, California, where it was locally issued by a Spanish dealer in general merchandise (liquors especially), whose imprint is found on the under cover.

This 'Almanac' fully declares its ulterior purpose in an extended exhibit of the aforesaid lottery, prefaced by a special plea—though an extremely shallow one—for the existence of what its caption announces as "A Useful Institution." The said plea, which could only mislead those who are already very willing to be led astray, tells how possible it may be for humanity to be mistaken (did not Luther, Wesley, and Cotton Mather labor under partial delusions?), and so the outcry against the lottery may be, in fact is, a huge mistake. Evidently it is so, because, as a Bible instance, "Moses and Aaron, the greatest of lawgivers, accepted the lottery system by divine command as the most equitable for dividing the land of Canaan among the chosen of the Lord." But I need not pursue the pseudo-argument.

From Washington, D. C., also emanates a sensational story paper, *Family Fiction*, but it is in truth simply a vehicle for the advertisement of the same lottery. It is distributed in immense quantities from the Atlantic to the Pacific and from the Gulf to the Great Lakes.

Congress has been besought time and again to enact laws for the prevention of the publication of demoralizing sheets of the foregoing character in the District, and against their dissemination through the mails. Postmaster-General Wanamaker, in his annual report upon the assembling of the present Congress, urgently asked for legislation to stop the sending out of such matter. Two bills, at least, were introduced early this session, one to prohibit the transmission of lottery-advertisement papers through the mails, the other to stop the collecting and paying of lottery prizes through the banks and express companies. These bills were referred to a committee; why are they not acted upon? Would it have been any worse for the North Dakota Legislature to

legalize the Louisiana Lottery than it would be for Congress to continue to protect the advertisers of the same lottery in the District of Columbia, and to allow the mails to spread their mischievous invitations and announcements far and wide over the country without let or hindrance? JOSIAH W. LEEDS.

PHILADELPHIA.

BOOK PIRACY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Is it not time to "cry halt" to the encouragement which clergymen and other reputable people seem to be giving (to judge from the circulars they receive) to the various thieves' enterprises of publishing pirates? I have this morning received (this time from Boston) the second of such recent invitations to become a party to such a piece of mean stealing. It is unblushing in its effrontery, offering "an exact fac-simile" of the "Great Edinburgh Ninth Edition" of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' "reproduced by photographic process," the only new thing being the maps.

The 'Britannica' seems to have been a particularly attractive game from the time, near the beginning of the present ninth issue, when a Philadelphia house started a reprint, and, on being brought to bay, was let off by the judge—a very Dogberry—on the richly bouffe ground that the defendant had invested such a large amount of money in his plant (burglars' kits are apt to be costly), down to the later New York venture, admitted to advertise—I was loath and grieved to believe my eyes—in my long-time standard, *sans peur et sans reproche*, in newspaper morality, the *Nation* itself.

Is it right for us to let the cheapness of the coveted goods blind our eyes to the criminality of the whole business, and to the fact that *we who buy or tolerate are parties to that criminality?* With a decent law of copyright, these people would never dare to do these things. Shall we encourage them to take advantage of the present defenceless condition of the foreign author and publisher?

Respectfully yours, H. D. C.

EASTPORT, ME., May 3, 1890.

[We have never attempted to make our advertising columns a test of copyright integrity on the part of publishers, and our correspondent must perceive on reflection that we should have, on his principle, to go much further than exclude the advertisement of the pirated 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' From downright appropriation like this—a gross case, because of the enormous cost of the original work—to compensation of the foreign author at the pleasure of the American publisher, examples of want of strict justice and fair-dealing are to be found in the majority of the catalogues which make up the Trade-List Annual. This is especially true of publications before the copyright issue became a burning one as it is now. We are not, for our part, chargeable with concealing from the public the true state of affairs, or with failure to demand the most advanced legislation to remove a national disgrace.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

THE well-known London publisher Walter Scott has appointed A. Lovell & Co. of this city his sole agents for the United States, and they will keep a full line of his publications always in stock. They announce for May 27 three additions to his Great Writers, Canterbury Poets, and Camelot Series, respectively, viz., 'Life of Robert Browning,' by William Shairp; 'The Lady of Lyons, and Other Plays,' by Lord Lytton; and 'English Folk and Fairy Tales,' edited by E. Sidney Hartland. Messrs. Lovell announce for themselves 'Clio: A Child of Fate,' by Miss Ella M. Powell.

David Stott, London, launches this month the "Foreign Favorite Series," leading off with a translation of 'Les Caractères' of La Bruyère, by Helen Stott.

A series of small books under the general title, "Science in Plain Language," is announced by Macmillan & Co. The first volume, to be published immediately, includes the following subjects: Evolution, Antiquity of Man, Bacteria, etc. The same firm has just ready a folio volume on 'Scottish National Memorials,' with three hundred illustrations, including thirty full-page plates.

A. D. F. Randolph & Co. will shortly publish 'Leah of Jerusalem: A Story of the Time of Paul,' by Edward Payson Berry.

John Wiley & Sons have in preparation 'Elliptic Functions,' by Prof. Arthur L. Baker of Stevens Institute.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, have in press 'Selections from Heine's Poems,' edited, with notes, by Prof. Horatio Stevens White of Cornell.

Éditions de luxe of George Eliot's 'Romola' and Victor Hugo's 'Hans of Iceland' are in the press of Estes & Lauriat, Boston. The former will contain photo-etchings of Florentine scenery; the latter likewise many illustrations of the same and other kinds.

A new work, 'Jesus of Nazareth,' by President John A. Broadus, is nearly ready for publication by A. C. Armstrong & Son.

The Salem (Mass.) Press Publishing and Printing Co. will, if the requisite support be obtained, issue in parts by subscription a 'History of the Putnam Family in England and America,' by Eben Putnam of Boston. The work will be freely illustrated.

The delightful "Temple Library," published in London by J. M. Dent & Co. and in this country by Macmillan, has just been enlarged by Landor's 'Pericles and Aspasia,' in two volumes admirably printed, bound, and illustrated. Portraits of the title personages and of Alcibiades, with one of Landor never before reproduced, and etchings of his birthplace and his villa at Fiesole, adorn the dainty pages. The editor, Mr. C. G. Crump, furnishes a model introduction, clear and succinct; and his notes of variant readings make the present edition valuable from a scholarly point of view. Inasmuch as one-half of the issue is reserved for the American market, it is a pity that Mr. Crump should have omitted the curious ode prefixed by Landor to the second volume of the original edition, in praise of Andrew Jackson. The hero of New Orleans had neither art, eloquence, nor breeding to remind one of Pericles any more than Mrs. Eaton does of Aspasia; but Landor could sing of him in this strain:

> "And where the fane of Pallas stands,
> Rear'd to her glory by his hands,
> Thou, altho' nowhere else, shalt see
> A statesman and a chief like thee."

Mr. Edmund Gosse has republished, in an attractive little volume, 'Robert Browning: Personalia' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), the article originally contributed by him to the *Century* nearly nine years ago upon the 'Early Career of Robert Browning.' This paper was written from material furnished by Browning himself in conversation, and was approved by him, and consequently is authoritative. It recounts in a pleasant narrative style the events of the poet's life until his marriage, and describes his circumstances. The more important portion is that detailing the relations between him and Macready, and the history of the performance of his plays when first written. To this paper a few "personal impressions" are appended, which appeared in the *New Review* after Browning's death.

The success of Mr. Andrew Lang's clever 'Letters to Dead Authors' arouses an expectation of amusing things in his latest experiment in "epistolary parody," which comes out under the title 'Old Friends' (Longmans, Green & Co.). The notion that contemporary characters in fiction must have sometimes met in so small a world is a fertile one, and under light treatment may be made productive of entertainment; but a less ready brain than Mr. Lang's might well hesitate to put it to the proof. The expedient of introducing our old friends of the novelists by means of letters was almost necessary, but in the letters they are made to narrate adventures of themselves in real contact with one another. A humorous turn is, of course, given to the whole. The range is broad enough to include Euphues and Herodotus, as well as Pickwick, Tom Jones, and "She." The book, however, is of the slightest in its substance, and not to be compared to the Dead Authors' collection; the humor is not of the most laughter-provoking order, and there is a lack of inventiveness in situation. The keeping of the tone and mannerisms of the characters is altogether the most commendable trait of this literary "skit," which may serve to pass an idle hour—as indeed it aims at no more.

Two little books on Mexico come to us from A. C. McClurg & Co. 'A Winter Holiday,' by Julia Newell Jackson, disarms criticism by the frank declaration in the preface that the book is only "a trifling bit of thistle-down." It consists of random notes of travel, written with a good deal of forced sprightliness which becomes rather depressing in the end. Mr. Arthur Howard Noll's 'History of Mexico' is a more serious work, being, in fact, a very convenient and accurate manual of the subject. The author has a good sense of proportion, and has made diligent use of the best authorities, though he omits to tell us who they are. His account of the French intervention will bear a little revision, but in general his work, within its limits, is correct and satisfactory. It certainly does not need the strange excuse for being, advanced by Mr. Noll—the fact, namely, that no "comprehensive history of Mexico exists in the English language."

Mrs. Hester M. Poole's 'Fruits, and How to Use Them' (Fowler & Wells) is a welcome addition to the list of cook-books. In few households is there command of an adequate variety of modes of preparing fruit for the table, though the supply itself may be, as the author points out, superabundant. Mrs. Poole gives nearly 700 recipes. She dedicates her work to the W. C. T. U., and associates it also with the vegetarian conscience when she says, somewhat naïvely, that "the shedding of blood and sacrifice of animal life, especially in the summer season, is not necessary in order to furnish a table both wholesome and attractive."

At the opposite pole from the foregoing is the "guide for amateur cooks" called 'What One Can Do with a Chafing-dish' (New York: John Ireland). Here there are some sixty recipes, but, except for "beignets de pommes" and "Warren's prune toast," fruits are completely ruled out, and vegetables are subordi-

nate to meats. The book is well conceived and liberally got up.

Ticknor & Co., Boston, publish a second edition of 'The Moral Ideal: A Historic Study,' by Julia Wedgwood. The work is an exceedingly interesting and valuable one for general students.

The Riverside Library for young people contains a little book on 'Coal and the Coal Mines,' by Homer Green (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). It is prepared with greater care and with a better knowledge of the subject than one often finds indicated in juvenile books, and it contains many chapters that must interest its readers. The many difficulties that attended the introduction of anthracite coal into domestic use affords material for a number of entertaining stories; the dangers which the miners have to encounter and overcome, and the more important disasters that have occurred in our mines, are narrated in a simple but sufficiently impressive style, which serves to enliven the more matter-of-fact description of mining work in the coal regions of Pennsylvania. The preliminary geological chapters are not up to the quality of the rest of the book. A boy, in reading these earlier pages, might easily gain the idea that the author knew what is told from some other evidence than the facts here stated; whereas, it is only these facts and others of the same kind which serve as evidence to the conclusions that are given. We do not know that "the air was laden with carbon" and moisture, and therefore infer that plants grew luxuriantly; but, by reason of the luxuriant growth of coal plants, it has been inferred that the atmosphere of their time was unusually moist and carbonaceous. This kind of inverted order of statement is unfortunately common in popular scientific writing.

Mr. J. R. Elliott discusses 'American Farms; Their Condition and Future' in the "Questions of the Day Series" published by the Putnams, but we cannot say that his book throws much new light upon the subject. His treatment is rather emotional than scientific, and, while we sympathize with his motives, we do not feel that he is quite competent to deal with the difficulties of his task. The remedy for the decline of agriculture is, in the first place, "a proper and more general realization of the imperative necessity for a larger proportion of the people to be engaged in tilling the soil than at present." Then the farmers must make themselves a political force and improve the laws, abolishing "all laws which tend to engender national strife"; "which are barriers between supply and demand"; "which tend to prevent the reduction of taxes to the actual needs of the Government, and the reduction of government to the actual needs of the people"; "which prevent the placing of taxes where they should be placed"; and "which force labor to give unfair support to capital or to monopoly, creating inequality, sacrificing the true ethical spirit, which should prevail, to the wiles of scheming politicians." We fear that both parties would be only too willing to insert these planks in their platforms.

Those portions of the report of the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor for 1889 which have so far appeared contain very little that is noteworthy. As to cost of transportation, the returns show that the amount paid for freight is about 3 per cent. of the value of manufactured goods, but we are not at all sure that many of these payments are not reckoned twice. It will perhaps afford pleasure to some minds to learn that the annual product of the manufactories of Massachusetts would fill a train of freight-cars 958 miles long. Great labor has been expended in getting answers to the question: "Are sales decreased by the importation of foreign-made goods?" Such statistics have the same scientific value that would attach to a vote of the farmers as to the influence of the moon upon growing crops. It may, however, be of interest to politicians to learn that nearly half the answers were to the effect that sales were not decreased, while about one-sixth held that they were decreased, and that the latter answers were from the larger industries. The figures concerning foreign sales and competition are, in our judgment, quite worthless. The expedited bulletin as to the condition of employees consists principally of a republication of some portions of the Census report of 1885, and we fail to discern any satisfactory reason for hastening its appearance—if, indeed, there is any reason for its appearing at all.

We have from Johns Hopkins University a monograph, in the form of a doctor's dissertation, which deserves more extended notice than we can here give it. It is a study of the history of the Absolute Participle in Old English, by Morgan Callaway, now Professor of English in the Southwestern University, at Georgetown, Texas. Prof. Callaway first gives a complete list of all absolute constructions to be found in old English; then he discusses the history of the construction in all the Teutonic languages; next he considers the substitute constructions used in Old English in rendering the Latin absolute participle; finally, he sets down what he considers to be the stylistic effect of the construction, and in a brief summary formulates his conclusions. The treatment of the prose constructions is clear and full, and the citation of examples is apparently exhaustive. Dr. Callaway, however, leaves much to be desired in his treatment of the related poetical constructions, and we trust that he will have opportunity soon to continue the study. The monograph is a credit to American scholarship, and an indispensable aid to students of Old English grammar.

The eighth series of the Johns Hopkins Studies in Historical and Political Science began with a double number, entitled 'The Beginnings of American Nationality: the Constitutional Relations between the Continental Congress and the Colonies and States from 1774 to 1789,' by President Small of Colby University. This is a methodical investigation of the documentary evidence relating to the subject, and the author's attitude of mind will much commend itself. But half the ground of the essay is covered by the present instalment. "I plead guilty," says Dr. Small, "of the large ambition to follow out this method and rescue our constitutional history from the misinterpretations of Von Holst." No. 3 of the same series is on 'Local Government in Wisconsin,' by David E. Spencer of the State University.

Prof. E. J. James of the University of Pennsylvania has translated for its Political Economy and Public Law Series the present Federal Constitution of Germany, together with a section introductory to the instrument from Von Rönne's 'Verfassung des Deutschen Reichs.'

'The History of Federal and State Aid to Higher Education' is given by Prof. Frank W. Blackmar of the University of Kansas, in Circular of Information No. 1, 1890, of the Bureau of Education at Washington. It makes a solid pamphlet of 343 pages. It leaves on one side the history of normal-school education.

With No. 19 of his 'Complete Index to *Littell's Living Age*,' Mr. Edward Roth (Philadelphia, 1135 Pine Street) concludes the section History, and gives the whole, or very nearly the whole, of Literary Criticism.

The *Unitarian Review* for May prints a paper by the late Prof. William F. Allen, read before a social literary club in Madison, Wis., on the subject of Historical Fiction. Our readers may remember a list of novels of this order which he drew up and printed some years ago as an aid to historical study, or the fostering of a love of it. The present writing was the last that he completed, and it was composed in the greatest haste. Some of its doctrine he might, and we think would, have modified on revision, but the paper is well worth reading.

From the Oxford University comes an 'Essay on the Importance of the Study of the Slavonic Languages'—where *Slavic* should rather be read than Slavonic as a general designation—by W. R. Morfill. It is, in fact, his inaugural lecture of January 25, 1890. Incidentally he depreciates Dr. Bowring's translations from Russian, Polish, Serbian, and Bohemian, saying that "unfortunately there is a want of color in all these versions, and a great sameness"; misapprehensions, too, because of following German versions.

The *Revue des Traditions Populaires* for February 15 notices a collection of twelve Rumanian melodies by G. Musicescu, transcribed for the piano, with words borrowed from divers national sources. The most of them are *chansons de danse*, some love songs, and one a striking soldiers' song. The melodies are highly praised from a musical point of view; and the *Revue* gives some specimens of them.

The Congregational Club of Boston in February last took steps to promote setting up at Delftshaven a monument to Dutch hospitality to the Pilgrims. A suitable site, at the junction of the Leyden Canal with the River Maas, has been fixed upon and can probably be secured. The Rev. William Elliot Griffis, D.D., 638 Tremont Street, Boston, is chairman of a committee to solicit subscriptions, large and small. The Treasurer is Mr. Frank Wood, 352 Washington Street, Boston.

The photographers are bestirring themselves to mark the just-passed semi-centennial of the discovery of photography by a monument to Daguerre. This undertaking appeals, of course, far more widely than to the profession itself. The Photographers' Association of America will set up the memorial in front of the Smithsonian Institution at Washington. The design by Mr. J. Scott Hartley has been severely criticised and sensibly modified, and still, we fear, does not promise much as an addition to the art products of this country.

— As the library of the British Museum overshadows every other in London, few Americans can have had their attention called to an humbler but interesting public library, namely, that of the Corporation, or the Guildhall Library of the City of London. Of this collection, which we roughly estimate at fifty or sixty thousand volumes, we have just received from Mr. Charles Welch, the Librarian, a generous catalogue of 1,137 pages in double columns. Employment of American methods would have resulted in such an economy of space as to permit a great extension of the topical arrangement, as to which we can only say that it has not been consistently carried out. For example, Mr. Percival Lowell's 'Chosŏn' is entered but once, under the author's name. Under Corea we are referred to China, and under China there is no mention of 'Chosŏn.' There is an invaluable collection of newspapers, nearly all published in London, but the *Anti-Slavery Reporter* is entered not under Newspa-

pers, but under Slavery, and *Punch* has a separate entry. Here "*newspapers*" seems to be used in a narrow sense. On the whole, the standard American literature of the past fifty years is fairly well embraced, and in the additions to June, 1889, there seems to be evidence of an effort to keep abreast of our current production; but the lacunæ are still sufficient to prompt the suggestion that Americans bear the Guildhall Library in mind as a worthy recipient of gifts from this side of the water. Not one of Fenimore Cooper's works, for example, is to be found in it, and no American statesman except Franklin is adequately represented. Jefferson, Hamilton, Madison, Calhoun, Clay, Webster are not to be found by searching. (The title Biography is confined to dictionaries.) Among the noticeable features of the library are the almanacs, Bibles, catalogues, and directories; works pertaining to the several London guilds; and the collections of the various societies, such as the Camden, Harleian, Hakluyt, Percy, Early English Text, English Dialect, and Christian Knowledge, all whose publications are minutely set forth. Corresponding lists of great utility are those of William Andrews's 'North Country Poets,' Cimber and Danjou's 'Archives Curieuses de l'histoire de France,' Jeffrey's 'Contributions to the *Edinburgh Review*,' Leon Levi's 'Annals of British Legislation,' the Lilburne Tracts, John Nicol's 'Bibliotheca Topographica Britannica,' etc. We will add that no introductions are required on the part of readers at this library, from which, however, books are not allowed to be taken.

—An appeal has been made in Boston, signed by Phillips Brooks and other prominent clergymen and laymen of that city, on behalf of Atlanta University. This institution is a Northern foundation. It exists primarily for the higher education, as teachers and mechanics, of the colored population of the South, but it does not turn away students because they happen to be white. For this reason it is now under the ban of the State, which has withdrawn its annual subvention until the University authorities consent to establish and maintain the color line. This action has seriously crippled and may prove fatal to the institution, unless it receive efficient aid from American philanthropy. Every intelligent observer knows, who witnesses this conflict, that the State's attitude logically implies contempt of and aversion to white persons who engage in teaching the blacks; and, as a matter of fact, we believe that the instructors at the University have been socially disregarded even to the point of non-recognition on the street, and even by professed friends of the University (such as the late H. W. Grady) before it had incurred the enmity of the Legislature. This body would fain have made co-education a felony, in the spirit of Southern law and custom which denounces with fine, imprisonment, and illegitimacy, voluntary intermarriage of white and black. This is the real "Southern problem," and one that can no more be discussed on the spot than abolition could in the ante-bellum days. The Atlanta University was not founded to raise or to force the issue, but it has, by a simple observance of Christian and democratic American principles, called attention to the repudiation of these by its persecutors. The Treasurer of the Boston Committee is Mr. William Lloyd Garrison, who may be addressed at No. 132 Federal Street.

—Sir Robert Stawell Ball, F.R.S., royal astronomer of Ireland, is known to many readers in this country as the author of a most poetic lecture on the relations of the earth and moon, entitled "A Glimpse through the Corridors of Time," reprinted in the *Popular Science Monthly* and *Littell's Living Age* some ten years ago. His ability in popularizing astronomical subjects is again shown in 'Star Land' (Cassell & Co.), a little book for young people on the wonders of the heavens, based on a series of lectures delivered in London at the Royal Institution of Great Britain in the Christmas season of 1887, to a juvenile audience. The style is simple and the explanatory illustrations are ingenious and well chosen. For example, the relative strength of gravitation upon the earth and the moon is brought home by picturing a man standing on the earth, bent down under the weight of a heavy sack of grain on his back, while the same man on the moon is able to carry six sacks of the same size. The difficulties against which old Kepler had to contend when he was trying to make out the orbit of Mars are illustrated by recalling the belief then prevalent that the planets must move in circles because circles were the only perfect curves. No imperfections had then been detected in the planetary motions, no spots had then been discovered on the sun. A number of interesting methods are employed to give some conception of the vast distance of the stars. One of the most ingenious is the account of that part of human history that would only now reach the stars if it were carried on rays of light. The light arriving now from the earth to the nearer stars would show Great Britain in a state of excitement over the coronation of a youthful Queen, whom we know as Queen Victoria, fifty years on the throne. There are other stars from which the inhabitants could now see, if they had good enough telescopes, a mighty battle going on not far from Brussels. On yet other stars, the light would only now arrive which left the earth at the signing of the Magna Charta; and even these are not the farthest from us. All this is pleasant and instructive reading. The woodcuts are generally good and correct, and the book would serve well as side reading for a young class in astronomy.

—Dr. F. J. Furnivall, in a letter which he writes to the *Academy* of April 19, puts forth in a very compact form the results of his researches as to the ancestry of Robert Browning. He rejects, with his habitual promptness of decision, the "myth" that the poet was connected in some way with the Obadiah Browning of 1689, and with the Captain that commanded Henry V.'s ship. These were only namesakes annexed to cover the poet's humble origin. He then goes on:

"His first forefather, that we know of, Robert I., was head butler, doubtless after being footboy and footman, to Sir J. Bankes, at Corfe Castle, Dorsetshire. Robert's brother Thomas was tenant of an inn—Woodyates Inn—in a very small hamlet of Dorsetshire, under Lord Shaftesbury, in whose family he may well have been a servant. At any rate, Robert I.'s son, Thomas II., succeeded Thomas I. in the tenancy of Woodyates Inn, and was the greatgrandfather of the poet. Robert I.'s wife, Elizabeth, could not sign her name to her will; and her grandson, Robert II.'s son, was apprenticed to a stone mason at Wimborne. Lord Shaftesbury, as the landlord of Thomas II., got his son Robert III., the poet's grandfather, into the Bank of England. There the poet's father, Robert IV. (a half creole) was a clerk also, and was a versatile, clever fellow. The rise of the family is a creditable one from the ranks; and it is a pity to try and tack it on to noteworthy namesakes who have nothing to do with it."

The editor of the *Academy* appends a note to Dr. Furnivall's letter to say that the word "creole" which appears in it is not to be taken in its strict sense, as meaning one born of European blood in the West Indies, but is to be understood (as the word is commonly and incorrectly used) as connoting a mixed negro parentage. Dr. Furnivall's paper on Browning's ancestry, with wills, extracts from registers, and so on, may be had, he says, by sending 3d. and an addressed stamped wrapper to Clay & Sons, Bread-Street-Hill, London, E. C., and mentioning that the application is made in consequence of his letter in the *Academy*.

—The latest accession to the Bohn Goethe (London, George Bell & Sons; New York, Scribner & Welford) is a volume containing "Reineke Fuchs," the "Divan," and the "Achilleid," all translated by Mr. Alexander Rogers, a gentleman who seems to be neither a very cunning versifex nor a very great German scholar. He remarks benignly of Goethe's hexameters that they "are as good as they can be expected to be in a language that lends itself to this particular metre but little better than our own." How well "our own" lends itself to Mr. Rogers in his less strenuous moments can be seen from this specimen: "Searched through a mill and the miller's wife was asleep, softly." At the beginning of the "Divan" one finds this bit of translation and commentary:

> "There, pure and right, where still they find,
> Will I drive all mortal kind
> To the great depths whence all things rise,
> There still to gain, in godly wise,
> Heaven's lore in earthly speech,
> Heads might break ere they could reach."

On reading this we were struck by its nebulousness, and guessed that the translator must have been struggling with something very obscure—a guess that seemed to be confirmed when we read this foot-note to the last line: "'Und sich nicht den Kopf zerbrachen.' Strangely put in the past tense (whereas the present is used in the first part of the sentence) in order to rhyme with *Erdensprachen*." This sent us to the original, where we found this simple stanza, which we should suppose that any well-taught sophomore would be able to construe and to understand (the "Dort" means the Orient, where Goethe had intellectually taken refuge from the turbulent politics of his own time):

> "Dort im Reinen und im Rechten
> Will ich menschlichen Geschlechten
> In des Ursprungs Tiefe dringen,
> Wo sie noch von Gott empfingen
> Himmelslehr' in Erdesprachen,
> Und sich nicht den Kopf zerbrachen."

—The publication of the fourth part of the 'Bibliographie générale et raisonée du droit belge,' by Edmond Picard and Ferdinand Larcier (Brussels: F. Larcier, 1890), completes this useful bibliography of the legal literature of Belgium. The printing of the work commenced in 1882, and the alphabet of authors, numbering 6,786 titles, was brought to an end in the third part, having filled 870 octavo pages. The present part contains (1) a list of anonymous books and articles, (2) a catalogue of legal periodicals, and (3) a supplement, comprising the titles of all the law books issued from the press of Belgium during the printing of the catalogue, to October, 1889. This supplement adds 1,122 titles to the alphabet of authors, making the grand total nearly eight thousand. About two-thirds of this number would represent the actual books and pamphlets relating to law printed in this little country since 1814—a remarkable record, which, we think, only a few of the great nations of the world could surpass.

—The bibliography of journals deserves special mention. It is not a mere list, but a careful bibliographical record of some hundred and thirty legal and statistical journals published in Belgium. Under the rubrics, "Mode of Publication," "Editing and Printing," "Col-

lection" (*i. e.*, number of volumes, etc.), we get the whole history of each journal, including a notice of any index or indexes which may have been published; while in many cases, also, under the additional heading of "Anonymous Contributions," there is printed a list of the unsigned articles upon law subjects which have appeared in the journal. Some of these periodicals deserve to have a reputation outside of Belgium, such as *Pasinomie*, which publishes all the laws and decrees, and contains in its ninety-one volumes a complete chronological collection of Belgian and French laws from 1788 to the present time. A somewhat similar publication, *Pasicrisie*, gives the decisions of the courts, including those of the courts of France, and now numbers, with its digests and indexes, about 280 volumes. Another fine work, published in periodical parts, is 'Pandectes belges: Encyclopédie de législation, de doctrine et de jurisprudence belge.' It is formed upon the plan of the well-known 'Jurisprudence belge' of Dalloz, and has required twenty-seven quarto volumes to cover the first three letters of the alphabet.

ADAMS'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION OF JEFFERSON.—II.

History of the United States of America during the Second Administration of Thomas Jefferson. By Henry Adams. Vols. III. and IV. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1890.

It has been already said that Florida was the key of Jefferson's politics in the early stages of his second term. The French Emperor indulged in a long dalliance with our Government under this head, using Florida as the lever of his diplomatic movements, now against the United States and now against Spain. After the overthrow of the Prussian Army at Jena, on the 14th of October, 1806, the dalliance came to an end, and was followed by sharp measures of coercion brought to bear on the United States as a neutral Power. The Berlin Decree, "which cut the roots of neutral rights and of American commerce," was launched on the 21st of November, 1806, and thus was joined that long triangular duel, in which the United States was doomed to stand under the fire of both England and France without being able to reply to the fire of either. The quarrel between the two great European protagonists had reached that stage of violence which, in the phrase of Thucydides, "assimilates the passions of men to the conditions of the moment." Hence it was that fury ministered arms to each, without the slightest regard to the interests or rights of nations which wished to be neutral spectators of the strife.

As early as August 17, 1805, the direct trade of neutrals with the colonies of France had been placed under restriction by a British order in council. Then followed the blockade of the Ems, Weser, etc., on the 8th of April, 1806, to be soon succeeded by the blockade of the whole coast from the Elbe to Brest. In the spring of 1805, our Congress had passed a non-importation act, if haply by so doing we might fatigue both belligerents into a respect for our neutral rights—"a dose of chicken-broth," as John Randolph sneeringly called it, and this, too, a "dose" which was to be taken nine months after its prescription; for the law was not to go into effect till the 15th of November. The pusillanimity of our public measures at this crisis, whatever may have been the justification for it in the hard necessities of our political situation, had now begun to react on the tone and temper of the national character. "The great issues of 1776 and of 1787," says Mr. Adams, "had dwindled into disputes whether robbery and violence should be punished by refusing to buy millinery and hardware from the robbers, and whether an unsuccessful attempt to purloin foreign territory should be redeemed by bribing a more powerful nation to purloin it at second hand." Englishmen, on the other hand, says Mr. Adams, "listened with as much contempt as anger to the American theory that England must surrender at discretion if Americans should refuse any longer to buy woollen shirts and tin kettles. Englishmen asked only whether Americans would fight, and they took some pains to make inquiries on that point; but it happened that of all the points in question, this, which to Englishmen was alone decisive, could be answered in a syllable: No! America would not fight. The President, Congress, the press of both parties in the United States agreed only in this particular."

While the Administration at this juncture, in common with the whole American people, was staggering under an intolerable burden of difficulty and weltering in a bottomless Slough of Despond, Monroe, our Minister at London, was set to the impossible task of wresting from Great Britain a treaty which should require that country to repudiate the right and renounce the practice of impressment, to restore our trade with the French colonies to its old footing, and to pay a round indemnity for unlawful captures made under the rulings of Sir William Scott. From the toils of such impossible conditions there was no escape for Monroe except by breaking through them. This he did. He put his name to a treaty drawn up in violation of his instructions, and a treaty, besides, which was rendered nugatory and worthless by an explanatory note of the British negotiators, who formally signified to Monroe and Pinkney that the treaty was to pass for nothing unless the American Government, before ratification, should give security that it would not recognize the Berlin decree! By signing the treaty with that condition, Monroe, the "Gallican" sympathizer of 1794, did his best to commit the United States to war with France and alliance with England.

Jefferson rejected the treaty without even submitting it to the Senate. He was abundantly justified in so doing, but the act cost him dear in the turbulent politics of that day. The Federalists charged that the treaty had been rejected because of its anti-Gallican tendencies, and they pointed to the mode of its rejection as a specimen of autocracy which Jefferson had braved in the interest of France, and in imitation of the imperial despot who was then giving law to all the world—except England. A little later it need not surprise us if we find Timothy Pickering offering his celebrated toast: "The world's last hope: Britain's fast-anchored isle."

From this time forth the triangular duel of which we have spoken gathered fresh virulence from the increasing ferocity of the European belligerents. The policy of impressment was pushed to its last extremity of outrage and oppression. At this late day, when our Government exults with only too much gayety of heart in its pride of place among the nations of the earth, it is difficult for the ordinary reader to measure the contempt in which our country was held by Great Britain during the Administration of Jefferson, or to hear without a tingling of the ears a recital of the indignities to which our flag was subjected on the high seas. The head and front of British offending was found in the impressment of our seamen, under color of the pretension that many of our seamen were "deserters" from the British service, or that, under the doctrine of indefeasible allegiance, many of our seamen were British subjects whom England had a right to reclaim whenever she found them at sea in an American merchant vessel. Hence the assumed right of search so long maintained by England and resisted by the United States. While doing full justice to the enormity of the British pretension, Mr. Adams, we believe, nowhere gives a precise statement of the proportions which the impressment outrage had assumed in its relation to the actual personnel of the American marine. Early in 1808, Mr. Madison reported that over four thousand American seamen had then made reclamations, through the Department of State, for their release from involuntary detention in the British naval or mercantile service. And this number takes no account of sailors captured on the Spanish Main, but not yet reported, or of sailors who, from death or helplessness, had made no sign. The recklessness with which impressment was practised may be read in the fact that one-fourth of those who had been kidnapped by British cruisers were admitted, on inquiry by the British Government, to have been wrongfully seized, and were ultimately released, but without apology or reparation.

The impressment outrage came to the acme of national insult and oppression in the well-known case of the *Leopard* in its attack on the *Chesapeake*. The right of search was here asserted against a public armed vessel of the United States, and was accompanied with an insolence as grievous to the national honor as the violence practised towards an unresisting ship was wounding to the national pride. If Jefferson had been anxious to precipitate a war with England, as the Federalists charged, the "*Leopard* incident" gave him more than the opportunity he was supposed to covet; for, as the news of the outrage spread, the whole country made a show of willingness to spring to arms. But the hard necessities of the political situation proved too strong for even this patriotic outburst, and the national honor soon ran to cover under the "resorts of a peaceful diplomacy." The story of the *Leopard* is not pleasant reading for either an Englishman or an American at the present day; for the country of each may well be ashamed of its attitude—England for the attitude she took by choice, and the United States for the attitude it took by compulsion.

It was the cruel dilemma of Jefferson at this juncture that he could neither make war with effectiveness nor conduct diplomacy with dignity. The civil sneers of Canning were as hard to bear as the rough epistles which Admiral Berkeley wrote with his marlingspike. Fresh from personal mixture in the humiliations imposed by the *Leopard* on the people of Norfolk, Littleton Waller Tazewell, Republican, as he was, denounced Jefferson as a *fainéant* ruler equally incapable of keeping peace or making war. But in all this hurly-burly of impotent rage and bitterness, Jefferson maintained a serenity of spirit, because he believed himself able to draw from the arsenal of his "Quaker politics" a mode of defence better than war. The embargo and the gun-boat system of harbor defence had long rested in his mind as the "cheap defence" of a nation situated like the American republic. The nation was now brought to the brink of choosing between war or embargo, and, war being clearly impossible, the alternative choice was inevitable in his eyes. The embargo had been an old cuirass in our national armory. When war with England was imminent, in 1794, an embargo for thirty

days had been instituted by Congress for the protection of our seamen and ships, but not, as John Adams has explained, with any expectation that it would influence the conduct of England. In its very theory it was of temporary duration, but Jefferson conceived the embargo as a weapon of permanent offence for the coercion of the belligerent Powers of Europe. He was willing to stake his reputation as a political philosopher on the success or failure of this new device in the applied art of statesmanship.

The British orders in council of January 7, 1807, commonly known as Lord Howick's orders, had interdicted neutral trade from port to port in France. This order was issued in alleged retaliation for the Berlin Decree, and had passed without much animadversion from our mercantile and shipping community. The Republicans professed themselves unable to account for this supineness, except on the assumption that our merchants, being mostly Federalists, were quick to resent the injuries of France, while bearing with habitual indifference the injuries of England. But the real explanation lay on the surface. France was powerless at sea, and could be scolded with impunity as the would-be brigand who had angered England into measures of "retaliation." England swept the seas with her cruisers, and had to be coaxed where she could not be cowed. The Administration itself, while blaming this mercantile subserviency, could but imitate it.

The "awful tragedy at Copenhagen"—the bombardment of the city and the capture of the Danish Navy—now came to emphasize the fact that "neutrals would be no longer tolerated." The same fact was soon emphasized by Napoleon at Lisbon. The Berlin Decree, which had long slept as a dead letter, was suddenly put in force by the French Emperor during the same early days of September which had witnessed the fall of Copenhagen. When "Copenhagen" Jackson came to our country as British Minister, in 1809, it was openly announced in the *National Intelligencer* that he came to us "red from the flames of Copenhagen and flushed with the blood of the persecuted Danes." It was seen at once that America's "turn" would come next. Reports reached Washington that "countervailing orders in council" would soon be published by the British Government to meet the rigorous enforcement of the Berlin Decree. On the 16th of October, 1807, as if in prospect of a closer grapple with France, the British King issued a proclamation recalling all British seamen from the service of foreign Powers, under threat of punishment. The proclamation reached the United States in December, and was published in the *National Intelligencer* of December 14 in that year. When Mr. Adams says that it was published in the *Intelligencer* of December 17, he means that it was republished on that day in order to emphasize the editorial opinion expressed on the 14th, that "this proclamation looked very much like shutting the door on all negotiation," and that it "furnished abundant cause for preparing ourselves for a rupture." On this same day, the 14th of December, 1807, the official journal published also an address to the President from the Legislature of New Jersey, in which it was held that England, in openly avowing to the Danes that "she could no longer distinguish between neutrals and enemies," had become "professedly and intentionally the open and avowed enemy of every nation at peace." "This language," it was added, "though addressed to the Danes, speaks with equal solemnity to us." In the first draft of his message to Congress on the 18th of December, recommending the passage of an embargo act, Jefferson caught not only the ideas, but some of the very words, which his official organ had used four days before. The embargo message, as recast by Madison, contained no express reference to "retaliatory measures" of England, actual or apprehended. Four days later the Embargo Act had passed through both houses of Congress on the simple recommendation of the President, with no other *pièces justificatives* than a letter from Judge Regnier announcing that the Berlin Decree would be enforced, and a newspaper copy of the Royal Proclamation of October 16. The embargo was enacted in secret session of both houses, without any public definition of its real purpose, and without any limit put on its duration. The country was committed to a permanent policy of "peaceable coercion" without knowing it, and was so committed under a disguise. The voice of the Administration was the voice of Jacob, but its hands were the hands of Esau. Mr. Adams explains this policy of disguise by referring it to Jefferson's love of secrecy. But the President had a controlling reason for it in this case. In form the embargo was a purely "defensive" measure, and, as we shall see, it was so represented to England. In motive, aim, and purpose, the embargo was "offensive," being conceived as a substitute for war. Hence it was but natural that Jefferson should have wished to avoid any public discussion which could but reveal a contrariety between the outside look of the embargo and its "true inwardness."

At the time of sending in his embargo message to Congress the President had not received Percival's orders in council of November 11, 1807. But some "retaliatory measure" was believed to be impending, and the sweeping scope of its application had been already presaged. In the first draft of his message the President had referred to apprehensions on this score. The *National Intelligencer* of December 21, the day before the passage of the Embargo Act, had published a rumor that an order placing the whole of France and her dependencies in a state of siege was on the point of being signed at the date of last advices from London. On that same day Erskine, the British Minister, wrote to Canning that the embargo was being pushed through Congress "on the ground of expecting that a proclamation will be issued by his Majesty declaring France and her dependencies in a state of blockade." The letter was doubtless an echo of what he had read in that day's *Intelligencer*. On the 23d of December, one day after the passage of the Embargo Act, Erskine wrote that the Embargo Bill had been passed, and that it had been passed "from an apprehension of a retaliatory order by Great Britain." At the same time, he was careful to add that the measure, "as this Government declares," was not "a measure of hostility against Great Britain, but only a precaution against the risk of the capture of their ships in consequence of the decree of Bonaparte of November 21, 1806." The embargo is here made to speak with the voice of Jacob. One day later, two days after the passage of the Embargo Law, the official journal of the Administration held it clear that Great Britain was "meditating further retaliations," and on the following day it vindicated the whole embargo policy "as a weapon of negotiation" in future dealings with Great Britain. The embargo is here made to show the hands of Esau.

We have placed these facts and dates in juxtaposition for the purpose of demonstrating the ostensible causes and the secret motives which precipitated the embargo of December 22, 1807. Because the orders in council of November 11 had not reached the United States at the date of the passage of this untoward act, and because it was not formally specified by Jefferson in his embargo message as among the proceedings which called for such legislation, it was commonly asserted in after days by the Federalists that the British orders in council of November 11, 1807, had had no share in precipitating the embargo policy. This assertion left the way clear for the useful inference that the embargo, in being apparently instigated by the judgments of the French Admiralty Court, had been really devised in the interest and perhaps at the behest of the French tyrant.

This aspect of the question became for years the turning point of the whole embargo controversy considered in its relation to our domestic politics. The real cause of the embargo became the article of standing or falling parties in Massachusetts and in all New England. On the 4th of January, 1808, about two weeks after the passage of the restrictive act, we find James Sullivan, the Republican Governor of Massachusetts, writing to Senator John Quincy Adams (who had voted for the embargo *sans phrase*) a pathetic lamentation over "the close silence of our members at Washington in regard to the *cause* of the embargo." "This silence," he said, "gives an advantage to the Federalists over the Republicans." And when Jefferson, in a special message to Congress on the 4th of February, 1808, sent in the long-expected orders of Percival, and described them as "a *further* proof of the increasing dangers" which had justified the Embargo Act, the Federalists exulted in these words as a virtual admission that the orders in council of November 11 had had nothing to do as a procuring cause of the act.

John Quincy Adams, as every reader knows, fell a victim to the reticence of Jefferson in this matter. As a Senator from Massachusetts he had supported the embargo, expecting it would be the precursor of ulterior and more energetic measures; but when no such measures were forthcoming, he had to stand the brunt of the embargo policy in the pure and simple form in which it lay in the thought of Jefferson, to wit, as a permanent measure of peaceable coercion. The measure in this shape outraged alike the sentiments and the interests of Massachusetts. The Federalists carried a majority of the Legislature which was to elect John Quincy Adams's successor, and the fiery patriot, foreseeing the drift of opinion in his State, incontinently resigned his seat in the Senate. He resigned, doubtless, as much in vexation with Jefferson, who had caught him in an *impasse*, as with the Federalists of the Essex Junto who had set up their Caudine Forks in it for his humiliation.

The author admits that John Quincy Adams "made a mistake" in voting for the embargo without limit of time. He also made a mistake, according to his own admission at the time, in voting for the embargo without a public specification of the reasons on which it was based. This latter mistake was the more unaccountable because, in his diary, he records that the diplomatic papers sent with the message recommending the embargo seemed "utterly inadequate to warrant such a measure." To vote for the measure under such conditions was to place a club in the hands of his embittered colleague, Timothy Pickering. It is needless to say that the club was wielded with all possible effectiveness. In the whole checkered career of Pickering we can recall nothing which excites the admiration of our historian except

the dexterity with which he conducted this assault on John Quincy Adams. Pickering's letter to the Legislature of Massachusetts, hinting at some secret (that is, French) motive as the real cause of the embargo, since the ostensible causes were not sufficient to justify it, is pronounced by the author to have been "a master stroke," and to be "stamped by a touch of genius." The praise seems slightly exaggerated; for what genius could it require to use a double-headed mistake for the discomfiture of a political adversary?

Omitting all discussion of the acts passed for the enforcement of the embargo (acts admitted by Gallatin to have involved the exercise of "arbitrary powers" at once "dangerous and odious"), we come to Mr. Adams's summary of results. His discussion under this head is calm and philosophical. He thinks the experiment essayed by Jefferson was worth trying as an object-lesson in the science and art of politics. The question to be decided was, which of two systems, the system of war or the system of commercial restriction, is likely to be the less costly and the more effective. The result showed that the embargo was an expensive system, and, in its immediate effects, was more destructive to the national wealth than war itself. While New England revolted at the system, the true burden of the embargo, as Mr. Adams justly says, fell on the South, and especially on Virginia. The remark is so just that we wonder the author did not authenticate it by citing from easily accessible tables the exact facts and figures which Matthew Carey compiled for the same purpose, with insufficient accuracy, in his 'Olive Branch.'

In its moral effects the embargo "opened the sluice gates of social corruption," teaching men to evade or defy the laws where they did not accept an economical paralysis in their brains as well as in their hands. In point of political effect its cost to the party in power, as Mr. Adams shows, was simply ruinous. As a permanent lesson in politics, the moral of the embargo is pointed by Mr. Adams in the following terms, which seem to us as just as they are terse:

"The law of physics could easily be applied to politics: force could be converted only into its equivalent, force. If the embargo—an exertion of force less violent than war—was to do the work of war, it must extend over a longer time the development of an equivalent energy. Wars lasted for many years, and the embargo must be calculated to last much longer than any war; but meanwhile the morals, courage, and political liberties of the American people must be perverted or destroyed; agriculture and shipping must perish; the Union itself could not be preserved."

This last item in the expense account of the embargo leads us to remark briefly on the effect which the hapless measure had in promoting what Mr. Adams calls "the rise of a British party" in the politics of the United States. "The Federalists of 1800," he says, "were the national party of America. The Federalists of 1808 were a British faction in secret league with George Canning." Perhaps the statement is a little too broad, and confounds the rank and file of the Federalist party a little too closely with its leaders; but that these latter were too much disposed to side with English policies against the rights and honor of their own country must be conceded. The well-known toast of Pickering, coming a year or two later, did but blurt out the secret and honest conviction of the Federalist thinkers, that England had become "the last hope of the world." Secret correspondence was opened between representative men of the Federalist party and emissaries of Great Britain. The "principal characters in Boston" retailed their disaffection in the ears of John Henry, not knowing that that political pimp and spy would afterwards peach on them. Timothy Pickering fell an easy prey to the flatteries of George Henry Rose. "One by one," says our historian, "the Federalist leaders of New England gave in their adhesion to Pickering's plan for the calling of a convention of the New England States." It was deliberately proposed by Pickering that these States should "put their negative on the usurpations of the general Government"; and so it came to pass that he who, eight years before, had been a Federalist Secretary of State under John Adams, became, in 1808, a convert to the doctrines of "the Kentucky Resolutions of '98" in their pure and simple form of nullification. The revolution which had been in progress between the two parties for the last eight years was now completed, says Mr. Adams, and each party stood on the ground of the other as compared with their respective attitudes in 1798. With all his repulsion for the embargo, Mr. Adams is inclined to wonder at the "madness" it excited in New England, and gives expression to that wonder in terms which certainly do not lack for "local color" in their vividness. He says:

"Not for a full century had the old Puritan prejudice shown itself in a form so unreasoning and unreasonable; but although nearly one-half the people held aloof and wondered at the madness of their own society, the whole history of Massachusetts, a succession of half-forgotten disputes and rebellions, seemed to concentrate itself, for the last time, in a burst of expiring passions, mingled with hatred of Virginia and loathing for Jefferson, until the rest of America, perplexed at paroxysms so eccentric, wondered whether the spirit of Massachusetts liberty could ever have been sane. For the moment Timothy Pickering was its genius."

The repeal of the embargo was signed by Jefferson on the 1st of March, 1809, three days before the end of his term. If the repeal brought relief to the country, it brought to Jefferson a mortification which was indescribable, and over which he never ceased to mourn in tones of undissembled bitterness. It seemed to him a calamity from which he should have been spared by his country.

"So complete was his overthrow," says Mr. Adams, "that his popular influence declined even in the South. Twenty years elapsed before his political authority recovered power over the Northern people; for not until the embargo and its memories had faded from men's minds did the mighty shadow of Jefferson's Revolutionary fame efface the ruin of his Presidency. Yet he clung with more and more tenacity to the faith that his theory of peaceable coercion was sound; and when, within a few months of his death, he alluded for the last time to the embargo, he spoke of it as a 'measure which, persevered in a little longer, we had subsequent and satisfactory assurance would have effected its object completely.'"

So true is it that the parental instinct, in the breast even of a political philosopher, will fondly cling to the weakliest and most deformed of his offspring.

We cannot dismiss these volumes without bestowing a word of praise on the care with which they have been edited. Misprints are exceedingly rare. The name of Breckinridge, wherever it occurs, is spelled "Breckenridge," contrary to the modern usage. In our review of last week the types conspired with Mr. Adams's authority to misspell the name of Burr's Kentucky prosecutor. Mr. Adams always spells it "Daveiss." It should be Daviess. A worthy citizen who once filled a conspicuous place in Kentucky politics, who was closely connected with Chief-Justice Marshall (he married a sister of the Chief Justice), and whose name is still preserved in the county geography of Kentucky, should not pass into history under a misnomer.

THREE SPANISH NOVELS.

La Incógnita. Por B. Pérez Galdós. Madrid: Imprenta de *La Guirnalda.* 1889.

Realidad: Novela en cinco Jornadas. Por B. Pérez Galdós. Same publishers. 1890.

Sister Saint Sulpice. From the Spanish of Armando Palacio Valdés. By Nathan Haskell Dole. Authorized translation. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

THE latest two to be added to the forty-odd volumes of the leading Spanish novelist really constitute a single work; the first one getting a rather complicated mystery before the reader only to put off the explanation till the publication of the second. If it could be supposed that Galdós either needed or desired to resort to a trick to increase his sales, the relation of the two novels to the considerable interval between their appearance would have a vulgar look; but Spanish literary customs admit of many things which with us are unknown. 'La Incógnita' is made up entirely of letters sent by a young deputy, Manolo Infante, to a provincial friend. They gradually acquaint us with a rich old collector of antiquities, who professes the most revolutionary theories of society and property without any disposition whatever to exemplify them, and his daughter Augusta, the beautiful and vivacious wife of a man of independent fortune, Tomás Orozco. The deputy proceeds to fall in love with Augusta, in right Continental fashion, but finds himself distinctly rebuffed. He is in doubt whether this is due to the lady's virtue or to the existence of a more fortunate rival. Inclining to the latter theory, he endeavors to place his finger on the man.

There is a young Italian cosmopolite, Malibran, who has the rare advantage over his fellow-males of being able to discuss with ladies the details of their dressmaking with an enthusiasm and intelligence equal to their own. There is a young offshoot of an old family, fallen on evil times, Federico Viera, known to be desperately in debt, suspected of being a gambler, with many dubious acquaintances, yet constantly a guest at the Orozco dinners and receptions. Infante's suspicions fluctuate between these two, without any positive ground in the case of either, until finally Viera is found dead one morning in an outlying street, with two bullet-wounds. The police are completely baffled, and though gossip hastens to connect the Orozcos with the tragedy, every clue leads up to a dead wall, and the mystery of the murder and its cause appears impenetrable. Just there 'La Incógnita' ends.

For the form of correspondence, well fitted to present the mystery as it stood before the eyes of a single puzzled observer, 'Realidad substitutes a dramatic narrative in five acts, wherein the whole ground of the story as it had been told in the letters is retravelled and the facts set forth exactly as they occurred. It then appears that Viera had been the favored one all along, Augusta having conceived a mad passion for him, and her husband, who is represented as a man of singularly noble character, having endeavored to befriend him, pay off his debts, recover him from his evil ways, and give him an opportunity to restore the honor of his family. The only shred of conscience that Viera has left, vibrates to the sense of monstrous ignominy in accepting such great favors from the man whom he is robbing of a wife, and his situation at last grows so intolerable morally—hounded by his

creditors, help pressed upon him by Orozco, the one man in the world from whom he could not accept it, and unable to break away from the fascination of Augusta—that he puts a revolver to his head as the shortest way out of it.

Galdós certainly should not be accused of writing this story of wretched intrigue and dishonor for its own sake, as he undoubtedly means to subordinate the whole to his psychological study of the characters of Orozco and Viera, and to the drawing of a moral which may be supposed to be needed in Madrid. Yet it must seem a misuse of his immense wit and charming style to expend them on such a theme. As to the implied common existence of immorality such as Augusta's among the women of aristocratic society in the Spanish capital, we have some valuable testimony in the negative from one who is a novelist, a woman, and a member of the aristocracy, Emilia Pardo Bazán. She says she has often challenged impugners of her sex to name a dozen women in the upper circles of Madrid society whom even vague rumor hinted to be guilty of conjugal infidelity, and that she never could get more than three or four names. Referring to Pereda's novel, 'La Montalvez,' she affirms that his assumption that Spanish women of the nobility are as a rule unfaithful wives, rests not upon facts, but upon the survival of "the provincial tradition." One may hope that Galdós is similarly misled. Much could be forgiven him for the many delightful bits of characterization and description that occur in these pages of his.

Valdés correctly describes his latest novel in the sub-title which he gives it, "A Novel of Andalusian Manners." Its main purpose and interest lie in its pictures of life in Seville, where the Moorish imprint still lingers so plainly. The story turns upon the love of the hero for a nun—one not under irrevocable vows, of course, but temporarily and almost against her will in a sisterhood, whence her desire to emerge is distinctly heightened by her knowledge that he is waiting for her out in the world. She is a strange compound of qualities—mischievous, impulsive, passionate, or provokingly indifferent, according to her mood, immoderately jealous, and capable of overpowering affection. Her lover is a Gallegan, whose native shrewdness and eye to the main chance have a hard struggle with the idealist and poetic tendencies to which he thinks he is surrendering himself. His characterization at his own hands (he himself tells the whole story) is amusing enough. High and low life alike appear in the novelist's picture, and, that nothing might be left out, some scenes of coarse debauchery get in also.

Señor Valdés cannot be counted happy in his American translator. Mr. Dole's version of the novel is disfigured by a surprising number of blunders, some of which may be due to haste and carelessness, but scores of which cannot be explained on that hypothesis. We have space to cite only a few typical instances of his bad work, though the examples could easily be run up into the hundreds. "Lectures" as the rendering of "lecturas," "idiom" of "idioma," and "sentiment" of "sentimiento" are specimens of his short and easy (and wholly incorrect) way of Englishing his original. He translates "avasalladora" as "in abeyance" instead of "dominating," gets "clog-dancing" out of "pisotones en los callos" instead of "treading on corns," and in "no transijo" finds "I am not growing thin" instead of "I do not admit it." "Gabinete" he takes to mean "library," undeterred by the fact that Valdés immediately adds, "Not a book was anywhere to be seen." The proverbial expression, "Lo prometido es deuda," he renders, "What is promised is doubtful," instead of "A promise is a debt," and takes pains to notify the reader of the blunder by putting in the original Spanish as well as the absurd English. But it is when Mr. Dole tries to get the meat out of an idiom that he is most fearful and wonderful. We cite him twice at his worst. "Charlar por los codos" he supposes to mean "prate about the codes." It literally means to "chatter with the elbows," and is a perfectly common phrase used to denote offensively verbose speakers. Not knowing this, and making his usual short cut on the word "codos" (it never means "codes"), the translator gives us the amazing version mentioned. "Pelar la pava" is a slang phrase (Valdés uses it with a "con perdón de Ustedes"), literally meaning to "pluck the hen-turkey," and employed to denote the Spanish custom of courting by night through the grating of the balcony where the adored one sits. Mr. Dole makes a desperate drive at this idiom, and translates "pelo la pava" as "a sudden transformation"!

Notice should also be taken of Mr. Dole's way of dealing with literary allusions. In his translation of Valdés's fine prologue on novel-writing (which affords the translator opportunity for some of his neatest butcher-work), he writes "Chaide y Rivadeneira," as if those two classic writers were one person, allows the name of the Greek romancer, Longus, to appear in its Spanish form, "Longo," and refers to Balzac's details about "the heaps of sugar" in 'Eugénie Grandet.' Of course, "terrones de azúcar" might mean "heaps of sugar," but it also might mean "lumps of sugar," and if Mr. Dole had taken the trouble to look at Balzac, he would have seen that it must mean that, as it is the Spanish for "morceaux de sucre." He makes Cervantes to have been the "last *comisionado de apremio*," presumably because he does not know what a *comisionado de apremio* is. The climax is fairly capped, however, by his translating "el espectáculo del *Don Juan Tenorio*," as "the sight of Don Juan the tenor." Now, Zorrilla's "Don Juan Tenorio" is probably the most famous and best known piece of writing that has been done in Spain in the present century, and Valdés is referring to the performance ("espectáculo") of that drama; but Mr. Dole ignores even the warning italics, and soberly fetches out his paralyzing "Don Juan the tenor"! We gladly testify to the frequent felicity of the translation, and can only wonder that what has been so well done in parts should have been so fearfully done in other parts. The errors are so numerous and so bad that it is simple justice to say that, so far as this book is concerned, Mr. Dole is only, to imitate his own way of rendering a Spanish word, a traducer of Valdés.

THE PROBLEMATIC SOUTH.

Joel Chandler Harris's Life of Henry W. Grady, including his writings and speeches. A memorial volume compiled by Mr. Henry W. Grady's coworkers on the *Constitution*, and edited by Joel Chandler Harris (Uncle Remus). Cassell Publishing Company.

The Silent South. Together with the Freedman's Case in Equity. By George W. Cable. New ed. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1889.

The Negro Question. By George W. Cable. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1890.

THE title-page of the memorial Grady volume grossly misstates the character of its contents. It should read, 'Speeches of Henry W. Grady, with a sketch of his life by Joel Chandler Harris, and Various Tributes to his Memory.' The volume is a hasty compilation—so hasty that the proofs have not had any critical revision; and though Mr. Harris appears upon the title-page not only as biographer, but also as editor, his editorial work must have been nominal. Thus, while he gives April 24, 1850, as the date of Mr. Grady's birth, the next contributor gives May 17, 1851, and the reader who pays his money is obliged to take his choice without any editorial or other help. In a felicitous quotation from George Eliot in Mr. Grady's Elberon speech, "A sweet habit of the blood" appears as "a sweet habit of the blest," and there are many typographical slips which no theological bias can excuse. Mr. Watterson, the only Southern editor of equal standing with Mr. Grady, leads off with a few perfunctory pages, and after Mr. Harris's "Life" there is a memorial sketch by Marion J. Verdery, prepared for the New York Southern Society, which presents the leading circumstances of Mr. Grady's life in a much more orderly arrangement than the sketch which names the book. Next we have seven of Mr. Grady's speeches and a selection from his writings; then seventeen "Poems by Various Hands," memorial pieces, only one of which, James Whitcombe (*sic*) Riley's, has any literary value. The kind intention of the others does not redeem their wretched doggerel. An account of memorial meetings in Atlanta and Macon follows, and then "Personal Tributes," the third and last an astonishing sermon by Dr. Talmage, which reaches its climax of absurdity in a final apostrophe: "Not broken down, but ascended. Not collapsed, but irradiated. Enthroned one! Coronetted one! Sceptred one! Emparadised one! Hail and farewell!" After 160 pages of "Tributes" of the Northern and Southern press, there is a glowing account of the fortunes of the Atlanta *Constitution*, and in conclusion certain "Letters and Telegrams from Distinguished Persons."

The editorial tributes from the Southern are more elaborate than those from the Northern press, and have much more rhetorical effusiveness, though in the others there is enough of this. In neither does the admiration for the man or the grief for his loss admit of any question of its sincerity. The eulogy is frequently extravagant, but there is some good analysis of Mr. Grady's admirable gifts. Several of the selections from Mr. Grady's writings illustrate the hold that Dickens had on his affections. Hugo was another favorite whose name was often on his lips. But by far the most valuable of these writings is a reply to Mr. Cable's 'Silent South,' from the *Century*, April, 1885. It has a definiteness and concreteness which the speeches lack. The rhetoric does not so much obscure the thought. If this reply is not a sufficient answer to Mr. Cable's 'Silent South,' it is an answer which no sympathetic reader of Mr. Cable's book has a right to leave unread.

Mr. Harris is evidently but ill pleased with his part of the book. He describes it as "a hurriedly written sketch, which is thrown together to meet the modern exigencies of publishing"; and, further along in the same paragraph, he says: "These reminiscences have taken on a disjointed shape sadly at variance with the demands of literary art." These judgments of the author the candid reader will approve. The facts of Mr. Grady's life are, as we have said, better stated in the next following paper. His first real hit in journalism was his study in Florida of the disputed election of 1876. At the same time he "wrote up" the Florida orange, and in so doing entered bravely on that careful study and eager adver-

tisement of the resources of the South which were the most characteristic features of his editorial career, and constituted his best hold on the grateful appreciation of the Southern people. He was a poetical materialist in all his dealings with questions of agriculture and manufacture in the South, and there was something so contagious in his enthusiasm that he probably did more than any other writer or speaker to create the industrial New South. Mr. Harris notes the singular fact that his early journalistic ventures were all unfortunate. He finds its explanation in the newness of his methods, for which the South was not prepared. An editorial article on Southern Conventions secured him a place as correspondent of the New York *Herald*. How he got the paper and found his article was in it, and cried like a child over his good fortune, is told by Mr. Verdery in a happy way. Soon after, he got his first appointment on the *Constitution*, and for that and the *Herald* wrote his famous Florida letters. Cyrus Field loaned him the $20,000 with which he bought a share of the *Constitution* in 1880, the value of which increased to $150,000 before his death. This increased value was the very coinage of his brain. The strongest episode of his editorial career was his taking the prohibition side of the temperance campaign in Georgia while his partner took the other. They made things lively and amusing, but there was no lack of earnestness in Grady's editorials or speeches.

Mr. Grady was preëminently a man of sentiment. We do not feel so sure as Mr. Harris that his sentiment never degenerated into sentimentality. We think it sometimes did, and that sometimes it obscured for him the lines of truth and justice in political and social matters. But for the most part it was sound and sweet. It was the source, in part, of his wide popularity. It furnished his speeches and orations with their Celtic warmth. It made him hosts of friends. In all private and personal relations it is evident that he was most loving and most lovable. For children and young people he had a very great affection. The same tenderness and passion that went to his private relations went to his feeling for Atlanta, for Georgia, for the South, and for the Union. The ardor of his patriotism was a wonder in these days when patriotism withers and the partisan is more and more. When he took a thing in hand, he left no stone unturned that could be built into its success. The Atlanta Cotton Exposition of 1881 was one of his greatest personal triumphs, and that of 1887 was another. When his influence was least apparent, it was often most important. Whether he was without political ambition or was biding his time, there is little here to show. That he was a Warwick in his way, a maker of Governors and Senators, there can be no doubt. No other man was so grandly representative of the New South. No other of approximate ability was so nearly equal to forgetting the things that are behind and looking forth to those that are before. It would not be easy to exaggerate his influence upon Southern thought and feeling. It was inevitable that the quality of his work and its success should inspire a host of editorial writers and political aspirants to make the lines of his activity their own.

His speeches and the *Century* article already named are worth all the other matter in these 600 pages. The speeches are remarkable for their energy and for the beauty of their thought and style. Add the speaker's ardent and engaging personality, and no one can wonder at their known effectiveness. They are full of poetry and sentiment. They are excessively rhetorical, and the rhetoric might be pruned of some of its less carefully considered phrases without any loss. His most questionable metaphor is, "The dews of night that fall from the distillery of the stars." This is conspicuously bad, and is more strange because of Mr. Grady's temperance principles. There is much repetition in the speeches, both in their general structure and in particular passages and illustrations. Their general structure is twofold: they deal about equally with the renascence of Southern industry and enterprise and with the race problem. In the handling of the former matter there is an effervescence that is quite intoxicating to the imagination. It is almost too good to believe that we have not a too glowing picture, but it is confirmed by many witnesses, notably by Mr. C. D. Warner and by Mr. Cable, whose opinions with respect to the race problem are not those of Mr. Grady. The New York and Boston banquet speeches of 1886 and 1889 have had the widest fame, but they do not repay the reader nearly so well as the Atlanta Exposition speech of 1887 and the Dallas (Texas) State Fair speech of the same year. Mr. Grady was too sympathetic, if not too politic, to be unaffected by the locality and atmosphere in which he spoke. The same ideas reappear in all his speeches, but for his clearest thought the Southern speeches are the more significant.

His solution of the race problem is well known. It is perfect equality in all political and civil rights, but separation in social and domestic life, in travel, in education: the white child or adult no more at liberty to enter the black man's school or car than the black child or adult to enter the white man's. Much is made of the race instinct, "which, if it did not exist, would have to be created." But he is certain that it does exist, and, in his talk of race-types as "markers of God's will," we are sometimes painfully reminded of the ante-bellum talk about God's curse upon the children of Ham. There is too much insistence that the white race is superior and the black must be subordinate. A Northern fire eater would interpret this as justifying the suppression of the negro vote, but it has no such meaning: that there must be no such suppression is insisted again and again. The meaning is the same as if one should say that the intelligence of New York city must and shall dominate the ignorance. But it is too easily taken for granted that all white men as such are more intelligent than all black men as such, which surely is not so. And the intelligence of black men ought to dominate the ignorance of white men. Mr. Grady would have strengthened his position if he had made intelligence and character the ground of domination, and let the race distinction go. A man of his courage should have been able to say, Let intelligence and character rule, whatever the complexion of the man. He was never more eloquent than in his praise of the negro: "History has no parallel to the faith kept by the negro during the war"; "A thousand torches would have disbanded every Southern army, but not one was lighted." It would seem that these things should have suggested that the negro has no inherent tendency to lawlessness, and that the chaos of the reconstruction period was more the carpet-baggers' than the negroes' fault. Without doubting the sincerity of Mr. Grady's assurance that there is no intimidation to speak of, and that criminal justice favors the black man rather than the white, it is allowable to doubt the justness of his view. Mr. Watterson admits the intimidation and suppression. But it is an ugly fact for the Northern Bourbon that in 1888 the South cast 67 per cent. of her total vote, the New England States but 63 per cent. of theirs. A small vote does not, then, necessarily mean a suppressed vote.

A new edition of Mr. Cable's 'Silent South' and his just published 'Negro Problem' will be found interesting and suggestive reading in connection with Mr. Grady's speeches. One cannot but regret that Mr. Cable did not maintain his Southern residence, so that his criticism might have been of the Southerners by one of themselves in appearance as well as in reality. The new edition of his 'Silent South' is different from the first only by the addition of two replies to Mr. Cable's strictures, with his replies to them, in which—criminal justice being the principal matter in dispute—Mr. Cable seems to show that he did not in the first instance speak without due warrant, but in the course of the discussion it is brought out that there is almost as much difference in the judicial treatment of the negro in the Northern as in the Southern States. Mr. Cable's 'Negro Question' is an elaborate reply to Mr. Grady's speeches, though not avowedly. His name only once appears, and he is seldom quoted. Mr. Cable has often been charged with claiming social equality for the negro with the white man: he makes it plain that he does nothing of the sort. His own idea is nowhere better expressed than in the articles of a civil-rights club of colored men organized to foster civil equality and the "recognition of every man's inviolable right to select and reject his social companions and acquaintances according to his own private pleasure or conscience." He is at his best in his chapter, "What Shall the Negro Do?" For one thing, "Keep his vote alive"; and this means that he shall determine in advance to vote with neither party as such; that he must stop "voting for gratitude" to the Republican party for its past services; that he must vote on all questions, and not merely on those which concern his own immediate interests; that he must cast his vote, though he has to die for doing so. In some of these positions Mr. Cable is evidently "between the devil and the deep sea," and will please the Republican as little as the Democrat. But it is evident throughout that he is no partisan, but goes his own way, let who will praise him or forbear. He is flatly opposed to Mr. Grady in his demand for the breaking of the color line. In that case Mr. Grady anticipated dreadful things for the negro: "His credulity would be played upon, his cupidity tempted, his impulses misdirected, his passions inflamed." Mr. Cable fears no such event, and shows us why he does not quite sufficiently.

We can also go with him very largely in his closing chapter on "The Southern Struggle for Pure Government." Purity without freedom is impossible; it is the stream poisoned at its source. If Mr. Grady overworked the reconstruction scare, Mr. Cable does less than justice to its natural influence. We do not believe that there is any soundness in his reasoning that the South has accepted the destruction of slavery so heartily because what she wanted was race superiority, and she finds that she can have this just as well without slavery as with it. His argument for national aid to Southern schools is offered somewhat timidly, as if he were not himself entirely sure it would be best, though he shows that Mr. Grady's figures—a white assessment in Georgia of $368,000,000, a black assessment of $10,000,000, while the black children are 49 per cent.—is not proportionately made good throughout the South. In "The Inventions of Despair" such vagaries as a negro Territory and deportation to Africa

are disposed of none too summarily, but there is some talk of Federal interference that is not a particle more sane. While in particulars acknowledging the sporadic nature of the evils he deplores, Mr. Cable is continually bringing his indictment against the whole people of the South, and assuming that some general treatment is required. Though he is one of the sternest critics of the Southern situation, it is impossible to read his book without astonishment that so much has been already accomplished, or without hope that all will yet be well. Somehow we have found ourselves rising from the perusal of his pages as little tempted to discouragement as by Mr. Grady's more optimistic but less pressingly moral strain.

Into Morocco. Translated from the French of Pierre Loti. New York: Welch, Fracker Co. Pp. 343.

On reading De Amicis's entertaining volume on Morocco, or his other volumes of travel, one notes here and there the influence of Gautier's example and methods. Still more obvious is it that the author of this charming and dainty little volume was inspired to his task by the example of De Amicis. The latter accompanied an Italian embassy to Fez, while "Pierre Loti" followed a French embassy. This is the only safe way of travelling in the interior, and it is quite safe, as the chiefs of the various districts who in turn take charge of the foreigners, are responsible with their own heads for the safety of the party. But naturally, under these circumstances, there had to be a certain resemblance between the descriptions of the two writers. Both travelled in tents provided by the Sultan, both were received at the entrance to a new department by troops of wild horsemen firing blank cartridges at them; while the *mouna*, or provisions, were everywhere supplied as a compulsory tribute of respect by the rulers of every camping-station.

In the matter of style, however, there is a great difference between the two writers, De Amicis's forte being bold *al fresco* painting, while Pierre Loti excels in minute realistic touches, and often succeeds in bringing a scene most vividly before the eyes in a single sentence. Better than any other writer on "the China of the West," he succeeds in making the reader realize the mediæval and worse than mediæval condition of the African Northwest, where there are no roads, no bridges, no taverns, where the streets are sewers, where women are treated as masked prisoners, and Jews worse, and where religious fanaticism is so rampant that a "Nazarene" takes his life in his hands if he visits any part of the country except Tangier and Tetuan. Tangier, where the foreign consuls and ambassadors reside, is considered an "infidel" city by the natives of Morocco. On coming to it from Spain, it seems so odd and so African that one imagines himself in the centre of Africa. Yet, as compared with Fez, Tangier seems quite Parisian, and after a week spent in Fez, Pierre Loti felt that same irresistible longing to get back into the world that was described by De Amicis, and which makes it impossible for ambassadors and other "Nazarenes" to remain in that city.

Worse even than Fez is one of the Sultan's other capitals, Mequinez, of which a most gruesome and realistic description is given in this volume. As the party on arriving there had not yet been provided with the Sultan's permission to enter, they were compelled to camp outside the city, and the place assigned them was discovered in the morning to be a cemetery. An escort of eighty men was sent out to guard them, for the region is so infested by robbers belonging to unsubdued tribes that the city itself has not been safe from their attacks even in the daytime. Painful pictures are drawn of the filth and poverty and misery of the natives, of old women kneeling among the mules and picking up stray kernels of oats, or bones and worse refuse. Morocco, nevertheless, is a most fertile country, with a vast amount of good agricultural land, which needs only tillage, and Government protection for the farmers, to become a granary for the whole of Europe; but their religion does not allow the inhabitants to benefit by the sale of grain to foreigners. With all these drawbacks, our author found nature and life in Morocco so fascinating that he confesses that, personally, he "would rather be the most holy Caliph than president of the most parliamentary, most literary, most industrious of republics. The lowest of camel-drivers, even, who, his courses in the desert ended, lies down and dies in the bright sunlight some fine day, extending his confiding hands in prayer to Allah, seems to me to have had by far the better part than the laborer in the great European workshop, be he diplomat or be he stoker, who ends his martyrdom of toil and covetousness in blaspheming upon his bed."

The Way Out of Agnosticism; or, The Philosophy of Free Religion. By Francis Ellingwood Abbot, Ph.D. Pp. 75. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1890.

Dr. Abbot, in this little volume, sounds the tocsin much as an orthodox theologian would do, and it is a very interesting spectacle to see liberalism taking alarm at its own progress. Still, the present case may only be one of those very common occurrences in which the individual has either not seen the consequences of his original doctrine, or has taken fright at them and beats a retreat. Certainly the spirit of the book is reactionary and conservative to an extent not expected of a man who has all his life clamored for a "free religion." Dr. Abbot is disturbed by the progress of agnosticism, and writes this summary of his lectures at Harvard to help the student out of this presumably unpromising philosophy. The "way out," when sifted down to its real meaning, is simply "feeling," which is to stick to certain time-honored beliefs—no matter what facts, science, and the limits of human knowledge may say about our inability to take a rational attitude towards them one way or the other.

It is a true instinct which leads the author to single out 'Robert Elsmere' and 'John Ward, Preacher' as representatives of the great struggle going on between reason and emotion, whenever religious problems are discussed; but he fails to remark that if religion is a "feeling," an emotion, or an intuition, a philosophy can never supply it where it is wanting. Those who are *in* agnosticism generally remain there, and those who come *out* of it generally defy the philosophy which tries to hold them in doubt, and so decide their convictions by sheer force of will. They think they have found a rational basis for their beliefs; but if their reasoning were examined, it would be found either to contain a material fallacy, or to have been adopted as the only way to satisfy the feelings.

The book is commendable for its earnestness and for the moral ideals in which it springs and which it fosters. But this apology does not require us to recognize the assumption that the only way into religion and out of existing agnosticism is the adoption of a philosophy. There are two fundamental truths here which the author does not perceive. The first is, that religion comes by insight, if it ever comes at all; and the second is, that philosophy does less to supply new truth than to supervene upon knowledge already acquired. These prevent it from ever being a condition of the beliefs which Dr. Abbot labors so strenuously to defend.

The Prose Writings of Thomas Davis. Edited, with an introduction, by T. W. Rolleston. London: Walter Scott.

This volume consists for the most part of short articles contributed half-a-century ago to Irish periodicals. None but writings by authors of the first ability, whose genius elevates their work above the passing circumstances of their time, would merit or bear such republication. There was a high and a pure purpose in what Davis wrote, but we cannot agree with the editor that there was in either his prose or his poetry, upon the whole, a higher and a wider spirit apparent than that which animates the present Irish movement. It was possible for Davis and his associates to put forward an ideal standard, because they were not brought face to face with the actual necessity of doing and accomplishing something in action. It is little wonder that there was small space left for poetry in the movement for the redress of the land grievances of Ireland, which, forty years after Davis's time, had to grapple with forty years' additional complications. And as the outcome of that movement, there appears to us arising a much higher ideal of union and of friendship between Great Britain and Ireland than was ever dreamt of by the author of these essays—essays whose interest and value for the most part lie in the revelation they afford of a state of feeling in Ireland which has largely passed away, and of hopes and anticipations which have not been realized, but which have been replaced by higher and wider ideals. The influence of Carlyle is apparent throughout the pages of the book before us.

Idle Musings: Essays in Social Mosaic. By E. Conder Gray. London: William Heinemann. 1890.

This collection of social essays belongs to the class of light editorial articles which are generally to be found in English weeklies; they are light subjects lightly handled. The opening group, upon Falling in Love and other topics of the marriage-state, on the male woman and the female man, serves as a type of the whole. The only unusual trait is the illustration of the characters dealt with by means of extracts from novels such as Mrs. Oliphant's and Mrs. Wood's; in this way a "mosaic" is easily made of commonplace reflections, apt quotations from well-known moralists, and a page or two of fiction. The range afforded by marriage being once exhausted, the author betakes himself to such material as Luck, Falling in Love with One's Work, Making the Best of Things, and the miscellaneous etcetera of which these are examples. He writes easily and agreeably, and except that he does not use anecdote to the degree which it is capable of in such chapters of manners and morals, he employs the resources of the idling littérateur with much felicity.

An International Idiom. A Manual of the Oregon Trade Language or Chinook Jargon. By Horatio Hale. London: Whittaker & Co. 1890. Sm. 8vo, vi., 63 pp.

In nearly all cases where commerce has sprung up between two nations having languages dis-

tinct in grammar and vocabulary, the necessities of the situation have led to the adoption of a jargon, *lingua franca*, or business language, for purposes of trade. Such are the "pidgin (business) English" of China, the Chinook jargon of the northwest coast of America, and the jargons in use by the whalers and traders in communicating with the Chukchi and Eskimo peoples on either shore of Bering Strait, and by these latter with each other. Such artificial languages have become permanent only in cases where one or both parties using them have not been numbered among civilized nations, and yet were too numerous or sturdy to disappear rapidly when brought into contact with aliens. That a jargon should be capable of pronunciation with clearness by both parties using it is obviously one condition of its existence. This leads to the elimination of all incompatible sounds from the words of either language which may be incorporated in it. A second condition is, that it shall be easily learned, and that a few words by compounding shall be made to express a variety of meanings. This leads to the elimination of inflections, conjugations, and declensions—in short, to the greatest possible simplification of grammatic forms. The words are derived from the languages of the traders concerned; the grammar, such as it is, has often little in common with either.

In the Bering Strait jargon the nouns are drawn from the Eskimo, English, Russian, and Hawaiian languages, and on the Asiatic side the Chukchi tongue contributes its share. A smaller number of words arise by onomatopœia. The verbs on the American side were formerly largely of Russian derivation, but, with the increase in American trade since the transfer of Alaska to the United States, many English verbs have been added to or have supplanted the others. In the case of the Chinook jargon, American traders in the last century began the work on the Northwest coast. Here the native languages were numerous, very local, harsh and complex. As the harbor of Nootka was the headquarters of the traffic, some words of the Nootka dialect became known to the traders, while a few English words were rapidly picked up by the natives. As trade spread to other parts of the coast, the traders naturally tried to communicate with the aborigines by means of the words which they had used at Nootka. The Chinooks soon acquired these words, both Nootka and English, and as early as 1804 they were found in use by the expedition of Lewis and Clarke to the mouth of the Columbia River. To these the English and Canadian French voyageurs of the Hudson Bay Company added others, and the Chinook dialect was drawn upon for numerals, some pronouns, adverbs, and prepositions.

The first scientific record of this jargon was made by the author of this volume as a member of Wilkes's expedition in 1841, when the total number of words was found to be about two hundred and fifty. Of these, eighteen were of Nootkan origin, forty-one English, thirty-four French, one hundred and eleven Chinook, ten onomatopoetic, and some thirty-eight of doubtful origin. The vocabulary of the language continued to develop. In 1863 the "Dictionary" of George Gibbs comprised nearly five hundred words. Those of Chinook origin had nearly, and those of French had more than, doubled, while some thirty-nine had been added from the Flathead dialects. Since that time the language has not materially changed; its use has widely extended, and numerous vocabularies have been printed. One issued at Victoria, in 1887, had reached its sixth edition, which proves the continued and widespread use of this international speech. There can be no doubt that it will remain a living and useful language as long as the native tribes continue to speak their own dialects. In British Columbia and southeastern Alaska it is the prevailing means of communication between whites and natives. These Indian tribes do not seem likely to die out. The jargon is in use for missionary purposes; hymns and sermons have been printed in it, so that it is beginning to possess a literature, and Dr. Hale finds reason to believe that it will still have its office to fulfil among the many-languaged tribes of this region for hundreds and perhaps thousands of years to come.

This little treatise was originally designed to form part of a larger work now deferred. It comprises a complete grammar and dictionary, with specimens of colloquial and narrative phrases, songs, hymns, a sermon, etc. That all this can be comprised in so small a space, for a language current among people in all stages of civilization, speaking more than twenty distinct languages, and diffused over a territory nearly half as large as Europe, seems marvellous indeed.

It is not necessary to state that the work has been performed in a manner commensurate with the reputation of the author. Even those who are not professed philologists will find the account of the formation and construction of the jargon interesting reading. The publishers have presented the volume in handy and attractive form, and it will no doubt have a wide field of usefulness.

The Syntax and Idioms of Hindûstânî, etc. By M. Kempson, M.A. London: W. H. Allen & Co. 1890.

We have already had occasion, in Nos. 1028 and 1130 of the *Nation*, to appraise excellent work done by Mr. Kempson, both as a translator and as an editor, in connection with Hindûstânî. And quite as helpful towards assisting the acquirement of that language as anything which he has previously published, is the admirable treatise now before us. Among the kindred guides which have preceded it, one or two are by no means wanting in merit; but, with all their laudable points, they must now count on being wholly superseded. Only by the aids which such scholars as Mr. Platts and Mr. Kempson have furnished can the student, if debarred access to the oral instruction of a native of Northern India, satisfactorily pick his way through a single page of any Hindûstânî book written within the last half century. Alike in vocabulary, in phraseology, and in grammar, to such an extent does the Hindûstânî of our time differ from that which was exhibited by Gilchrist and his immediate successors, as, indeed, to go far to constitute a new language. English anterior, by however short an interval, to that of Sir Philip Sidney was, in Dr. Johnson's estimation, little better than a jargon of barbarians; and yet, spelling apart, far less unlike it is English as now current than is the Hindûstânî of the present day to that of two or three generations ago. It is well-nigh solely as a medium of communication, and all but inappreciably for its literature, that any one busies himself to learn Hindûstânî; and every facility for learning it in its latest modification is now available. To enable the student to dispense with the offices of a teacher, Mr. Kempson announces that a key to the exercises embodied in his new work is in preparation. It will be very welcome.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aldrich, Anne R. The Feet of Love. Worthington Co.
Bazán, Emilia P. Russia: Its People and its Literature. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Bigot, Mme. A Foreign Match. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Burckhardt, J. The Civilization of the Renaissance in Italy. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Burnham, Clara L. The Mistress of Beech Knoll. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Douglass, Mrs. R. D. A Romance at the Antipodes. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Finerty, J. F. War-Path and Bivouac; or, The Conquest of the Sioux. Chicago.
Flammarion, C. Uranie. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Gildersleeve, Prof. B. L. Essays and Studies. Educational and Literary. Baltimore: N. Murray.
Gosse, E. Robert Browning: Personalia. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
Gray, Rev. G. Z. The Church's Certain Faith. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Green, W. S. Among the Selkirk Glaciers. Macmillan & Co. $2.25.
Griffis, Rev. W. E. Matthew Calbraith Perry. New ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Griswold, W. M. Autoren- und Sachregister zu den bedeutendsten Deutschen Zeitschriften, 1886-1889, und zu verschiedenen Sammlungen. Cambridge, Mass.: W. M. Griswold.
Hall, H. Society in the Elizabethan Age. 3d ed. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Hall, W. E. Treatise on International Law. 3d ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Hammond, Dr. W. A. Lal: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Harte, Bret. A Waif of the Plains. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Hay, John. Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Higbee, D. In God's Country. Belford Co. 50 cents.
Hopkins, Rev. J. H. Articles on Romanism. Thomas Whittaker. $1.
Horton, S. D. Silver in Europe. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
How Shall We Revise the Westminster Confession of Faith? Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Jackson, Julia Newell. A Winter Holiday in Summer Lands. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Jewett, Sarah O. Tales of New England. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Jerome, J. K. The Idle Thoughts of an Idle Fellow. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus.
Landor, W. S. Pericles and Aspasia. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co.
Lang, A. Old Friends: Essays in Epistolary Parody. Longmans, Green & Co.
Le Strange, G. Palestine under the Moslems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Mahan, Capt. A. T. The Influence of Sea Power upon History. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $4.
Mason, E. G. Early Chicago and Illinois. Chicago: Fergus Printing Co.
Morfill, W. R. The Story of Russia. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Noll, A. H. A Short History of Mexico. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
O'Brien, W. When We Were Boys. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Parville, H. de. L'Exposition Universelle. Paris: J. Rothschild. $1.50.
Perry, B. The Broughton House. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Phelps, Elizabeth S., and Ward, H. D. The Master of the Magicians. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Pierce, E. S. Poems of the Turf, and Other Ballads. Buffalo: Wenborne-Sumner Co. $2.
Raleigh, T. An Outline of the Law of Property. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Renan, E. L'Avenir de la Science. 3d ed. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Westermann.
Rowell, J. C. Library of the University of California: Contents-Index. Vol. I. Berkeley, Cal.

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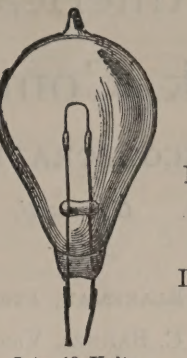

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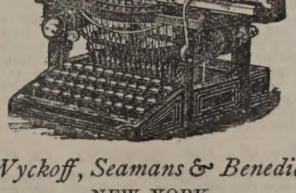

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 22, 1890.

The Week.

THE silver debate in the Senate has been submerged by the two-days' speech of Senator Jones, and dwarfed by the more interesting events taking place in the House. Nevertheless, it is necessary to take some notice of it. The drift of things is towards free coinage, pure and simple. This is the reason, undoubtedly, why Senator Sherman gave utterance on Friday to a lot of sayings that he must know to be unsound and economically untrue. When that distinguished and enlightened statesman tells us that the Government ought to furnish the people more money, and that he would vote to buy every ounce of silver produced in this country, and keep it in the Treasury vaults and issue legal-tender certificates on it, he is not telling what he believes to be good financial policy, but what he conceives to be good politics. He is trying to save the party, just as he tried to save it twenty-two years ago by telling the people of Ohio that Government bonds were rightfully payable in greenbacks. The danger to the party was greater then than it is now, yet the party was saved by rejecting Mr. Sherman's advice and adopting the contrary policy of declaring the bonds payable in coin only. The St. Paul *Pioneer Press*, a paper of as good standing in party journalism as Mr. Sherman is in party politics, holds that it is better to face the music and "have it out" now, than to adopt any more roundabout measures like issuing $4,500,000 certificates per month in bullion and making the certificates legal tender or redeemable in silver dollars. We admire courage, and we admire truth even more. The *Pioneer Press* has displayed both qualities in the stand it has taken, but it is too much to expect Mr. Sherman to borrow anything from such an example. To Senator Teller and all the silverites we say: "Leave your damnable faces and begin." Bring on the Free-Coinage Bill, if you have votes enough, and then let President Harrison sign it or veto it, according to his mood.

The Philadelphia *Ledger* justly characterizes the Bayne-Bynum affair in the House of Representatives on Saturday as a disgrace to both parties and also to the House itself. Mr. Bayne "began it" when he put into the *Congressional Record* a letter from a private citizen named Campbell applying abusive epithets to Mr. Bynum. Undoubtedly the provocation to Campbell was great, but that was not Mr. Bayne's business. He had no right to draw the dispute or quarrel of Campbell in an offensive way into the proceedings of the House. Having done so, he might naturally expect to hear from Bynum, who has a rough side to his tongue. Mr. Bynum's tongue in this case was even rougher than the occasion called for. An uproar followed that has not been surpassed in vehemence and passion since the days of slavery, and finally Mr. Bynum was censured by a party vote, which under the circumstances is no censure at all —that is, no moral censure, since he is sustained by his own side of the House, and would not be less thought of by his constituents if he were censured in the same way forty times. Such an affair simply deprives the censure of the House of any punitive effect, and that is itself a loss to the House and to the nation.

It ought to require very few incidents like the acquittal of the Pittsburgh glass-men last week to convince workingmen the country over how little real regard for their interest is felt by the men who champion a protective tariff. Even while the Republicans in Washington, high and low, are excusing higher duties on the ground that they are in the interest of better wages for American workmen, the trial of violators of the Contract Labor Law is allowed to result in an acquittal almost by default. It is not disputed that the by-laws of the International Federation of Window-Glass-Workers contain an agreement that all foreign members of the Association coming to this country shall be given work. The profits of the Pittsburgh glass-manufacturers, protected, were so immense that new factories were built, and foreign laborers were brought over to run them. It was to test the status of these laborers that the trial was had. After a spiritless prosecution of the case, the court ruled that no contract had been proved. It is a matter of notoriety in both Washington and Pittsburgh that this result was foreordained by Quay. Campbell was one of the leaders of the Glass-Workers' Association who took the stump for "Harrison and Protection," and he and his associates succeeded in giving the vote of the glass-workers almost as a body to the Republican ticket. Quay is not a man to forget such a service; and when Campbell found himself a defendant, it is stated on good authority that Quay interceded personally with Attorney-General Miller in the defendant's behalf. As only this charge stood between Campbell and a Federal office, it is to be presumed that he will now press on Quay and Harrison the entire fulfilment of their campaign obligations. The Democrats ought to find excellent campaign material in this case, all the facts of which have not yet been made public.

We implore our "picturesque" contemporary, Mr. Murat Halstead (he applied the designation "picturesque" to himself in his testimony before the Ballot-Box Investigating Committee at Washington), not to bring to the City of Churches the kind of morality that he sends by telegraph to the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette*. Speaking westwardly, Mr. Halstead says of the Quay scandal:

> "We have not been able to read the whole story about Col. Quay, but as the case emerges from the fog of accusation and we catch its outlines as sailors on an ocean steamer see and feel an iceberg at about the same second, Quay is charged with having left the funds of Pennsylvania intact, and to have had Senator Don Cameron behind him in doing it. Every guilty dollar was there. But they say there was a time when there was an empty compartment in the Treasury. Whether the real offence was in taking or returning the money we have not seen stated with the close attention to accuracy in the specifications that we desire before making up the final verdict."

Really, if this is the sort of moral science that is to glow in the columns of the Brooklyn *Standard-Union*, it will need a new editor soon. Col. McKelway, in his speech at the Lotus Club banquet Saturday evening, said that that unfortunate paper had had thirty-two editors-in-chief in twenty-seven years.

The Chicago *Tribune*, oddly enough, denounces the Copyright Bill, and rejoices over its defeat in the most uncompromising terms. In its last article on the subject, it contends that it is right to continue our robbing of British authors because they rob us, a doctrine which, if clung to tenaciously by mankind, would have prevented the formation of civilized communities. Also, that the Adams bill ought not to pass because it gives the "monopoly" of our markets to the owners of the foreign books sold in them, the writer forgetting that he has himself the monopoly of his own clothing, and that every owner of property has and must have a monopoly in it; forgetting, too, that foreign nations give our authors the very monopoly we offered theirs in our bill. Also, because it would prevent "the masses having cheap reading," forgetting that the institution of property makes all portable articles somewhat dearer than they would be in a state of nature. The police and the courts in Chicago both raise the price of watches to the masses. If they were abolished, watches would for a short period rule very low in that city. The writer also says that "the masses do not propose to pay three prices for their literature," which is exactly what the thieves say about watches and silverware. All theft is, in the last analysis, a question of price. There is hardly any article which any thief would not sooner buy than steal if he could get it at a price that would suit him. The *Tribune* closes with the remark:

> "Western members will do well to remember that the George E. Adams bill confers no copyright on American authors in England, and to remember that in legislation, as in everything else, charity begins at home."

This is either the product of ignorance or something worse. The English international copyright acts were passed for the express purpose of securing reciprocity, empowering the Crown to enter into conventions for that purpose with any State giving copyright to English authors. Conventions under these acts have been concluded with nearly all European States. The United States are the only great civilized Power which stands aloof, and which has educated citizens who are not ashamed of it.

There was a curious sort of hearing before the Committee on Ways and Means last week,

when representatives of the Farmers' Alliance presented and seriously advocated a measure which proposes that the Government shall erect warehouses and receive therein wheat, corn, oats, tobacco, and cotton from the producers thereof, and advance 80 per cent. of the value thereof in cash. The "national lecturer" says that since these articles cannot be protected effectively by the tariff, this is the only way in which Governmental help can reach the great bulk of the farming class. The farmer, he says, is obliged to sell his crop as soon as it is harvested. He cannot wait. If the Government would advance him 80 per cent. of the value of his crop, he could hold it till prices became satisfactory. The cost of warehouses to hold the products would not, he thinks, be above $16,000,000, and this is a mere bagatelle as things are now going. When Mr. Flower asked him why the measure included only oats, wheat, corn, tobacco, and cotton, excluding wool, hops, rice, and cheese, he had the ready answer that "these other staples were protected by a high tariff, 75 per cent. on wool alone." That was a knock-down argument, not to Mr. Flower perhaps, but to McKinley and his faction. We trust that the national lecturer will persevere. He has just as good a right to governmental assistance as any manufacturer, or wool-grower, or hop-grower, or sugar-grower, or ship-owner; and if circumstances are such that he cannot get it by means of the tariff, he has a perfect right to "demand" it in some other way.

The Supreme Court has put a final extinguisher on the Minnesota Dressed-Beef Law, and the terms of the decision apply to all similar laws, and ought to extend to the oleomargarine laws also, in so far as they seek to prevent the importation of a wholesome article of food from one State into another. "It is one thing," says the Court, "for a State to exclude altogether from its limits cattle, sheep, or swine actually diseased, or meats that by reason of their condition or the condition of the animals from which they are taken, are unfit for human food, and punish all sales of such animals or of such meat within its limits It is quite another thing for a State to declare, as does Minnesota by the necessary operation of its statute, that fresh beef, veal, mutton, lamb, or pork—articles that are used in every part of this country to support human life—shall not be sold at all for human food within its limits unless the animal from which such meats are taken is inspected in that State, or, as is practically said, unless the animal is slaughtered in that State." The Minnesota law is declared to be unconstitutional, null and void, as it had been previously by one of the State courts and also by the United States District Court of Minnesota. This is decisive upon one point of the protective-tariff doctrine. It decides that protection shall be restricted to foreign trade and shall not exist among the States. There are still some traces of protection in State laws. Pennsylvania, for example, protects her own insurance companies against the competition of other States. When this meanness comes before the Supreme Court (as it will), it will probably be cast out as summarily as the Minnesota home butchers' law has been.

The immense appropriations already mad for pensions, and the enormous additions to the roll which are now demanded by the demagogues and claim-agents, could be justified only upon the ground that the ex-Union soldiers are an exceptionally helpless and inefficient class of men. But this is not the truth. On the contrary, Congressman Cutcheon of Michigan, himself a gallant soldier, only stated what every impartial person believes to be the fact, when he declared that his comrades are, as a rule, better off than the mass of their fellow-citizens. "In my own Grand Army post at home," he said, during a recent speech in Congress, "are many of the leading business men of the community. There are among them lawyers, physicians, merchants, capitalists, lumbermen, machinists, farmers, real-estate owners and operators, municipal and county officers. In fact, I seriously doubt if an equal number of men can be found in the community, except by careful selection, that would embrace a better average of wealth and comfort in my city [Manistee, Mich.] than the members of the Grand Army post." Equally emphatic testimony is borne by the ex-Union soldier who edits the *Times* of Chattanooga, Tenn. "The soldiers of the Union army in the civil war," he says, "have among them a larger number of self-sustaining and prosperous citizens than any other 600,000 or 700,000 of the whole population. They are found in all the walks of life, political, industrial, educational; and the number who succeed is conclusive testimony of good character, industry, sobriety, brains, and pluck. There are at least 1,000 ex-Union soldiers in Chattanooga and vicinity, and they are among our best and most successful citizens."

People in this part of the country cannot be expected to take much interest in the supplanting of the present Republican Congressman for the Sixth Kansas District by a new man in the recent nominating convention; but an incidental comment upon the occurrence by a representative Republican newspaper of the State is full of significance. "The failure to renominate Congressman Turner," says the Topeka *Capital*, "will be a disappointment to his friends, who justly consider that he has made as useful and creditable a Representative as a member can make in so large and exalted a body as the national House in so short a time. Mr. Turner has served his constituents and his State ably and faithfully, and would, in all human probability, have been renominated *but for the unfortunate tide of financial distress which has swept over the country* and rendered the path of the legislator extremely hazardous and his future doubtful." A tide of financial distress sweeping over the country under a Republican administration elected upon a high-tariff platform—what does this mean?

It will surprise nobody to learn from Mr. Clarkson's mouth that he has a low opinion of civil-service reform. His conduct as First Assistant Postmaster-General in "beating the record" as a remover of postmasters was sufficient evidence on that point. He says that, in his opinion, the Government of the United States is a "political, not a business machine"; that the "genius of our political progress lies in the active interest taken in our Government by the people"; that "to keep the people active their personal individual interest must be kept aroused," and that if they are taught to "consider that there is not only public but personal advantage to be gained, they will work, and for working they will be rewarded." That is to say, every man should be led to believe that if he works for the party, he can get an office after election. In order for Clarkson's plan to work well in practice, the number of Government offices would have to be increased to at least 5,000,000. When that was done, the President would be obliged to devote all his time to office distribution, instead of nearly all of it as at present. Clarkson would have all the incumbents turned out every four years, and a new lot put in, for he says: "I believe that continued service in the Government employ is bad for any man, and after a certain period all the public servants should be sent back to the people to renew themselves."

These are the utterances of a Department official of the Republican Administration which came into power only a little more than a year ago under a solemn pledge that "the spirit and purpose of civil-service reform should be observed in all Executive appointments," and that "all laws at variance with the object of existing reform legislation should be repealed, to the end that the *dangers to free institutions which lurk in the power of official patronage* may be wisely and effectually avoided." Mr. Clarkson's contemptuous disregard of the pledge is only more open and oral than that of his superior officer, Mr. Wanamaker, and of the President himself as well. They do not talk as he does, but they sustain his most indefensible acts, and commit others equally indefensible. Clarkson's impudence is without limit. He even has the brass to say that the "business of our Government is transacted more accurately and at a lower percentage of loss than any other public or any private business in existence, and why? Because of the fact that there is rotation in office." That is merely the old-time argument against civil-service reform, "Ours is the best civil service on the planet," with an extension to private business. Clarkson has not a particle of evidence to bring forward in support of it, for we doubt if he has any knowledge whatever of the civil service of other countries; but he is too intelligent a man to believe it himself for a moment.

The prompt nomination of Edwin Stewart as Paymaster-General of the Navy, which the President made last week, is one of his very best. Mr. Stewart's long service has been

unusually varied and extremely creditable, both ashore and afloat. He served through the war, and has since been on duty in the Brooklyn Navy-yard and in the Navy Pay Office in this city as Pay Inspector. The resignation of Paymaster-General Looker brought him the rank of Pay Director, and from this he has been taken to fill Looker's place, which is the highest in this branch of the service; and we believe it is conceded by all who know Mr. Stewart that a better selection could not have been made, though he goes up over many heads. President Harrison has not distinguished himself, in our estimation, as a seeker after merit for high places, but in this case at least he has managed to put the right man in the right place.

The President has sent a message to Congress recommending an appropriation of money to make surveys for an international railroad to the several capitals of South America. "The creation of new and improved steamship lines," he says, "undoubtedly furnishes the readiest means of developing an increased trade with the *Latin-American* (*sic*) nations. But it should not be forgotten that it is possible to travel by land from Washington to the southernmost capital of South America, and that the opening of railroad communication with these friendly States will give to them and to us facilities for intercourse and the exchange of trade that are of special value." At the very time when this message, intended to develop increased trade with the "Latin-American" nations, was received, the House was voting to restrict, curtail, and cut off a large and flourishing trade already existing with one of them, namely, the trade in silver-lead ores from Mexico. Surely we are not suffering for railroads to countries that we are not willing to trade with after we get them.

Many American cities have had queer Mayoral experiences, but Cedar Keys in Florida has had the queerest of all. Two or three years ago a "young feller" named Cottrell turned up as a candidate for the office in that city. As nobody knew much about him, nobody knew anything against him, and the account he gave of himself was doubtless very encouraging. He told the leading citizens that if "he did not make a good Mayor, it would be because he did not know how"—a species of *reductio ad absurdum* which they all appreciated highly. It was preposterous, they said, to suppose that he did not know how to be a good Mayor, and therefore it was certain that a good Mayor he would be. When installed, he got his old cronies around him in spite of promises to surround himself with eminent citizens, and appointed as Marshal a huge ruffian, and then began to have some fun. He was, during most of his first term, more or less drunk, and while in that state he and the Marshal displayed much eccentricity. He used to make large negroes strip to the waist and butt their heads against each other, under the compulsion of a cocked revolver. He threatened the lives of a great many people, robbed several others, threatened to horsewhip a minister and his wife, and he and his Marshal compelled most of the men of the town to go armed whenever they walked the streets; in fact, had a glorious frolic. When his term expired, however, he was reëlected, some said in order to vindicate him, and others because everybody was afraid to vote against him. His second term was rather worse than the first. He had far more fun. He committed more outrages on whites and made more negroes butt heads. The Governor was appealed to in vain. Finally the United States were asked to capture him and restore order. The guns of the revenue cutter were brought to bear on him, on seeing which he fled with his faithful Marshal to the swamps, pursued by a detachment of blue-jackets and marines, and has not been caught at this writing.

The *Tribune's* despatch says:

"The town rid of the Mayor and the burly Town Marshal, Cottrell's chum, the people breathe easy and sleep pleasantly, and appear cheerful when on the street. A prominent citizen said that if they were assured Cottrell would never return, real estate would advance 25 per cent. in a year or two. The churches will be open next Sunday for divine service and thanksgiving. The absent pastors will return to their respective churches, now assured that Cottrell and the Town Marshal are gone not to return. The stores are all open. The Collector of Customs and Postmaster, and other Federal Government employees walk the streets now as they would in any other well-governed city. The change in the people and place is like a magic dream."

The citizens are also looking into the Mayor's record now, which they had previously avoided from motives of delicacy and through fear of "hurting the party," and find that he at one time killed his brother-in-law, and had, when he left, eight indictments pending against him. We feel sure that after this cities will be more careful in employing mayors of whom they know nothing, and who bring no references from their last places. But what funny recollections Cottrell and the Marshal will have of the last city they governed. We hope they are not coming up this way, for we are very susceptible to Mayoral blandishments.

Noting a remark that Mr. Cleveland is "one of the inevitable candidates for 1892," the *Tribune* observes: "Yes, and there will be the same inevitable feature about his canvass that there was in 1888: he'll get left." You seem to forget, esteemed one, that in the words of your own memorable Confession of Feb. 14, 1890, the "inevitable feature" of the election of 1888 consisted in the fact that, "as people here well know, Hill succeeded only because he was able to sell a Presidency for a Governorship." Now, you must know that Hill will not be in the market with a Presidency or anything else to sell to the Republicans in 1892. His term will expire in 1891, and his successor will have to be elected in November of that year. You will see, therefore, that you are in error in saying that "there will be the same inevitable feature about the canvass [of 1892] that there was in 1888." It may be that the Republicans will be able to buy the Presidency again in that year—you are in better position to speak on that point than we are; but you must admit that they will not be able to buy it of Hill.

Gov. Hill has signed the act which forbids a "public officer, or a deputy, clerk, assistant, or other subordinate of a public officer, or any person appointed or employed by or in the office of a public officer," to receive "any emolument, gratuity, or reward or any promise of emolument, gratuity, or reward, or any money, property, or thing of value or of personal advantage, except such as may be authorized by law, for doing or omitting to do any official act, or for performing or omitting to perform or for having performed or omitted to perform any act whatsoever directly or indirectly related to any matter in respect to which any duty or discretion is by or in pursuance of law imposed upon or vested in him." Violation of this act will be adjudged a felony, punishable by imprisonment for not more than ten years, or by a fine not exceeding $4,000, or by both. If this law had been in force since 1884, the Mayor and seven other Tammany men would now be in grave peril of fine and imprisonment, the Mayor for taking illegal auctioneer's and "extra-compensation" fees as Sheriff, and "Barney" Martin and other Sheriff's deputies for exacting illegal fees from the occupants of Ludlow Street Jail. Both the Governor and the Legislature, in uniting for the enactment of the new law, have passed judgment upon the Mayor and his fellow-Tammany officials, declaring their acts to be of such indefensible character as to require legal prohibition under heavy penalties of fine and imprisonment.

The Grand Jury has found indictments against all three members of the Board of Excise, Mayor Grant's appointees, for wilful breach of official duty, an offence which is a misdemeanor, and the penalty for which is imprisonment in a penitentiary or county jail for not more than one year, or a fine of not more than $500, or both. With the conviction of Barker, the Thirteenth District Tammany leader, for assault, and with the indictment of seven other Tammany officials, who only escaped trial by the statute of limitations, this indictment of the three Excise Commissioners furnishes the city with the astonishing spectacle of ten of its governing class for whom the "penitentiary is yawning." As a final touch to the picture, one of the Excise Commissioners, Koch, was literally roaring drunk when he appeared in court to answer to the indictment! And this is government in the foremost city of America, in the latter part of the nineteenth century, by a Mayor whom we came very near having at the head of a World's Fair organized for the purpose of displaying the greatness and glory of American institutions as they have been built up during the 400 years which have followed the discovery by Columbus!

PARTY AND OTHER MORALITY.

MANY good people, including some religious papers, are much troubled, and very naturally, over the display of immorality made by members of both parties in the House in the vote on the International Copyright Bill, and above all in the arguments used against the bill. These arguments would indeed have been very shocking if we were not used to them. This discussion over international copyright has now been going on for half-a-century, and the pros and cons of the question have been thoroughly canvassed. It may be said that, as a rule, all intelligent Americans who acknowledge that there is such a thing as literary property at all, have ranged themselves on the side of those who are willing to provide legal protection for the foreign author in this country, in return for similar protection for our authors in foreign countries. A very marked feature in the controversy has been the increasingly prominent part which the question of right or wrong, as distinguished from the mere question of commercial expediency, has been made to play in it. In other words, international copyright has, as the years have gone by, been more and more urged on the ground that the publication and sale of an author's works, without his consent and without paying him any compensation, by another person for the purpose of making money by it, is theft or fraud in the sense in which these offences are forbidden in the commandment, "Thou shalt not steal."

The answer usually made to this by the opponents of international copyright is, that to give the foreign author property in his books on this side of the water would make them dearer, and that cheap books are so important for the American people that it is lawful to steal them from a foreigner, if they cannot be got cheap in any other way. It has been, in fact, maintained in terms, that it is far more important that an American should be well read and intelligent than that he should be honest. One member, in the late debate, told with pride a story of his having himself paid nine dollars a volume for the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' when it first came out, a work requiring an immense expenditure of brains and capital, for which the publishers paid American and British authors equally. Going to spend the night at the house of a farmer friend in Illinois some time later, he found on his shelves a pirated edition which came from Philadelphia and only cost $2.25 a volume. On this he (Mr. Payson) made the astonishing comment:

> "But there, sir, in an humble home in my county, in the sitting-room of an humble farmer, is a library in itself, made possible by the laws under which you and I live, and I am content with them. [Applause.] I am just now advised that a reprint of that work is out at $1.25 per volume. And so with other books."

This is exactly what a Norse statesman in the ninth century might have said after passing a night in a farm-house on one of the fjords, and having seen it filled with rich plunder from the coasts of Britain and France. "Thank God," he would observe, "under the laws and customs of our happy country, when the poor husbandman wants a new set of furniture and some ornaments for his bride, he can man his galley and run across the sea, and slaughter a Saxon family, and fit up his humble home with comfort and decency from the sack of their house; and yet there are canting rascals who say piracy is wrong."

No one can read such a speech as this of Mr. Payson's without feeling that there exists among men professing the Christian faith in the United States a moral separation of a very serious kind, which now shows itself most markedly in politics, but cannot exist in politics very long without making its way into business and other fields, and which needs prompt attention on the part of those who consider themselves the guardians of morals. How serious it is, cannot be better illustrated than by a quotation from Senator Ingalls of Kansas. He said not long ago to a reporter of the *World*, in an interview illustrated by instantaneous photographs of his various positions when speaking:

> "The purification of politics is an iridescent dream. Government is force. Politics is a battle for supremacy. Parties are the armies. The decalogue and the golden rule have no place in a political campaign. The object is success. To defeat the antagonist and expel the party in power is the purpose. The Republicans and Democrats are as irreconcilably opposed to each other as were Grant and Lee in the Wilderness. They use ballots instead of guns, but the struggle is as unrelenting and desperate and the result sought for the same. In war it is lawful to deceive the adversary, to hire Hessians, to purchase mercenaries, to mutilate, to kill, to destroy. The commander who lost a battle through the activity of his moral nature would be the derision and jest of history. This modern cant about the corruption of politics is fatiguing in the extreme. It proceeds from the tea-custard and syllabub dilettanteism, the frivolous and desultory sentimentalism of epicenes."

Now, this man is in our estimation a thorough charlatan. Intellectually he is unworthy of the smallest consideration. He has made no mark whatever as a legislator, nor has he made the smallest contribution to the political thought of the country. He is very foul-mouthed in debate, and is more than suspected of having bought his seat in the Senate. What he most prides himself upon, and oftenest refers to boastfully, is his sex, a quality which, of course, he shares with half the animal kingdom. But our opinion of him is by no means the general one. He has been elected three times by a Republican State to the United States Senate, and has been repeatedly—the last time very recently—elected President of the Senate by the Republican majority. Consequently he may be said to stand for his party very markedly. We commend him and his talk to the serious consideration of those who are troubled on moral grounds by the action of the House on the Copyright Bill. The more they ponder it, the more suggestive they will find it.

INTERNATIONAL BOYCOTTING.

THE London *Speaker* has an article on the recent defeat of the Copyright Bill in the House of Representatives, which proposes to mark the English sense of the dishonesty of the performance, and to punish the majority who voted against the bill, in a novel way. The plan is to turn to account, in the interest of honesty, the strong desire of American tourists for participation in English social life. As is well known, London is visited every season by a large number of American politicians and business men, generally on pleasure bent, who are extremely desirous to be the objects of British hospitality, to be asked to dinners and balls and garden-parties in fashionable circles, and to be put down at the leading clubs, and generally made much of as Americans, or "Amuricans," as the *Saturday Review* calls them. Now the *Speaker* proposes to take advantage of this weakness or ambition, and make out a black-list containing the names of the 126 who voted against the Copyright Bill, and boycott them socially whenever they come to England. It says:

> "But when there is no room for any doubt as to the guilt of an American visitor—when, for example, we know that he is a member of the majority which last week gave a dishonest and disgraceful vote—there can be no hesitation as to the course which it is our duty to pursue. No man who has taken part in the maintenance of this system of organized theft is fit to be admitted to English society. No club should open its doors to him; no private person should offer him hospitality. If he comes here, let him be treated as a pariah, and made to feel himself the moral leper and outcast that he is. Between him and the swell mobsman who picks one's pocket, or the 'smart' thief who carries off a jewel-box from a lady's dressing-room, there is really not a pin to choose, so far as relative degrees of guilt are concerned."

That this would be a terrible infliction to some American travellers we think is very likely; but if the *Speaker* supposes that this punishment will reach many, if any, of the 126, it is much mistaken. In fact, we greatly fear the mere threat is going to help them in the home society they most value. In the first place, opponents of international copyright seldom go to Europe, and, when they do go, they are apt to avoid the haunts of the nobility and gentry. They are too good Americans to care for the attentions of what they consider "the snobs" of the London clubs. The late A. T. Stewart was once examined in court as to the value of some old lace. The counsel began by asking him whether as a traveller in Europe he was not familiar with the lace worn by great ladies at court balls and receptions. He promptly and proudly answered "I am an American citizen, sir, and I do not go to court balls and receptions." We have no doubt the anti-copyright majority will hurl back the *Speaker's* threat in the same way. They have a thorough contempt for English hospitality, and would not be seen inside the clubs of an effete free-trade aristocracy. In fact, we should not be surprised if some of them went over this summer in order to have this British hospitality denied them in some conspicuous way. To be treated "as a pariah" in the land of the Cobden Club would make the political fortune of a good many of them. It would be worth far more to them than Mrs. Cleveland's failure to shake hands was worth to Foraker. They would run on it for a second term in Congress, or apply for a pension on it, or for a consulship, just as a vindication.

We must, however, put in a word ourselves in behalf of at least some of these copyright sinners. The *Speaker*, in passing condemnation on them *en bloc* and fixing their sentence, assumes that they are all equally guilty, or we might say all guilty. Now, it is, in the interest of international comity, a mistake to assume this. There are some honest men in the 126—that is, there are men who deny the existence of literary property or are unable to conceive of it—a state of mind which at one time existed all over the world, and still exists among ignorant and barbarous people. The notion of literary property is a product of the growth of civilization. There are others whose judgment is disturbed by the fact that there was no copyright at common law, and that many great books have been produced without any hope of pecuniary reward. These and many other considerations, which we have no space to mention here, naturally befog a good many honest men not used to processes of reasoning or to historical views of jurisprudence.

So there must in common justice be some discrimination in the treatment of the 126 when they get to London. All should not, for social purposes, be put in the same category. Probably none of them is fit to be put down at White's, or Boodle's, or the Carlton or Athenæum, but there are undoubtedly some who might be let in as visitors to the Reform or the National Liberal Club. Probably none of them, also, is entitled to a dinner at one of the great houses in town or to a Sunday in a country-house, but many, we are sure, are not unworthy to come in after dinner for a little music, or to be asked to an afternoon tea, or a garden-party, or to be allowed to see the gold vaults of the Bank of England or get into the strangers' gallery in the House. Some effort should be made to proportion the punishment in this way to the offence; and, if we might make a suggestion as to method, we should say that a good way of doing exact justice would be to have the offenders all brought up on their arrival before our old friend Squire Smalley of Norfolk, who could examine each case on its merits, and decide, as no one else in London could decide, on the exact grade of entertainment to which it would be proper to admit each applicant. It would of course be a delicate duty, but the Squire does not shirk social responsibilities because they are delicate.

THE FARMER AND THE CARPENTER.

At a meeting in Boston some weeks ago of a club which bears his name, Gen. Butler delivered himself of utterances on the labor question which were luminous and incisive to a degree, though, if the newspaper reports of his speech are to be trusted, he twisted his facts in a highly characteristic way to serve a paltry purpose, and made no special effort to enforce the true lessons which his statements teach.

It is an old and well-known story that, in the last analysis, the wages of labor in this country are based upon Indian corn. Corn is a crop easily grown, very productive, and extremely useful for feeding (and cheering) man and beast. Even as a fuel, corn is held to be the equal of the best hard wood, and it is actually used in many localities as a cheaper fuel than wood or coal. Every one familiar with agricultural literature knows that, taking one year with another, no sound American man will "hire out" for a less sum than he can gain by working upon land for himself and cultivating maize. Gallatin, Harriet Martineau, Robert Russell, and many other writers have touched upon this point, and more than thirty years have passed since Mr. Russell put upon record the familiar boast of the prairie farmer that he can cultivate in a single season forty, or even fifty, acres of corn. In this fact more than in any other is seen the determining cause of the fortune of the Republic. The very great significance of it was capitally illustrated by the endurance of the Confederacy. Nowhere else in the world can great crowds of immigrants so surely find immediate and adequate support as upon the corn lands of the great Valley, and it may even be said of the present temporary drift of men towards regions of wheat and of grass, that the movement serves to illustrate the transcendent merit of the corn-belt.

On the other hand, the census returns assure us that almost, though not quite, one-half of the population of the United States are occupied with agricultural pursuits, and the corn-wage necessarily governs and controls every one of these agricultural workers; and so it would immediately affect all other workers in the United States were it not for the innate malevolence of man. Rightly considered, the prime purpose of the trade-unionist here in America is to help to exclude "the outs." Mechanics and factory hands, on finding themselves living in much more comfortable circumstances than the farmers, have hastened to combine with their fellows in order the better to escape from the influence of the corn-wage by keeping the farmers upon the land. Upon every side the handicraftsman is seen seeking to protect himself by giving a very cold shoulder to those laborers who may wish to migrate from the farm to the workshop.

In spite of all manner of opposition, there is, as everybody knows, a constant movement of young men away from the hard work of the farm towards the easier occupations of railroading, shop-keeping, the mechanic arts, and what not; and nothing tends so strongly to check this movement as the hostile attitude of the men who have already got away from the farm and bettered their own condition. Nothing can be clearer than the truth that the chief result of any successful activity of workingmen's unions is to hinder or destroy the movement of labor from the farm to the workshop, and in so far to prevent the farm-hand from earning more money than he can get by the occupation of growing corn.

Now up speaks Benjamin Butler, and sets forth this long old story in a few well-chosen words:

"We all know," he says, as reported in the Boston *Herald* of May 2, "that a great strike of the carpenters and builders is going on in Chicago, and threatens on this day to extend itself to 100,000 workmen in this country. Their claim is that the skilled workman shall be employed eight hours a day only, even if his individual wish is to work longer, and that he shall be paid therefor 40 cents an hour. . . .

"Now, look to the farmers—I do not mean the mere farm laborer, but to the man who owns and tills the soil himself. Let us put the skilled operative with his tools on the one side, and the farmer with his farm, say of 160 acres of land, on the other side of the scale, and ascertain if we can the result. Within twenty-four hours' railroad ride of Chicago, the farmer cannot get more than fifteen cents a bushel for his corn. He cannot raise on the average of years, year in and year out, more than fifteen bushels to the acre. He cannot cultivate with his own hands more than fifty acres, and, to do so much, he must be aided by the approved modern appliances and horse power in some form to do that. Therefore, it will be seen at once—and I think I have given the largest possible value to the farmers' corn products—that the carpenter can earn twenty-one bushels of corn by a day's labor, or, in the year of 300 working days, 6,400 bushels of corn, or $960 in money, the purchaser buying the corn where the farmer sells it. If there is any mistake in my figures anywhere, it is that no farmer by his individual effort, without the use of very expensive horse power and machinery to aid him for a portion of the year, can do the labor necessary upon fifty acres of land and its crop, and if he hires any additional labor, it must come out of what he raises, and in that case the labor must be excessively cheap if he can make any profit on it. Fifty acres yielding fifteen bushels to the acre at 15 cents a bushel would be $112.50 for the farmer's crop. Another reply may be made that he need not work more than half of his time in raising his corn and devote the remainder of his time to taking care of himself and his family and matters of that sort. The farmer works sixteen hours a day when he works at all, and that during half of his time. The skilled mechanic works half of his time for the whole year, taking care of himself and his family, and improving his condition, otherwise, if he so chooses, in the other half. At the time when Washington repaired the President's house in Philadelphia, as will appear from the Treasury accounts, his carpenter received pay at the rate of 50 cents a day, and he worked from sun to sun. At the same time in the New England States—there were no Western States then—the farm-hand worked from sun to sun, taking for his pay a peck of corn meal, which he shouldered and carried home to his family. That corn meal was then worth from a quarter of a dollar to 40 cents in time of scarcity. In Washington's time the carpenters did all the heavy work, sawing, planing, hewing. All that is now done by machinery elsewhere than at the place of labor of the carpenter."

Of course the farmer, as a general rule, may get his hog and hominy, his bread, milk, butter, and fuel, and even his house room, for a smaller expenditure of money than the carpenter can, though it is most emphatically in the sweat of his face that the farmer gains these advantages. The candid reader will not fail to make due allowance for these considerations, as well as for any semblance of exaggeration which he may think to detect in the cited figures; but the fundamental, undeniable fact remains, that there is a wide gulf between the gains of the carpenter and those of the farmer, and Gen. Butler is to be complimented for his forcible presentation of this truth.

If the reporters have told us aright, Gen. Butler drew no other moral from his figures than that a change in relation to the rewards of farming labor must come very soon, and that the farm mortgages of the West will never be paid. But no long-continued study of his facts will be needed to convince every impartial observer that the organization known as the Knights of Labor is an offensive and venomous fly on the chariot

wheel of society, and that those "philanthropists" and "moralists" who sympathize with the buzzings of this impertinent insect have been grossly deceived.

Gen. Butler might have dwelt also on the bearings of his figures upon the claim of the protectionists that high wages are caused by our high tariff, a claim which is not a little absurd in view of the enormous preponderance of agriculturists in this country. Since nearly one-half of our people are immediately occupied with farming, and vast numbers of men are engaged in moving and selling the crops and in buying and carrying supplies to the farm-laborers, it follows necessarily that the wages of much more than one-half the population of the United States must depend directly upon the prices which the world is ready to pay for agricultural products. In point of fact, the chief influence of the tariff on wages is seen in those wholly exceptional cases where the immediate necessities of a manufacturer may compel him for the moment to submit to the demands of a limited number of work-people organized to exclude competing laborers, and strengthened by the moral support of an unthinking and unenlightened public.

THE CONVENTION OF WORKING-GIRLS' CLUBS.

THE full report of the convention of working-girls' clubs, lately held in this city, is a volume which may well give ground for thought. There is nothing which invites so much to oppression on the part of the strong as a dejected spirit on the part of the weak; and if the poor sewing-woman, whose name has hitherto been a synonym for the crushed and the down-trodden, has come to hiring halls and making speeches in her own behalf, it may well be believed that a better era is setting in for her.

The term workingman calls up at the present moment a picture of something firm and self-reliant—discontented, perhaps, and more or less unreasonable, but conscious that he is not altogether without power to affect his own circumstances, and hence conscious that he is a man. There is no reason why the term workingwoman should not carry with it a similar connotation. In this country there are few workingwomen who do not at least earn enough to buy themselves sufficient food; and, short of insufficient food, there is no reason why a workingwoman should not, if she orders her life well, have that spirit and energy and hopefulness which, after all, are the inmost secret of the happiness of all of us, and which are enough to prevent any class of people from being regarded, or from regarding themselves, as a pitiable portion of the human race.

The proper objects of working-girls' clubs are, it seems to us, two in number: (1) to teach the working-girl not to waste the means of happiness which are now within her reach, and (2) to give her that feeling of solidarity, of mutual trustfulness, of confidence in the power of concerted action, which will enable her, as occasion presents itself, to make effectual claim to a larger and larger share of the products of her labor. Existing clubs seem to have done little as yet towards organizing strikes. There is no necessity for having that object distinctly in view, but neither is there any doubt that the strong feeling for the common good which club life not of the frivolous kind tends to promote, will furnish the standing ground from which to force, either directly or indirectly, better terms from employers. A beginning in this direction has been made by the association of stenographers of Philadelphia. Its members pledge themselves not to accept less than a fixed standard of compensation; they also exact of themselves a fixed standard of work. Last year this association held the first banquet ever given by workingwomen to themselves.

The other object—that of securing a greater amount of happiness out of their present earnings—is a simpler matter. Happiness, for all of us, is at bottom very little a matter of the richness of our surroundings; it is much more intimately connected with their cleanliness, refinement, and good taste. Mr. Stanton Coit, after an intimate acquaintance with the very poor, said that the chief respect in which the rich differed from them was in the use of the tooth-brush. But habits of personal cleanliness are readily learned when quick-witted girls see of what vital consequence they are to the ladies who attend their clubs. Pleasing surroundings are easily in reach of girls in their club-rooms, if not in their homes. The most interesting report in this book is that which describes the way in which the Hartford working-girls are engaged in furnishing their summer home. Old packing-boxes are converted by muslin into washstands and tables, or by paint into book cases and cabinets. Pictures cut out of art newspapers are mounted on seasoned pine boards with a margin painted in gold and silver and finished with a row of picture-screws. All the bed-linen and table-linen is marked with a pansy, in different colors for the different rooms; hammock pillows are made of bits of newspaper torn fine; the hangings and sofa-covers for the parlor, which is to be in Dresden-china colors, are made of blue denim embroidered in white, and this embroidery is kept at the rooms of the United Workers, and worked upon by any one who has a few moments to spare.

Does not all this give a far more pleasing picture of summer rest, though it be only for a week or two for each worker, than the denizen of the crowded summer boarding-house is now looking forward to? Will all the monotonous fancy work which is to be executed upon the piazzas of sea-side hotels this summer give half the pleasure which is being got by these girls out of their blue denim embroidered in white? Separate pleasures are not in the reach of working-girls, but, by putting their small means together, pleasures in common may be had by them to an almost unlimited degree.

If we should ask ourselves what would be the source of our most poignant suffering, were we suddenly to be forced to live among the very poor, the answer would probably be (after the loss of good air and cleanliness) the lack of a courteous and considerate behavior on the part of our associates. Scolding mothers, ill-tempered fathers, quarrelsome brothers and sisters—these are things much more productive of unhappiness than poor food, hard beds, or long hours of work. The association of working-girls with the ladies who aid them in their clubs has a marvellous effect in quieting their manners and teaching them gentleness and forbearance. What the people who are most to be envied have reason to pride themselves upon more than all their possessions, is the subtle charm with which they know how to invest human intercourse. This is, in its perfection, the product of generations of culture, but its beginnings are not difficult to catch by girls who have the training in quickness which the sewing-machine brings with it. Their wealth the rich are not very likely to share with the poor, but the outward forms of respect which they show each other may not impossibly penetrate further and further into the lower strata of society, until virtuous poverty is robbed of no small portion of its hardness.

Clubs may easily be of so much advantage to working-girls that it is hard to see how any benevolent ladies who are not already overwhelmed with work for others can help doing something to start them, one after another, in large numbers, and to help them to become, as soon as possible, independent of outside aid. There is no doubt that the New York Convention will be productive of great enthusiasm among both of the necessary parties to the working-girls' club.

BISMARCK AS AN ECONOMIST.

THE May number of the *Journal des Économistes* contains a long and very interesting review of a history of Prince Bismarck's economical opinions, in two volumes, by Herr von Poschinger, who edited the Prince's 'Diplomatic Correspondence between 1851 and 1859.' The book is an avowed apology, and consists in the main of extracts from speeches and official and private correspondence, illustrating the various changes which the Prince's economical opinions have undergone. The author is so great an admirer of his hero that he maintains not only that the Prince is a great economist, but that he reaches correct economical conclusions by a process of simple intuition, while other men are toiling after them by a laborious process of deductive and inductive reasoning.

The book unfortunately does not bring us down later than 1880, when Bismarck became Minister of Commerce himself; but after 1880 his views underwent no serious modification. Before 1880 there were six periods in his economical history. The first is the period of his parliamentary activity as a young Tory, or "Junker," between 1847 and 1851. The second includes his diplomatic apprenticeship at Frankfort, St. Petersburg, and Paris, between 1851 and 1862. The third begins with his nomination

as Prussian Prime Minister in 1862, and ends with the foundation of the North German Confederation in 1867. The fourth includes the nine years between 1867 and 1876, during which Delbrück was Minister of Finance, and Bismarck lived under his ideas. The fifth was from 1876 to 1878, when Hoffmann was Minister of State, and the sixth from 1878 till Bismarck took possession of the Ministry of Commerce himself in 1880.

As regards the first period, from 1847 to 1851, when he was simply a parliamentary Junker, it may be said that in it he had no economical opinions at all except such as were suggested by some personal grievance or some matter of personal observation. He talked a little about the income tax, about the forest laws, and about the condition of the working classes, but he had no general ideas. The only sign of the growth of a body of doctrine which appeared was a speech in 1849 advocating the extension of the protectionist system to workingmen by legal provision for their comfort in the matter of wages, and hours of labor, and so forth. In that speech he made a vigorous attack on the protection accorded to manufacturers, on the ground that it infringed the rights of individuals in hindering them from buying where they pleased, for the purpose of enriching a small class of the community.

During his eleven years of diplomatic service there are numerous allusions in his correspondence to economical matters, but only allusions. He develops no new theories. It was not until he took office as Minister of Foreign Affairs in 1862 and entered on the task of establishing German unity, which subsequently gave him his immense fame, that he made himself in any degree known to the world as an economist. He found free-trade doctrines at that time in full possession of the field. All Prussian public men of note were disciples of Adam Smith, and the country was very prosperous under the free-trade régime. Bismarck himself was, to all outward seeming, in full accord with them, and he acted on their ideas in negotiating a treaty of commerce with France, and expounded these ideas in a memorandum explaining and defending the treaty. He did not make himself prominent as an economist, but lived in this matter in (for him) curious subordination to Delbrück, the then Minister of Commerce. What seemed to interest him most in the economical field at that period was the condition of the working classes, and the question of State provision for their old age. The germs of subsequent legislation on this subject were then clearly in his mind, and he coquetted more or less with Lassalle and other men of socialistic views. In one of his reports to the King on the condition of the Silesian weavers, he denounces "the abstract doctrines of political economy" in the now familiar fashion. In 1866 he got Prof. Dühring of the University of Berlin (in Germany, professors are supposed to know something about governmental questions) to make him two reports, one on State interference on behalf of the working classes, and the other on the best means of providing loan banks for landed proprietors. With the question of foreign trade and its conditions he can hardly be said to have meddled actively.

When he became Chancellor of the Empire, and initiated the thoroughgoing protectionist policy in 1878 which has lasted ever since, he was taunted with his departure from the principles which he either advocated or acquiesced in between 1867 and 1878, and excused himself on the ground that he was at that time engaged in a great political undertaking to the success of which a free-trade policy was necessary. A treaty of commerce with France, for instance, was a useful defence against Austria, which was trying to break up the North German Zollverein. Moreover, he needed Delbrück's coöperation so much in the work of internal organization that he felt compelled to let him have his way in fiscal matters.

It is in fact difficult, in running through his speeches and letters on economical questions, to avoid the conclusion that he has never in his long career given any attention worth mention to economical questions as economical questions simply; that is, never made any study of them on a broad scale, and with complete detachment from political considerations. His economy has been literally political economy. If we analyze his economical views, we find they are in part made up of his needs and prejudices as a large farmer; in part of a strong sympathy with the working classes and a desire to better their condition by a sort of monarchical or authoritative socialism, somewhat like the English "Tory democracy," and in part of a stern determination to use every means that "God and Nature" might have put into his hands to promote German unity. It is probably through the last that we are to account for the protectionist policy pursued since 1878. A high tariff has seemed a potent means of welding the confederation into a nationality, and it has accordingly been resorted to, with probably but little regard for its purely economical results, which thus far have, we may add, been rather deplorable.

THE UNIFICATION OF MEXICO.

To those who, twenty years, or even only twelve years ago, visited the Mexican Republic, its present aspect is, although not startling, still at least gratifying. In our own country we are accustomed to rapid changes: a city grows up in the course of a few years; a few years suffice to transform a wilderness into a productive farming region. No such changes *à vue d'œil*, occur in our sister republic, and yet a steady change is creeping over it—slow and gradual—perceptible only after years. But this slow growth promises to be durable, provided it is not interfered with from outside.

There is little danger of internal disturbances. The present Government of Mexico appears to be solidly established. The fact that President Diaz is continued and will probably be continued in office for an indefinite time is significant, but only an indication, and not in itself sufficient proof of permanence of the rule of which he is the head. There are many other points of greater importance which speak in favor of the maintenance of peace in Mexico, and consequently of the dawning of an era of at least modest prosperity.

The war which the Mexican people waged against foreign intervention, represented by the unfortunate Emperor Maximilian, had a singular effect upon that people. Until then, a nation had not, in reality, existed in Mexico. The success of the insurrection against Spain had not given them the consciousness of community of interests, language, and tradition, the feeling of solidarity from which national ideas arise. On the contrary, freedom from Spanish rule meant, in the minds of the majority, a return to conditions before the conquest—tribal and linguistic separation, to be maintained with the advanced methods of warfare due to European teachings. It was a herculean task on the part of abler minds to hold up before the eyes of a multitude unable yet to comprehend it the ideal of a fusion of local, tribal, and racial instincts into a common national feeling. It is no wonder if all attempts failed, and if to be a patriot in Mexico became synonymous with being a victim of particularism based upon local, religious, or merely personal grounds. It is a great wonder even that the republic did not go to pieces completely. The war with the United States failed to arouse a national feeling, owing to its disastrous results from the very inception. Had Mexico held its own, the result would have been different, for then there would have been something to be proud of, and every part of the country would have been anxious to share in the triumph. As it was, it merely increased the calamities of partisanship, by giving color to just and unjust recriminations. Every one looked to his neighbor for the guilt of the national disaster, of the humiliation which Mexico had been made to suffer.

In fact, the only element of union which Mexico possessed after its separation from Spain should have been the Church; or, rather, the Church in Mexico was the only power sufficiently free from local influences to become an element of union. It cannot be said that the Church in Mexico fulfilled its mission as well as it should. Still, it must be acknowledged that it maintained its position, and that the very opposition which it called forth, by creating an anti-clerical party in every State of the so-called republic, greatly fostered the feeling of coherence and of mutual relationship that is the precursor of the national idea. It is well known that the Church was not originally in favor of the Mexican insurgents, that it anathematized Hidalgo, seeing in him only the standard-bearer of a violent movement of purely racial character. As soon, however, as independence became an established fact, and a form of government was adopted promising law and order throughout the land, the Church, true to its principles, recognized it, and became the corner-stone on which a national idea could rest. Its very opponents were forced to become a national party.

Whether the sequestration of church property was a just or an unjust measure, need not be discussed here. It certainly had more to do with the attempt to plant a foreign empire in Mexico than may be generally conceded. At first the Church was decidedly imperialistic, or at least the clergy was favorable to the Empire. They hoped for the recovery of lost privileges, and, perhaps, of lost property also. But the weakness of the new régime soon became apparent, and none saw it earlier or more clearly than the Church in Mexico. At the same time they noticed that an opposition was forming against Maximilian which was no longer a matter of race or opinion, but a matter of true nationality; and they understood that the downfall of the empire was inevitable. Juarez himself was not a man of re-

markable ability, but he became the standard-bearer of national aspirations, and in this sense his memory is nearer and dearer to the Mexican people than that of Hidalgo, whose headship was only for racial revenge, as was that of Morelos subsequently. After Maximilian's hapless end, Mexico had become at least a rudimentary nation.

Some struggles were still necessary before the innate tendencies to segregation were so far subdued as to yield the first place and rank in Mexican politics to ideas of a national character. When Porfirio Diaz became President for the first time, the experiment was yet doubtful. But the peaceful election of Gonzales, and the equally peaceable return of Diaz to the Presidential chair, proved that the power of sectionalism was largely broken, and that the Mexicans had become conscious of the need to be Mexicans first, and only in the second line citizens and defenders of the interests of the various sections from which they originated or where they resided.

Twelve years of uninterrupted peace have further consolidated the national idea, and have made Porfirio Diaz its official representative. There are, of course, chronic opponents. There is an opposition to him and to his actions and decrees; to the modifications which, under his rule, have been brought about in the Utopian character of so-called institutions, most of which were hardly better than plans on paper. The great majority of the people feel that, with him and his surroundings, peace and security to life and property have been upheld, and that, while a great many things are far from being as they should be, it is to the direct interest of the country to overlook deficiencies for the sake of what has been obtained and what every earnest man in Mexico has so long sighed for in vain. They feel, with dread, that any change can only be for the worse, and therefore the honest men of all former parties are glad to support a régime that has thus far placed Mexico in a condition such as had been dreamt of before, but which sectional and partisan dissensions had always forbidden to exist.

From this feeling of tacit adhesion the clerical party in Mexico is not exempt. The stringent laws against the Church, some of which are silly, may never be modified, and yet it is well known that the upper clergy look with great favor upon the Government, and that their personal relations are unusually cordial. The Government has hereby eliminated a very dangerous element of disturbance. Where the temporal and spiritual powers are so closely linked together as they of necessity must be in Mexico, harmony between the two is essential for the stability of both, and especially for the welfare of the people itself. The present relations between the Government and the Church in Mexico are, of course, exposed to much gossip; but the fact that, after seventy years, during which mutual griefs had grown into a seemingly insurmountable barrier, both sides have dropped rancor and forgotten revenge and hatred to such an extent as to make their relations beneficent to all who inhabit the republic of Mexico, certainly shows on both sides an undercurrent of at least commendable patriotism.

Porfirio Diaz is known to have swiftly, and sometimes terribly, repressed attempts at disorder — nay, to have acted mercilessly upon the very first indication of disobedience. But he has also conciliated his opponents quite as often as he has repressed them by force. Therefore, the military power lies in his hands, and is no longer, as it formerly was, a constant threat to peace and life. The Mexican regular army may not be ideal in many ways; nevertheless it is an element of tranquillity in a country to which it formerly was a scourge. Herein lies another element of stability for the present and future of Mexico.

The recognition of the English debt has been the cause of much unfavorable comment upon the Government and its representatives, and even of attempts at open resistance, and yet, now that this measure is bearing its fruits, no sensible man in Mexico denies that the sacrifice thereby imposed on the nation is being more than amply compensated, instead of being a sordid speculation for purely personal advantage. The recognition of the English debt has proved to be a master-stroke of financial policy and of diplomatic skill. It has established for Mexico a growing credit in the markets of Europe, and has increased the ingress of European capital. Consequently industry and commerce have assumed a slow but steady upward tendency, which will finally induce indigenous capital, released from the dangers to which it has heretofore been exposed, to compete with foreign capital in the development of the country's natural resources. With an established credit, no longer compelled to resort to irregular and therefore oppressive taxation, the Mexican Government enjoys the support of whatever money may give and afford, not in the exaggerated sense of unlimited resources, but in the position of a nation accredited at the Board of Finance of the civilized world, good for its intrinsic value, and controlled, in its financial policy, by the consequences which that policy (or lack of policy) may entail.

No measure of the Mexican Government has been so much commented upon, favorably and unfavorably, as the opening of the country to the construction of railroads. Censure of such a measure seems overwhelmingly ridiculous to us; but in Mexico, we must not forget, there were apprehensions of a political nature which the conduct and public expressions of Anglo-Americans fully justified at the time. The result has proved highly advantageous to Mexico, and not wholly detrimental to foreign capital, though less productive than was originally anticipated. At all events, the advantage, notwithstanding every sacrifice, remains with the country through which these railroads operate. Aside from the usual benefits afforded by railroads to any country, it has brought people of the most remote sections of Mexico in personal contact, has thus contributed largely to the process of nationalization and unification, and has placed at the Government's command a vehicle which, in case of necessity, will enable it to prevent the hatching of revolutions, for which remote districts were formerly so convenient.

With the railroads, enterprises have entered Mexico which, while they may not immediately yield in proportion to their importance, afford new elements of subsistence to a people that has been, for centuries, often confined to the meagre resources of naturally unsatisfactory surroundings. Those enterprises afford the Government a new source of revenue, although very liberal conditions are usually given to the establishment of industries. They disseminate work, therefore money, among the people, and divert their thoughts from disorder and lawlessness, for the propagation of which idleness and misery have always been the most favorable hot-beds.

Under these circumstances, the chances for permanence of the actual régime in Mexico appear more favorable than those of any of its predecessors. A great portion of the clouds which have heretofore covered the sky are dispelled, and in all probability for ever. New difficulties will doubtless arise, but with a once disciplined crew and able officers, the Mexican ship of state can weather the storms which the future may bring. Internal troubles are not likely to occur, and the Government has thus far maintained its dignity towards foreign nations without giving any legitimate cause for complaint or trouble. A quarrel may, of course, be picked with Mexico, as well as everywhere else; but no nation, whether near or remote, has any interest in interrupting the slow upward movement of a country with which amicable relations can only be advantageous, whereas war, even if successful, will never lead to a permanent conquest.

BALFOUR'S LAND BILL.

DUBLIN, May 5, 1890.

THE adoption of Chief Secretary Balfour's Land Bill by a majority of eighty on the second reading in the House of Commons practically assures the passing of this measure. A fair discussion on its merits could not be expected: it is an axiom with the National party that no good thing can come from Balfour, and the English Home-Rulers act on the principle of voting with the Irish party on all purely Irish questions. The arguments against the bill were consequently of a mixed and contradictory character. The policy of State-aided land purchase is one which all classes in Ireland, except Michael Davitt and a small following, look to and desire as a final settlement of the land war. Since 1880 both of the great English political parties have, when in power, brought in sweeping measures of this kind, and each party in opposition makes very much the same objections against measures brought in by its opponents.

Except so far as speakers are prepared to eat their own words or renounce the views formerly held by their party, the only reasonable argument, from an Irish point of view, against a large or wholesale expropriation of landlords is, that no such measure can be fairly worked while coercion exists and Balfour reigns; tenants and Nationalists cannot be represented on the Land Board, and administration of the measure will neither seem nor be fair. Against the details of Balfour's measure many sound objections may be urged, as they may be against any and every measure of reform; but it is the business of the politician, the philosopher in action, to decide how much of an evil ought to be tolerated, and to set aside those arguments of the speculative philosopher which, if regarded, would prevent any theory being reduced to practice.

The bill proposes to advance 165 million dollars to enable tenants to buy from their landlords, who are to be paid in stock bearing 2.75 per cent. interest, while the tenants are to repay the loan by forty-nine-year annuities of 4 per cent. Both English parties agree in laying down the principle that the British (as distinguished from the Irish) taxpayer is to incur no loss and to run no risk. A large part of the discussion turns upon this point, which is obscured by the complicated nature of the scheme and the multiplicity of guarantees provided. Part of the price, usually one-fifth, payable to the landlord, is to be retained by the Land Board for seventeen years, the interest only being paid to the landlord, while the principal may be applied to make good the default of a borrower. Certain contributions in aid of local taxation from the imperial revenue, now applicable for charitable and educational purposes, are to be withheld annually to the extent to which any loss is incurred by default in

repayment of loans; the Lord-Lieutenant is also empowered to require a special county rate to be struck to make such losses good. Tenant purchasers are, for the first five years of their term, to pay a larger amount than their normal annuity, and so to provide a special insurance fund, for which, if not drawn upon, credit will be given at the end of the forty-nine year term. Lastly, there is an allocation of a reversion to a possible residue from funds formerly belonging to the Irish Church.

This part of the bill is so complicated that Balfour's followers have to take upon faith his estimate of the effective value of the guarantee deposits, the tenants' insurance fund, the reserve fund, the contingent guarantee, the special county rate, and the Church reversion. The collection of some of these funds must precede their application, and may not be so easy in practice as on paper. The withholding of funds to which Irish localities are now entitled for education of the poor, for the care and support of pauper lunatics, and other similar purposes, may not be ratified by future Parliaments. The principle of seizing such funds without the consent of the interested localities, and applying them to the payment of debts contracted by tenant farmers, is evidently open to grave objections on constitutional grounds.

Except from a mistaken sense of loyalty to their Liberal allies, it is not clear upon what grounds Irish members allow the British-taxpayer argument to pass unchallenged. If the expropriation of the Irish landlords is a matter of imperial interest, and to be settled by the imperial Parliament, is it not the concern of the British as well as the Irish taxpayer? Has the British taxpayer no responsibility for peace in Ireland? has he no responsibility for the deadlock which necessitates such a law? Is it not cheaper for him to risk and perhaps lose a small amount of capital in quieting the land war than to spend annually large sums in keeping up the existing system, in maintaining armies of soldiers and police in Ireland to collect rents and carry out evictions, and numerous special courts to control and regulate irreconcilable relations? When the British-taxpayer argument is brought out against such a measure as this, the Irishman may surely ask whether he does not pay heavily for royalty whose face he never sees; for London parks, museums, and institutions from which he derives no benefit; for wars waged all over the world in purely British interest, in which he has no concern. Ireland pays her share, and more than her share, for all these.

There is another aspect of these guarantees which has not educed observation. Every special provision for paying debts or losses which may arise under this scheme otherwise than out of the debtor's estate, and by making him a bankrupt and distributing the loss among his creditors (the whole body of taxpayers), weakens the motive for repayment, encourages the borrower to plead inability or poverty, diminishes his sense of responsibility, and impairs the value of the primary security, the land and its efficient cultivation. The bill provides what the tenant calls "back doors." Both the Land Board and the Lord-Lieutenant are empowered, under certain circumstances, to suspend collection of annuities and sales of defaulters' farms, and so to occasion the loss which is to be made good at the expense of other and more helpless classes.

The objection made by Parnell that the funds provided would only enable one tenant out of five to buy his farm and one landlord out of ten to sell his estate, and that therefore the money available would be better applied by loaning it to landlords at low interest to pay off encumbrances, requiring them in return to reduce their rents, seems weak. If the money is repaid, there is no reason why more should not be provided, and Parnell's proposal would leave the landlord-and-tenant system still as the universal rule of tenure. That part of the bill which deals with the congested districts in the West, and creates a special semi-charitable board with power to encourage emigration, migration, to develop local industries, is no doubt conceived in a benevolent though mistaken spirit. As John Dillon, in an admirable speech, pointed out, the inclusion of the vast tracts which have been converted into ranches is necessary to the treatment of the overcrowded spots, the agricultural slums in their midst. Balfour's proposals under this head indicate the usual complete and self-satisfied ignorance of English politicians of the problems which have to be solved in Ireland. An English born and bred statesman who has not spent thirty days consecutively in Ireland, advised by Castle officials whose acquaintance with the West may consist of an occasional fishing or shooting holiday, undertakes, in a contemptuously benevolent spirit, to legislate for the benefit of a population of whose life, habits, wishes, and wants he is completely ignorant.

The Land Bill will not go into Committee until the Government have got through their English Tithe Bill, a difficult and opposed measure. This will lead to a late consideration of the Land Bill, to the exclusion of discussion and amendments, to the application of the closure, and the passage for Ireland of another law on which the Irish members will not have been permitted to state fully their views, or urge the modifications which they, from their better knowledge of facts, would wish to urge on the Government. Amendments with the object of nullifying and spoiling the bill will no doubt be brought forward, but the leaders of the English Liberals, feeling that the responsibility for administering the act will soon be cast upon them, will no doubt do their best, if allowed, in no factious spirit to improve and make effective the crude and complicated provisions which Mr. Balfour proposes to impose on us.

In Ireland, so far as the views of the two classes, tenants and landlords, can be discerned and stated in general terms, I should say that the tenants approve of this as they would of any measure which gives them an opportunity of becoming owners on terms which will be easier to them than remaining as tenants. Until the grant is exhausted, every tenant is potentially a recipient of part of the loan. On the other hand, tenants approve of their members' opposition, which amounts, if successful, to a promise to do better things for them, or at worst to improving the bill in their interests. If passed, the law will not put tenants in a worse position than at present, and gives every farmer an opportunity of bettering his position. The landlords, while they complain that they are to be paid in a stock below par value, and that they are only to receive four-fifths of the value of their estates in this stock, the remaining one-fifth being locked up for seventeen years with a lien on it for any default of the purchaser, are satisfied at having an opportunity of selling, and at the administration as well as the framing of the measure being in the hands of their political friends.

In short, though the law will be thrust upon Ireland without the consent of the people, it directly injures nobody, and may benefit a very considerable number of persons. The solicitors, an interested, compact, and powerful class, are in favor of the bill. The profits of carrying out these sales are large; and in the process of creating a vast number of small estates a foundation is laid for future profitable litigation, and an opportunity offered to secure a new body of clients in place of the landlords, whose estates have for many years almost ceased to pay tribute to that part of the legal profession which occupied itself with sales of and loans upon land. AN IRISHMAN.

RENAN'S 'FUTURE OF SCIENCE.'

PARIS, May 2, 1890.

THE list of the works of Ernest Renan is getting very long. Here is a new volume with the catching title, 'The Future of Science'; but, as a sub-title, I read, 'Thoughts in 1848.' So the book is but a reprint of some articles written after the Revolution of 1848, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, in a forgotten and extinct review which was called *La Liberté de Penser*, and in the *Journal des Débats*. Renan gives in a long Preface the genesis of these articles. The Revolution of 1848 made a great impression on him; he had never until then paid any attention to Socialist problems, and had lived entirely absorbed in academical studies. 'The Future of Science' was originally intended as a whole, and was announced as such in the *Liberté de Penser*, where the first fragments appeared. The friends of M. Renan in the office of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* and of the *Journal des Débats* advised him to cut it in pieces—not to throw such a heavy stone in the pond of literature. He kept his manuscript, and doled it out in parts at various times. Now we have the whole of it, but we are not clearly told how much the original manuscript has been changed. It was often abandoned: Renan had to write his 'Origins of Christianity,' which absorbed nearly all his time.

He says he expected that his manuscript would be published after his death, but, "finding that his life prolongs itself more than he had supposed," he has decided to become his own publisher. The Renan of forty years ago is presented to us by the Renan of to-day. "In my writings destined for people of the world," he says, "I have been obliged to make many sacrifices to what is called in France taste (*le goût*). Here will be found, without any adornment, the little conscientious Briton who one day fled alarmed from Saint-Sulpice because he thought he perceived that a part of what his masters had taught him was perhaps not wholly true."

The art of composition was unknown to Renan when he wrote these first voluminous essays. He confesses also that, on some points, his opinions have changed; he believed too much in 1848 in the Socialist ideas of that period. He does not now believe that a civilization can be founded entirely on the idea of equality. It is clear that Darwinism has had its influence with him. "Inequality," he says, "is written in nature; it is the consequence of liberty, and the liberty of the individual is a necessary postulate of human progress. The present state of humanity, for instance, necessitates the maintenance of nations, and nations are very heavy establishments to carry. A state which should give the greatest possible amount of happiness to the individual would probably be, in view of the noble pursuits of humanity, a state of profound abasement."

You will recognize here what I might call the antinomical state of mind of Renan: he always corrects one affirmation by an almost contrary affirmation. He has arrived at a

curious sort of scepticism, very different from the light scepticism of old times. His is a sort of sentimental scepticism; he knows that what he loves must perish, but he loves it still. He knows that provincialism is narrow, and that it must disappear when the province is merged in the nation; still he loves provincialism. He knows that patriotism is a narrow form of the love of humanity, that it is prejudiced, that it can be cruel and unjust; still he can be patriotic at times. His unmerciful exegesis has destroyed the foundations of faith; still he loves the faithful and their simplicity of heart. He looks upon the legends of the saints as mere phantoms of the imagination, but nobody can speak of the saints with a more childlike affection.

The sentimental scepticism of Renan is becoming more and more marked; he has ceased to be dogmatic, as he was in the days of his youth: he has become more and more sceptical.

"There is," he says, "an error in these old pages, an exaggerated optimism which cannot see that evil still exists, and that we must pay dearly—that is to say, we must pay in privileges—for the power which protects us against evil. You will find in it also an old remnant of Catholicism, the idea that we shall again see ages of faith, ages in which there will be an universal and obligatory faith, as in the first part of the Middle Ages. May God preserve us from such a salvation! The unity of belief, that is to say, fanaticism, would only reappear in the world with the ignorance and the credulity of ancient days. I prefer an immoral people to a fanatical people; for immoral masses are not vexatious, while fanatical masses stupefy the world, and a stupid world ceases to interest me. I prefer to see it die. Suppose that the orange trees had a malady of which they could only be cured by ceasing to produce oranges; it would not be worth while, for the orange tree which yields no oranges is good for nothing."

In passing himself, so to speak, in review in these pages written in his youth, Renan has tried to make a sort of reckoning of what was real in his early hopes, and what was chimerical. He thinks that, on the whole, he was right, and that progress is going on on the lines which he then traced. He did not, to be sure, take sufficient account of the inequality of the traces, but, though he was not a naturalist, he understood the origin of life. "I saw well . . . that a creation has no place in the series of causes and effects. Unable to follow the ways of life in their labyrinth, I was a decided evolutionist in whatever concerns the products of humanity — language, writing, literature, legislation, social forms." Renan was only walking, in philology, in the footsteps of the Germans and of his illustrious French master Burnouf. He has hardly the right to consider himself as a precursor of Darwin because he believed in the *Werden* of Hegel and in the transformation of human idioms.

He has come now to a state which, if it is not the Indian Nirvana, approaches it. He confesses that he was wrong when, as did Hegel, he attributed to humanity a central part in the universe. "It may be," he says, "that all the development of humanity is of no more consequence than the moss or the lichen which envelops any moist surface." You will remark this form of language—"It may be"; nothing is really affirmed any more by Renan, nothing is worth an affirmation. After the strophe comes immediately, as in the Greek chorus, the antistrophe. As soon as he has said that humanity is no better than a bit of moss, he adds: "For us, however, the history of man keeps its primacy, since humanity alone, as far as we know, creates the conscience of the universe."

The historical and the philological sciences have made much progress since Renan began to interest himself in them; but he sees the end of their efforts approaching. In a century, he says, humanity will know all it wants to know about its past; "and then it will be time to stop." Is it really so? Has not history renewed itself in every age? It is true that the modern historical method is founded entirely on the publication of original documents. When once these documents are all published, you cannot add much to local, individual, or even national history; you can criticise and interpret the documents with more accuracy. With or without documents, history will persist in creating legends, and these legends become immortal. We read history, on the whole, as we read a novel: we want to find human characters, human passions. This is the reason why it is so difficult to give life to the history of parliamentary government: the interest becomes too diffused, the central figures are too rare. Who will care—I do not say in a hundred years—in ten years for our parties and their groups? The human mind is so made that it requires what we call great men, and the study of great men will always be interesting, and in one sense new.

The history of religions has been the favorite study of Renan. "It has become clear," he says, "not by a-priori reasoning, but by the discussion of the so-called evidence, that never in the centuries known to man has there been any revelation, any supernatural fact." With these few words he disposes of the whole subject, in the review of sciences which I am analyzing. As for the social and political sciences, he finds that their progress in forty years has been slow. "The old political economy, which had such pretensions in 1848, has been a failure." It is true that free trade has ceased to be considered as a sort of religion, that the formulas of political economy have become less dogmatic; still no country will ever repent accommodating its policy, as much as is convenient and possible, to the acknowledged laws of political economy. France will probably have to repeal the narrow protectionist policy which it has adopted at the dictation of small local interests; the interference of the State in the management of railways and their tariffs will everywhere have deplorable consequences. The relations of capital and labor, if they were left entirely free, would naturally adjust themselves to circumstances and necessities; in this respect, the abandonment of the principles of political economy has created an immense danger. Renan complains that Socialism is perturbing the world, though it offers no clear solution of any problem. "What seems probable," he says, "is that Socialism will not come to an end." He hopes that it will be with Socialism as it was with early Christianity—that it will transform itself; that it will become very different from the destructive Socialism of 1848. There is not much hope of such a transformation at present.

Renan complains, also, that in the political field we have not made much progress. "The situation is not clear. The national principle has taken since 1848 an extraordinary development. There are evident signs of the fatigue caused by the national burdens." It is quite true that the principle of nationalities, which in 1848 appeared as a principle of progress and deliverance, has produced very unexpected effects: the nations are all in arms, and the equilibrium of Europe has become more uncertain. Renan prophesies that

"fifty years hence the national principle will be at a discount. . . . It has become very apparent that the happiness of the individual is not in proportion to the greatness of the nation to which he belongs. . . . How long will the national spirit triumph over the egoism of the individual? Who will, after some centuries, have served humanity better, the patriot, the liberal, the reactionary, the Socialist? Nobody knows; still it would be important to know, for what is good on one hypothesis is bad on another. According to the end which is to be attained, what France does, for instance, is excellent or detestable. The other nations have no more light. The field of politics is like a desert through which they march, by chance, north or south, for march they must. Nobody knows, in the social order, where the good lies. The consolation is, that we necessarily arrive somewhere. Good men will thus always have their conscience at rest."

Was I wrong when I said that Renan has reached a state of universal scepticism which approaches the Indian Nirvana? He speaks as if the world were a sort of a dream; he has remained an idealist, though he has ceased to be a Christian—vulgar epicureanism is repugnant to him; he is afraid that "a real debasement of humanity would follow the day when it saw the reality of things." The Positivist school will never have a right to claim him as a disciple, though he professes the greatest admiration for science. He speaks his inner thought when he says that "science preserves us from error rather than gives us the truth." I have spoken at some length of this singular confession of faith, which is a confession of death. The Preface of the work has seemed to me more interesting than the work itself.

Correspondence.

THE KENTUCKY SENATORSHIP.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The delay in the election of Mr. Carlisle to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Senator Beck has furnished a crumb of comfort to the opponents of tariff reduction. It may, therefore, be interesting to those who, in the absence of some more substantial consolation, are compelled to lean upon this, to show how entirely the incident has been misinterpreted. Let them consider the following facts:

(1.) Throughout the State there are many men, thoroughly devoted to the cause of revenue reform, who earnestly wished Mr. Carlisle to retain his present position in the House, in the full confidence that he would be its next Speaker, a position for which he is so eminently fitted. The fact that Mr. Carlisle himself desired to go to the Senate weighed with them but little. Their feeling can be compared—though, of course, it is less intense—with that of an English Liberal, were Mr. Gladstone anxious to be raised to the peerage. In the American Senate, as (though much more decidedly) in the British House of Lords, the party of progressive ideas seems for some time doomed to a hopeless minority; does it not, therefore, seem a pity that a man of Mr. Carlisle's ability should be forced to waste his strength before a hostile assembly? And, furthermore, the House, in which revenue bills originate, is preëminently the place for a man whose chief prominence comes from his position on such matters.

(2.) Such being the opinion of many of Mr. Carlisle's warmest admirers, the personal friends of the other candidates felt that they had some reason for passing over the ex-Speaker. It was in their eyes made the wiser by the high character of some of the other candidates. It has been, for example, long known that Judge William Lindsay of Frankfort, a man of great ability and wide culture, was desirous of be-

coming Senator; here, then, was the chance to keep Kentucky's lead in the House, and at the same time to send to the Senate a gentleman well fitted to take a prominent place in that body. As far as the tariff is concerned, every one of the opposing candidates stands squarely with Mr. Carlisle; nor would any man dare to go before a Democratic caucus in this State who questioned the soundness of his party's position on this issue of supreme importance.

(3.) It must be remembered, too, that the Senatorial race was precipitated upon the Legislature without a moment's warning. Mr. Beck was stricken while attending to his regular duties; his health had been apparently no worse than for many months previous. A Legislature chosen without regard to the Senatorial succession is suddenly called upon to fill his place; is it strange that personal considerations, in some cases genuine, perhaps in others less commendable, for a while prevailed? The sentiment of the State had had no opportunity to crystallize; in real truth it did crystallize with remarkable rapidity. Whatever, indeed, the causes which hindered Mr. Carlisle's nomination, the result showed that the opposition to it was neither political nor representative—not political, because his course was not even questioned; not representative, because, with complete spontaneity, the demand for his nomination arose from the entire State. There was no wire-pulling, there was no artificial enthusiasm. At almost every ballot some member announced his change to the Speaker in response to the urgent pressure of his constituency; others admitted the pressure, while still maintaining that they could not honorably change front. But, whatever may have been the motives that actuated those opposed to him, the fact stands out clearly that his nomination was eventually made because the Legislature read in every quarter the unmistakable will of the people that Mr. Carlisle be allowed to choose his own career. From the first ballot his friends maintained their ranks without effort; his opponents were never sure. The delay in his nomination may or may not be creditable to the Legislature, as a whole; but no one who understands it can for a moment believe that it shows anything but complete confidence both in Mr. Carlisle personally, and in the cause with which he is honorably identified. A. F.

Louisville, Ky., May 17, 1890.

CLERGYMEN AND BOOK PIRACY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: With regard to clergymen and book piracy, may not the circulars they receive be explained on the ground that publishers bank on their ignorance of public questions? This is a more charitable and, I think, a more reasonable view than that they "let the cheapness of the coveted goods blind their eyes to the criminality" of the transaction. The large majority of ministers lead provincial lives, read provincial papers, and know little of public questions. Receiving a circular of the kind indicated, they consider only the question of cheapness, and think nothing of copyright in the matter. Better-informed ministers usually throw the circulars in the waste-basket. The writer did differently the other day. He wanted the 'Britannica' and had never been able to buy it. The circular came from such a reputable house that the presumption was in favor of some arrangement having been made. So he filled up the acceptance blank, writing upon it, "*provided the rights of the publishers have not been infringed.*" He has not heard of it since. P. H. H.

Wilmington, N. C., May 17, 1890.

EXCAVATIONS IN ITALY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I see in the excellent letter of Mr. Goddard in the *Nation* of April 24 a repetition of the statement which I have several times contradicted, that the excavation of antique sites in Italy is "kept in native hands." It is simply kept under official supervision. To obtain a permit to excavate, one must apply to the Department of Public Instruction, and excavation can only be carried on under the supervision of a competent employee of the Ministry. Certain sites of historical importance are reserved for official excavation, but beyond these there is no difficulty in getting permission to dig anywhere in the kingdom, and the Government only claims the prior right to purchase objects needed to fill gaps in its own collections—a right rarely asserted lately. The Italian collections are increasing faster than the Ministry can find accommodations for them, and it is especially desirous to facilitate the work of foreign museums or societies; but, naturally, as to individuals, it will exercise its judgment as to the competence and responsibility of the applicants, and grant or refuse accordingly.

Yours truly, W. J. Stillman.

Rome, May 7, 1890.

MR. DOLE'S TRANSLATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your criticism of my translation of 'La Hermana San Sulpicio,' I am charged, among other things, with ignorance of the slang phrase *pelar la pava*, the meaning of which is made perfectly clear when used in the text. But *Con perdón de ustedes, pelo la pava* is a chapter heading! A literal translation would have been nonsensical, and I know of no corresponding English expression. I took what seemed to me a justifiable liberty, and simply renamed the chapter, which was certainly not "a desperate drive at the idiom"!

Less justifiable, perhaps, were similar proceedings in the text for various reasons; such, for instance, as the one quoted, "clog-dancing" for *pisotones en los callos*. My chief desire was to make the book readable in English, though it was hopeless to reproduce the peculiar flavor of the original, which has page upon page of piquant dialect. It seems to me that in such a story a translator has the right to employ a considerable degree of latitude.

I am, etc., Nathan Haskell Dole.

"Hedgecote," Glen Road, Jamaica Plain, Boston, May 17, 1890.

Notes.

Henry Holt & Co. will hereafter be the publishers of 'A Japanese Boy,' by himself, which we lately had occasion to praise.

Robert Bonner's Sons issue directly 'Five Years with the Congo Cannibals,' by Herbert Ward.

W. H. Anderson, 222 East Broad Street, Richmond, Va., is preparing a book of negro authors, with an account of their lives and writings.

N. D. C. Hodges, 47 Lafayette Place, New York, has begun the issue of a series of popular scientific works, under the general title of "Fact and Theory Papers." The scheme even includes an essay on the true scope of a Shakspere Society, 'Society and the Fad,' by Appleton Morgan.

John Wiley & Sons have in preparation 'Least Squares,' by Prof. W. W. Johnson of the U. S. Naval Academy.

'The Riversons,' a novel of Pennsylvania life in the forties, by S. J. Bumstead; 'One of "Berrian's" Novels,' by Mrs. C. H. Stone; 'The Bank Tragedy,' by Mary R. P. Hatch; and two books of travel, 'From Yellowstone Park to Alaska,' and 'From the Land of the Midnight Sun to the Volga,' by Francis C. Sessions, are in the press of Welch, Fracker Co.

The fourth of Mr. W. M. Griswold's Cumulative Indexes is an author and subject Index to the chief German periodicals and to sundry collections ('Autoren- und Sachregister zu den bedeutendsten Deutschen Zeitschriften, 1886-1889,' etc. Cambridge, Mass.: W. M. Griswold). A convenient list of writers precedes the index proper, of which the plan resembles that of its predecessors. There appears to be a slip in the pagination of the Autoren-Verzeichniss, page x being succeeded by pages 3–12.

Mr. Gustav Kobbé, who has given us the best guide-book to the New Jersey Coast, now takes up the belt of the same State traversed by the Central Railroad, and makes a neat hand-book in every respect fitted for the tourist, with abundant information respecting local history, scenery, and hotels. It is entitled 'The Central Railroad of New Jersey,' and is published by the editor himself at No. 251 Broadway. Numerous illustrations and convenient map-sections accompany the text. Mr. Kobbé has also conferred a boon on those who drive or walk for pleasure by issuing excellent pocket suburban road-maps, viz., of Central and Northern New Jersey, the Jersey Coast, Long Island, and Westchester County, N. Y., with part of Fairfield County, Conn. They are very clearly and neatly executed.

By far the best series of guide-books yet produced in this country (and better will not soon be seen) are those which have borne successively the names of Osgood's and Ticknor's, and, now that they have become the property of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., are henceforth fitly to be known as Sweetser's, Mr. M. F. Sweetser being the editor. We have just received the tenth edition of the 'White Mountains,' the twelfth of the 'New England,' and the seventh of the 'Maritime Provinces,' the most indispensable of all. Collectively, they have no rivals.

The same firm send us the current edition of their 'Satchel Guide for the Vacation Tourist in Europe.' It has a well-established usefulness, after nearly twenty years of vogue.

From J. W. Bouton we receive the illustrated catalogue of the Paris Salon now exhibiting in the Champs-Élysées. There are, to judge from these memoranda, few striking works of the imagination, and only here and there is there a suggestion of a striking landscape. Portraits seem more than commonly abundant. Meissonier and his colleagues in the secession are of course wanting in this catalogue.

The artistic side of the great French Exposition of last year is subordinated in Henri de Parville's 'L'Exposition Universelle' (Paris: J. Rothschild; New York: F. W. Christern). The compact little volume of 700 pages forms, in fact, part of this well-known writer's 'Causeries Scientifiques.' He has undertaken to produce a handy and readable summary of the Exposition regarded as an organism, with a wealth of statistics which can hardly be sought elsewhere, and with the most apt and interesting illustrations, averaging one to a page. It would be easy to expatiate on this

remarkable record, which recommends itself especially to architects, builders, and engineers, and to boards of public works, but which also should be prized as a souvenir by every one who visited the Exposition. That it should find a place in every public library is a matter of course.

Mr. Keltie, the editor of the 'Statesman's Year-Book' (Macmillan), has boldly reconstructed it in a way which will meet with universal approval. In the first place, Great Britain and its dependencies are grouped by themselves at the beginning of the work, after which the rest of the world follows in alphabetical order for the first time, with the general exception that colonies are bracketed with the mother country. To what an extent Africa is dismembered in consequence will appear when we say that Abyssinia must be sought under Italy. The effort is made to embrace pretty nearly the whole of the earth's surface, so that the 'Year-Book' has more than ever the character and value of a gazetteer. We feel that a friendly coöperation might improve the lists of non-official publications regarding each country which has been a feature of the 'Year-Book' from the beginning. (It is now in its twenty-seventh year.)

'Appletons' Annual Cyclopædia' for 1889, being vol. xiv of the new series, has also made its appearance, and presents the usual features. The index embraces this and the preceding volume. The Pope, Stanley, Robert Browning, and Ericsson are the subjects of full-paged portraiture. A folded colored plan of the Paris Exposition accompanies the article on that head. The Congressional summary, geographical progress and discovery, financial and fine-art reviews, irrigation, registry laws, are some of the leading rubrics. The several States and countries and religious denominations receive the customary attention.

Six members of the revisionist majority of the New York Presbytery, with Professor Evans of Lane Theological Seminary, contribute papers to a little volume called 'How Shall We Revise?' (Scribners). It is at once the last gun from the hosts of revision before the meeting of the Assembly, and a signal-shot in honor of a victory already won. Professor Evans carries his witty flings at the opponents of revision to a length which will doubtless seem to them highly disrespectful; but the man who gives them the roughest handling, without any joking about it, is, as usual, Professor Briggs. The most valuable of his three contributions is his "The Confession Tested by Scripture," in which, with the help of an appendix setting forth the exact proof-texts used by the Westminster divines, he shows how faulty and partial their exegesis was.

An English translation of Professor Mantegazza's 'Physiognomy and Expression,' which has existed in Italian and French versions for half-a-dozen years, is issued by Scribner & Welford. It contains within the compass of about 300 pages a good deal of curious information regarding a department of human inquiry which is just beginning to assume a scientific aspect, and the appendix contains a number of plates of astrological, morphological and æsthetic types, etc. For some obscure reason, fantastic and absurd generalizations regarding the emotional and intellectual meaning of certain varieties of features have always possessed a greater interest for the public at large than real scientific deductions. Thus a silly article on the meaning of blue, black, and gray eyes or different kinds of ears is sure to be copied by all the newspapers, while Darwin's fascinating researches in this field are known only to a few special students. Mantegazza takes note of the most important historic vagaries as well as of the latest scientific researches, and in the departments of anthropology and national psychic traits he adds some valuable remarks of his own. On the whole, however, the work is a compilation rather than one of original research; but it will be found entertaining in spite of a certain diffuseness of style.

The 'Samaritan Chronicle' was edited in 1848 by Juynboll, who published the Arabic text (from the Scaliger MS.) with Latin translation, notes, and introductory dissertation. Up to this time there has been no English translation of the work, and Mr. O. T. Crane has done good service in putting it into English and presenting it in convenient form to the general reader (New York: John B. Alden). Juynboll had only one MS. before him. Mr. Crane states in his preface that, while following the Arabic text of the Dutch scholar, he has in many cases consulted a MS. in the British Museum, and has thus been led occasionally to depart from the Latin translation. He has added a number of useful notes at the end of the book. The 'Chronicle' belongs probably to the thirteenth or fourteenth century of our era, and contains a good deal of geographical and historical material belonging to the ideas of that time. It furnishes material also for the history of development of legend in the first 1,300 years of our era. The book is regarded by the Samaritans as an authentic history, though not divinely inspired.

Under the title 'Notes on the Hebrew Text of the Books of Samuel' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), Dr. S. R. Driver, Regius Professor of Hebrew, gives us a timely and valuable textual and grammatical commentary on one of the most interesting of the Old Testament historical books. Availing himself freely of the investigations of his predecessors, especially Thenius and Wellhausen, he everywhere carefully criticises their works, contributes his own material, and uses his own judgment. His commentary is a thesaurus of grammatical and textual studies, the fullest and best guide in any language for one who wishes to go into a careful examination of Samuel. The introduction treats briefly but satisfactorily of the early history of the Hebrew alphabet, early Hebrew orthography, the chief ancient versions of the Old Testament, and the characteristics of the chief ancient versions of Samuel. There are facsimiles of the Siloam inscription, the Carpentras stele, an Egyptian Aramaic papyrus, and the inscription of Tabnith, King of Sidon, and a translation and discussion of the inscription of Mesha, King of Moab.

Their Eighteenth Report makes a very creditable showing for the Commissioners of Fisheries of the State of New York. It is a record of activity and good results. Among the first three hundred pages, on the work of the Commission, we find a couple of illustrated papers of scientific importance, viz., that of Prof. Bashford Dean, 'On the Supposed Fish-eating Plant, Utricularia,' and Commissioner Fred. Mather's more extensive work on 'Adirondack Fishes,' with two new species of suckers, Catostomus. It is well that the Adirondacks are receiving so much attention—the earlier the better. In an appendix of a hundred and thirty-five pages are given the laws of the State in general and of the counties in particular, so far as they relate to fish and game.

The Commissioners of the State Reservation at Niagara have done well in printing in their Sixth Annual Report a popular statement of the history of the Niagara River, by G. K. Gilbert of the United States Geological Survey. Too many of even the intelligent visitors to Niagara see only the Falls, and fail to apprehend their meaning; if they would give half-an-hour to reading over this geographical story (and it ought to be on sale at Niagara), their interest in the great cataract would be wonderfully increased. Mr. Gilbert illustrates some of the more important stages in the history of the Great Lakes, closely connected with the history of Niagara, by several hypothetical outlines of the great bodies of water that stood over the northern country when it was more or less tilted from its present attitude, and when the present river outlets were blocked by the retreating ice of the glacial period. The essay closes with a consideration of the conditions that may have determined a variation in the rate of recession of the Falls as they worked their way back from the plateau front through the gorge to their present position.

Dr. Siegmund Günther, professor at the Technical High School in Munich, has prepared a brief treatise on meteorology in its modern aspects with especial reference to geographical questions (Munich: Ackermann). Like his other works, this is a studious production, with many references to original memoirs by various authors; Dr. Günther's forte seeming to be rather a high quality of compilation than an originality in research. Like many German text-books, this one is marked by a serious style, with little that is devised to awaken the interest or to diminish the difficulties of the scholar, and with absolutely no padding. Such a book is sufficient for the student who desires to learn and asks only that opportunity be allowed him.

Dr. Hann of Vienna announced the following conclusions, derived from his recent meteorological studies, at the meeting of the Vienna Academy on April 17. Areas of low and high pressure, commonly known as cyclonic and anticyclonic areas on our weather maps, are the product of the general circulation of the atmosphere, which in turn arises from the difference between equatorial and polar temperatures. Cyclones and anticyclones possess ascending and descending components of motion respectively; but these are not produced by local differences of temperature, such as are commonly assumed by the convectional theory of cyclones, generally current. The convectional theory requires that cyclones should be as a whole masses of warm air, while anticyclones should be cold. The reverse appears to be the fact: cyclones are cold and anticyclones are warm. These temperatures are the product of the vertical components of motion, and not vice-versa. In reaching these results Dr. Hann made use of the records from the Alpine high-level observatories.

The *Dramatic Mirror Quarterly*, edited by Harrison Gray Fiske, and published at No. 145 Fifth Avenue, has just been started, bearing the date of June, 1890. It consists of original signed papers on the actor's art, plus a dramatic diary.

Prof. William James of Harvard College has been appointed census-taker of hallucinations in America, on behalf of the Society for Psychical Research. The aim is to accumulate a mass of facts, and also to discover how large a proportion of persons have had experience of hallucinations. The question put is, "Have you ever, when completely awake, had a vivid impression of seeing or being touched by a living being or inanimate object, or of hearing a voice; which impression, so far as you could

discover, was not due to any external physical cause?" A negative answer will be valued as much as an affirmative. Prof. James will furnish blanks to canvassers who would like to assist him.

—The twenty-second volume of Leslie Stephen's 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) runs from Glover to Gravet. The editor has reserved for himself William and Mary Godwin, Goldsmith, and Lord George Gordon, "agitator"; and these sketches are all excellent examples of the writer's unsurpassed faculty for this sort of writing. Other noticeable sketches are those of Chinese Gordon (7 pp.), Grattan (8 pp.), and Graham of Claverhouse (16 pp.). Under Sir James Graham, we read, apropos of the scandal caused by the Home Secretary's opening the correspondence of the refugee Italian patriots, that "the power still remains in the hands" of that official, though "Graham's case is likely to be a lesson enforcing prudence." And while we are speaking of Grahams, let us note the omission of James Grahame, one of the most approved historians of the United States down to the inception of the republic, as well as author of other works. Not a few early American worthies turn up in this volume—Ferdinando Gorges, Bartholomew Gosnold, Goffe, the regicide, and his estimable friend Daniel Gookin, with the problematic Samuel Gorton. The Rev. Morgan Godwin, who preached in Virginia under Gov. Berkeley, was a zealous friend of the negro and the Indian. Thomas Godfrey, born in Philadelphia, produced the first play written in America. John B. Gough rose to the head of temperance orators here as well as in his native Britain. Mr. Edmund Gosse writes the sketch of his father, Philip Henry Gosse, who married Miss Emily Bowes, of New England parentage. Mrs. Anne Grant, author of the 'Memoirs of an American Lady,' passed her girlhood with the Schuylers as their protégée. Lewis Gompertz, the originator of societies for the prevention of cruelty to animals, and Sir Daniel Gooch, who had a hand in the beginnings of railways, tunnels, telegraphic cables, and even the *Great Eastern*, are the most conspicuous of the pioneers recorded in the present volume.

— Mr. Andrew Lang, a few years ago, made in his 'Custom and Myth' an exposition of his very sensible theory that a better explanation of many myths is likely to be found in the existing customs and beliefs of savages than is always to be had from the speculations and moral consciousness of too cultivated folklorists. A doctrine analogous to this applied to history is set forth in a recent article on the French Sudan in the *Nouvelle Revue*. The writer, Captain Péroz, takes for his text a remark of Dr. Béranger-Féraud's about the tribes of Senegambia, among which he has lived. The latter says that, in meditating upon their rudimentary social organization, he has often asked himself whether he was not contemplating a state of things that closely resembles the life led in times past by his own ancestors, the Gauls and the Franks. At last he became so entirely persuaded of the truth of this view that he puts it forth unconditionally: "The historian of our day," he says, "may see unrolled before his eyes in these countries a course of things which has not been seen for centuries in our own." Captain Péroz accepts this view, which he thinks may be widened so as to include all the conditions of life and society, men as well as things, the soil as well as its products. He sees much corroboration of it in his own experiences in the French Sudan, where at times it seemed to him as if he were really living in prehistoric Gaul.

—M. Auguste Marcade, who writes of Captain Péroz's article in the *Figaro* of April 12, says that it finds valuable and unexpected support in a learned and curious study on 'Les Curés avant 1789,' contributed to the *Correspondant* by the Abbé Sicard. The Abbé explains the rise of country villages, of which there were very few in France before the tenth century, by the impulse given to monasticism by the Benedictine Reform. The monks went out everywhere into waste places in the country, and built oratories, and lived by agriculture. These monastic chapels developed in the course of time into parish churches as the scattered inhabitants of the country gathered more and more around the monasteries, and villages were formed. It is well known that Cardinal Lavigerie hopes and expects that some such results may come from his missions in Northern and Central Africa; and the work of some of the English missionaries in the Eastern Equatorial region has, we believe, been directed towards the same end. There are grounds for hope that missionary work of this sort may leave more lasting traces than did an old-fashioned kind, which sometimes began and ended in the administration of the sacrament of baptism to savages who knew not a word of the missionary's language, nor he of theirs.

— Those who have been interested in the periodical *Artistic Japan*, which has been noticed in previous numbers of the *Nation*, will find pleasure of a kindred sort in the new publication which comes to us from Japan itself. The name of this appears to be simply *Ko-ka*, which is translated as 'Flowers of the Country.' The price is named as $10 a year, or $1.00 for each monthly part, but we are not informed whether any New York agent will undertake the delivery of the numbers at that price. Three of these numbers have reached our table. The text is entirely in Japanese; the improvement of an added text in some European language is yet to come. Each number contains either five or six full-page illustrations, the page being nine by fifteen inches, if we do not count that unavailable part of the margin which is taken up by the knotting with silk in the Japanese fashion. Of these illustrations, some are photographic reproductions of ancient paintings, and these are extremely well rendered. Only those who have tried to get good photographs here in New York of Japanese kakemonos and the like will understand how difficult this is. Even the one in which a painting on silk of a Buddhist subject, apparently of great antiquity, is imitated, has come out satisfactorily. The distinction between the transparent painting, through which the threads of the material show, and the loaded painting of the faces and some parts of the costume, is evident enough, and it is evident that the quality of the whole, apart from its color, is as well given as there is any hope of in such reproductions. Other plates are photogravures from the objects themselves, as, for instance, the interior of what we take to be the temple at Nara, with special attention given to the elaborate timber roof, to show which the photograph has been distorted in a curious fashion, reminding one of those photographs of Gothic vaults in Europe which have been taken specially for architectural study. Others again are in color, and here photography does not appear, except that it may have been used to assure correct drawing, the plate having apparently been worked by that process of printing in color which is tolerably familiar to those who have studied Japanese art. This process, in which the Japanese easily distance competition, has been so used that the appearance of fidelity to the ancient and probably precious original is very great indeed.

— We shall hope for more such colored plates as these in future numbers. Japanese color-printing should be made as familiar to Europeans as possible. Besides the large prints, there is in each number at least one drawing printed with the text, and mainly an outline. One of these represents ancient pieces of armor, much shattered and decayed, evidently a part of the storehouse of some temple or palace. Another shows the exterior of that famous treasure-house at Nara to which special attention has been called of late, and which has come down, almost unchanged, from a remote antiquity. The books are made up in a purely Japanese fashion, covered with pretty paper, printed with a pattern in green and silver on a gray ground, a different pattern being given on the inside and the outside of the covers. The publication is specially worthy of the attention of those who wish to study Japanese art in its least modified, its least sophisticated form. Let the Japanese choose the works of art that you shall study, and let them present such works of art to you in their own way, if you would learn what Japanese art really is. The interpretations of the European commentator will often mislead, and cannot replace the stating of the case which a native will offer you.

—There is strange news relative to the famous Paston letters. Four volumes of the first impression of them were brought out by Sir John Fenn, and a fifth by his nephew, Mr. Serjeant Frere. But to the originals of a considerable portion of this aggregate there hangs a tale. Of the various fate of the remaining originals the details are set forth at length by Mr. James Gairdner, in his excellent edition of the Letters, issued in 1872–'75; and the story is also there told of the mysterious disappearance of the manuscripts from which Sir John Fenn derived the contents of his two first volumes. These manuscripts, three bound volumes, were presented by Sir John to George the Third in 1787. Yet in less than two years they were missing. According to Mr. Gairdner, "there is a tradition that they were last seen in the hands of Queen Charlotte, who, it is supposed, must have lent them to one of her ladies in attendance." Some forty years ago, the late Prince Consort instituted a thorough search for them in the Royal Library at Windsor Castle, but only to end in disappointment. Not a trace of them was discoverable. And now, after the lapse of a century, they have at last turned up in a most unexpected quarter, of their migration to which it would be curious to know the presumably unknowable history. They have come to light in the library of the late Colonel George Tomline, at his seat, Orwell Park, Nacton, in Suffolk. Colonel Tomline was grandson of Bishop Pretyman, afterwards called Tomline, of anti-Calvinistic memory, who was, first, tutor, and subsequently private secretary, to the second William Pitt. The Bishop, it is said, was greatly interested in the manuscript letters; and how, unless through him, they can have found their way to the bookshelves of his descendant is difficult to conjecture. In all likelihood, their resurrection will not, however, prove to be of particular importance. In most cases where Sir John Fenn's discharge of his duties as editor could be tested by reference to the documents which he professed to reproduce, Mr. Gairdner has satisfied himself that it is marked by the most

praiseworthy scrupulousness. From time to time it has been suggested that Sir John, emulating Chatterton and Macpherson, was the perpetrator of a wholesale fabrication; and the suggestion, a very groundless one, has just been revived. Slight indeed is the hazard in believing that the Paston Letters, after whatever critical investigation, will continue to be accepted as an authentic and valuable contribution to our knowledge of England and Englishmen in that troublous period the fifteenth century, and also of the familiar language, then current, of our forefathers. Cruel would be the blow were we compelled to relegate even Margery Brews's love-letters to John Paston to the category of forgeries.

—Few Harvard graduates know that the College library possesses some thirty volumes of Goethe's writings, marked "Gift of the Author, J. W. v. Goethe of Germany, received Dec. 8, 1819." The fact of this gift, interesting as it is in itself, receives an additional interest from the manner in which it came about. It seems that Dr. J. G. Cogswell, who, with Ticknor, Hedge, and Bancroft, was among the earliest and most devoted friends, in this country, of German scholarship, was also one of the first to awaken Goethe's interest in the most venerable of American seats of learning. Readers of Miss Ticknor's admirable edition of Cogswell's memoirs will remember the touching description of his visit to Goethe and their animated conversation about American life and culture. Before Cogswell came to Weimar, he had shared the widespread prejudice that Goethe was proud and cold; indeed, in one of his letters from Göttingen, he does not hesitate to call him "insufferably vain," and to report in corroboration of his judgment an anecdote which must have impressed him very differently from the way in which it would appear to us of the present day. In an interview with a visiting Frenchman, Goethe is reported to have said: "I know that the world regards me as a carpenter who has built a ship of war, of the first rate, upon a mountain, thousands of miles from the ocean—but the water will rise, my ship will float, and bear her builder in triumph where human genius never reached before." "This," Cogswell adds, "is vanity which can have no parallel. Next week I shall be at Weimar and probably see this strange beast." He did see Goethe; and, instead of the proud, repelling giant for whom he was prepared, he found a kind, benignant man, who received the young foreigner with natural and unaffected heartiness. He soon turned the conversation upon America, and its hopes and promise, and displayed a minute knowledge of the character of its people. He spoke of Boston and its local situation, of the productions of American soil, of the larger scale of crystallizations in America as compared with those of other continents, and of the great prospects of American literature. And throughout their conversation, Cogswell says, he "made juster and more rational observations than I ever heard from any man in Europe." This was in April, 1817, and from that time on until he returned to this country, Cogswell remained in frequent and intimate communication with Goethe. In August, 1819, he went again to Weimar, to take leave of Goethe. "And will you remember me," said the poet, "when you are surrounded by your friends at home? and may I believe that there is a heart in the New World which cares for me?"

—Only one of Goethe's letters to Mr. Cogswell has been preserved, but happily this one throws some light on the Goethe collection in the Harvard College Library. In it Goethe informs his young American friend that he has just sent to the latter's address a parcel containing his "poetical and scientific writings," which he wishes Cogswell would forward to his "dear fellow-countrymen," to whom, he adds, he often finds himself "transported in thought and feeling." That the books mentioned in this letter, which is dated Weimar, August 11, 1819, were intended as a gift to Harvard College and are identical with those now in our possession, is evident from the following entry in the Harvard Corporation Records of the year 1819, which we give here verbatim:

"Translation of Goethe's note:

Through the agency of Mr. J. G. Cogswell.
Goethe's Works. Vol. I.–XX.
Doctrine of the Colours. Vol. I.–II,
—— —— Plates. 4to.
The Propylæa. Vol. I.–III.
Life of J. G. Hackert.
Travels in Italy. Vol. I.–II.
Art and Antiquity. Vol. I.–II.
On Natural Science.
Bohemian Mountains (3 copies).
Iphigenia translated into modern Greek (3 copies).
Occasional Poems.

The above poetical and scientific works are presented to the library of the University at Cambridge in New England, as a mark of deep interest in its high literary character, and in the successful zeal it has displayed through so long a course of years for the promotion of solid and elegant education.

"With the high respects of the author,
"J. W. v. GOETHE.

"WEIMAR, Aug. 11, 1819."

MOORE'S GOTHIC ARCHITECTURE.

Development and Character of Gothic Architecture. By Charles Herbert Moore. With illustrations. Macmillan & Co. Pp. 333.

GOTHIC architecture has never been properly studied by persons who write in English, because what study has been given to it—and it has been much and minute—has been in connection with the so-called Gothic revival in England, beginning in 1840 or thereabouts. This movement has failed entirely to make the architecture of England generally Gothic, or to make even the ecclesiastical architecture of England Gothic in any true sense. The art has not as yet become a modern art, nor has any form of modern art grown out of it in a natural and satisfactory manner. We are left, therefore, to study it as a subject of archæological research, as a part of the history of fine art; and in this respect, as has been said, it has been hitherto neglected by English-speaking people, mainly because of the enthusiastic advocacy of it as a style to build in, on the one hand, and the consequent violent opposition to it, on the other, among architects and decorators.

Mr. Moore's book is to be welcomed as one of the very few serious contributions to this critical study of Gothic architecture, and almost the only one in English. He devotes a chapter to the nature of Gothic architecture. The second chapter, which is much the longest in the book, is devoted to "Gothic Construction in France," and the third to "Pointed Construction in England," these titles indicating the distinction which Mr. Moore wishes to draw between the true and original Gothic buildings of France and the borrowed and less truly Gothic buildings of England. Chapters follow on the pointed construction of Germany, Italy, Spain; on the Gothic profiles of France, and the architectural profiles of the pointed style in other countries; on Gothic painting and stained glass in France and other countries; and on Gothic sculpture in France and other countries.

The book is interesting and truly valuable. The slightest examination shows that it is sincere beyond what is common, full of hearty love for the subject, and yet devoid of prejudice, and that it represents a great deal of careful observation and of earnest thought. Mr. Moore, with a long career as painter and draughtsman of extraordinary delicacy and refinement, and as a teacher of drawing and painting with a singular gift at exciting the enthusiasm and admiration of his pupils, is not an architect nor professedly a student of archæology; and one opens the book rather expecting to find evidence of a certain lack of precision and of minute accuracy in his knowledge of the subject. But it must be stated, at the commencement of our inquiry, that there is very little such evidence to be found, and that it is clear that the enthusiasm and admiration which we have spoken of have sufficed to replace long-continued and special training.

In one respect, however, the book is a disappointment, namely, in the illustrations. Such an artist as Mr. Moore is, so gifted, so accomplished, and so experienced, might have given us, one thinks, more drawings equal to the best of these. The extremely unsatisfactory English architectural wood-engraving of the day is seen, in about its normal condition, in the general drawings of large churches, which the preface assigns to Mr. H. W. Brewer; and the drawings of detail, also in the English manner, though better certainly than the views of Reims, Lincoln, and Ely, are still ugly enough, and very unsatisfactory to one who wishes the true effect of a piece of Gothic carving. We think the student had a right to expect more drawings like that of the front of Senlis, on page 107, or of the apse of St.-Leu d'Esserent, on page 79, or of the Church of Vaux-sous-Laon, on page 104. Such beautiful drawings of sculpture as the one on page 256—the culmination, we think, of the rendering of Gothic sculpture by free-hand drawing—no one has a right to expect, though we had hoped for more of them than this book affords. Most of the other drawings of sculpture are very inferior to this; yet such illustrations as that on page 267, that on page 271, and that on page 250 are certainly admirable in other ways, and very satisfactory to the student. On the whole, the book lacks illustration. There are many cases where the explanation is insufficient, where more illustration is needed. If the cost of the very ugly English engravings could have been saved, and applied to such drawings of associated detail as the one on page 80, the one on page 85, and the others previously mentioned, it would have been well for the book and for its readers.

With regard to the subject-matter of the book, it must be said that, for the last fifteen years, there has been a general consensus of opinion among all but English archæologists that Gothic architecture had its rise in the near neighborhood of Paris, about the middle of the twelfth century; nor is it safe to say that the English archæologists have positively asserted the contrary. Those loud claims of the credit of the invention of Gothic architecture for England which have undoubtedly been made, have often been almost confessedly partisan in their nature, and partake rather of patriotism than of criticism. It has also been agreed generally that England and Spain received the immense gift of the new style in the spirit in which it was offered, finding the need of those constructional devices which, when boldly applied, made Gothic architecture. It is generally agreed, too, that Germany was slower to receive this because the German Romanesque had reached a great pitch of de-

velopment at the middle of the twelfth century, and vast and noble structures had only recently been built in that style; and, furthermore, that Italy was the slowest of all to adopt the new style, and adopted it always with a certain reluctance. In saying that it is generally so agreed, however, we mean to imply no tiresome reiteration of well-worn truths in Mr. Moore's statement of these facts. Gothic architecture has excited so little interest during the last fifteen years that the conclusions we have mentioned above have scarcely attracted general attention, and are confined to seldom-opened pages of books which may otherwise be in daily use, or to articles in periodicals which are rarely consulted after the date of their issue.

Mr. Moore has done a service to all of us in putting these conclusions into a permanent and readable form, but his book goes further than this, and asserts positively that English Gothic, for instance, should hardly be called Gothic at all, because of the incomplete acceptance of the constructional programme which he claims for the Gothic builders of France. The incompleteness of the Gothic vaulting of England, in many cases even of the best time, may be admitted. The lingering of Romanesque principles of building in the midst of the pointed architecture even of the thirteenth century is evident—more evident than before, now that Mr. Moore has marshalled the instances of it in array. The apparently reluctant adoption of the new principles, and the failure to push them to their legitimate consequences, whether along new and purely English lines or in imitation of the French—all that is true, and it is true that a frank pushing of their principles to their legitimate conclusions is hardly to be found until the introduction of what is called the Perpendicular Style, or even, as we should say, the Fan-Vaulting Style, which is to all appearances an English invention, and one for which full credit should be given to the island builders. But it is difficult to state as positively as our author does that the buildings built according to this modified programme are not Gothic. A new definition must be set up if we propose to deny the name of Gothic to a building constructed with ribbed vaults—the ribs forming pointed arches and having their thrust taken up by buttresses and flying buttresses—for the single reason that it lacks wall-ribs, or that the vaulting-ribs all start from the same level. Between scholars, it may pass; one purist may say to another that he does not call such work as that Gothic at all, and his remark will be understood, and will not seem unduly exaggerated or inappropriate; but it is hardly safe to say to the public that such a building is not Gothic—hardly safe because not (in the sense that the public understands it) true.

It is also to be stated that an argument of this sort does not set the question at rest, because of the lack of dates which are accepted by all parties. Until a chronology of buildings and parts of buildings can be issued which will, in a sense, challenge contradiction or adverse criticism, it will be impossible to expect the students of any country to abandon unanimously their claim for such distinction as the first introduction of Gothic architecture. In the absence of documents giving accurate dates, reasons for the approximate dates given must be made extremely clear. If we do not know, by undoubted manuscripts of the time, in what year the building of such a nave or such a choir was begun, sufficient reasons for believing it to be within five years of the given date must be stated, and the partial reasons for believing it prior to or contemporaneous with such another building must also be made very clear. A dry, perhaps unreadable, almost tabular statement of these successive epochs is needed; but none of the treatises or partial treatises that have yet appeared has pretended to give us this. We go on asserting, on each other's authority, that such a nave was begun in 1180, and that it appears to have been dedicated in 1194, and the like. But, in the first place, the authority for these dates is not inquired into sufficiently, being, as we have said, too readily copied by one writer from another, on the principle on which dictionaries have generally been made; and, secondly, we lack that minute examination by experts into the work itself which will enable one to say, for instance, that it is almost certain that the walls of the nave were carried up in the first two years, and that then there elapsed a considerable space of time before the turning of the ribs of the vaulted roof.

It is not that we think for a moment that Mr. Moore's book should contain this kind of information. We have no right to ask it of him, as he did not propose to furnish it; but it is to be noted that he cannot expect unanimous assent to the rather staggering assertions that he makes—which, however, there is good reason to believe substantially correct—until this kind of work shall have been done by him or for him.

As regards other parts of his work, which are not of primary importance to his inquiry, it is probable that a few years will show reason for reconsideration of the statement that the Italians were slow to accept Gothic architecture. There is many an early monastic church in Italy which has been scarcely studied until of late, full examination of which will probably give cause to modify this opinion. We miss any adequate explanation of that popular movement which created the French cathedral—a movement partly copied, to be sure, in other countries, but which had its origin in northern and central France, and which is far from being exclusively ecclesiastical or even religious. Again we have to say that a deal of dry investigation and of dry writing will have to be gone through before any one can speak with entire freedom of this supremely important factor in the making of Gothic architecture.

TOZER'S ÆGEAN ISLANDS.

The Islands of the Ægean. By the Rev. Henry Fanshaw Tozer, M.A., F.R.G.S., Fellow and Tutor of Exeter College, Oxford, author of 'The Highlands of Turkey,' 'The Geography of Greece,' etc. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

MR. TOZER'S book is a great disappointment. It is useless to be an able Hellenist, and, knowing the modern Greek, to travel in the portions of the Hellenic world so rarely visited as to be almost unknown to travellers, and yet produce a work which is nothing more than a cursory guide-book for casual sight-seers, and which might have been produced by any average scholar with the aid of the books he mentions. These are Ross's 'Reisen,' Pashley's 'Crete,' Conze's 'Reise,' and Mr. Bent's 'Cyclades.' Mr. Tozer also mentions once, in the course of the text, Spratt's 'Crete,' but he does not seem to have read it, or, if he has, to have profited by it, or he would not have made the mistake he does concerning the Euroclydon of St. Paul. Spratt explains it, from the nautical expert point of view, to be what is known in the eastern Mediterranean as the *Meltem*, a squall which bursts from the high lands down on the adjoining sea. The chapter on Delos, Rhenea, and Tenos might as well not have been published, as it was written in 1874, since when the changes are such that the immovable natural features alone remain to confirm the narrative. As a help to those who might wish to follow him in the journey of 1874 he has left no hint. The lines of steamers have all changed, and Syra is no longer the entrepot for all the archipelago as then, and the steamers now leaving for Crete are no longer limited to the Austrian Lloyds, but the passenger has a choice between three lines leaving Zante, Peiræus, and Syra. In the first chapter we notice a blunder of an historical character in attributing the origin of Malmsey wine to the district of Monemvasia in the Morea, the fact being that it came from Malevisia in Crete, and was the *raison d'être* of the establishment of an English consul in Crete, whose business was to supply Harry the Eighth with this wine. It is represented to-day by the Agios Myron, which is grown on the eastern slopes of Ida.

Crete, which, from the later phases of its history and its political importance, one would have expected to find the author deeply interested in, even if its archæological material had been less than it is, does not seem to have received more than a mere glance, the travellers landing at Canea and simply riding through to Candia, where they reëmbarked for Syra, having seen only the most commonly visited part of the island, and apparently only as the commonplace tourist visits anything, to say that he has seen it. At the moment, while the island is in the desolation of another return of Turkish barbarism, the note which Mr. Tozer makes of its condition six years after the end of the great insurrection of 1866, is worth reading:

"It was here that we first began to realize how terrible had been the results of the last insurrection (1866–'9). Every village that we passed through, and all that we could see along the hill-sides, had been plundered, gutted, and burnt; nothing but ruin met the eye; it was as if a horde of Tartars had swept over the face of the country. A few of these belonged to Mahometans, but the great majority were Christians; and on our arrival the miserable inhabitants—those, that is to say, who had not emigrated—emerged from the lower story of their houses, which they had temporarily repaired, half-clothed and half-starved. . . . This state of things we subsequently found to prevail throughout the island; along our whole route not a single village was standing; and what distressed us most was to find that many of those who were in this lamentable condition were persons of some position and very fair education. Another thing, also, we gathered pretty plainly, viz., that they would rise in insurrection again when the next opportunity presented itself; and this was hardly to be wondered at, for they had nothing to lose, and could hardly be in a worse plight than they were in at that time."

A visit was made to the convent of Arkadi, celebrated for one of those acts of heroic desperation which make the scene of them sacred to history, and the author gives a very incorrect and diminished account of its catastrophe, but is at no pains to furnish a tolerable description of its condition or position. He had, indeed, visited the convent of Agios Eleutherios near Canea, but did not take the trouble to go to the Agia Triada in the Acrotiri, a far more interesting and picturesque site and convent in the same vicinity; and he passes within a short distance of Preveli, the loveliest refuge of meditative monachism in the entire island, and does not mention it. He makes a détour, it is true, to Gortyna, where he refers for "the wonderful archaic inscription" found there in 1884 to "Mr. Roberts's interesting paper in the *Classical Review*," instead of to the discoverer,

Signor Halbherr's, narrative. It would indeed be difficult to find so listless and pointless a record of any journey in a classical land made by a person of Mr. Tozer's competence, one so closely resembling the condensed diary of a Cook's tourist, as this in Crete. The impression it gives is, that it is the half-oblivious record of the vacation excursion of an over-tired schoolmaster, too jaded to see anything well or remember what he had seen. The journey might have been refreshing and possibly instructive; but the result has hardly an excuse for being printed.

The succeeding chapters on Lesbos, Chios, Samos, Patmos, and the other islands still under the Turkish rule as far as Samothrace, have the merit of somewhat greater freshness, having been written on journeys made in 1886, twelve years after the Cretan voyage. But a curious evidence of the inattention of the author to the details of the life of the people among whom he moved is in the chapter on Lesbos, in which he notices with surprise that they eat the octopus. He says: "The octopus is a considerable article of food in the island, and not among the lower classes only. At the restaurant which we frequented in the town of Mytilene it was entered on the *menu* as one of the dishes, and *we heard it ordered*," which he might have done in any restaurant in Greece or Italy which was frequented by the common people, or even any class which is in the habit of eating at restaurants. The octopus is a common article of food all round the Mediterranean, and when young and tender is one of the best flavored of all the tenants of the deep; the eaters of it, like Mr. Tozer, making no distinction between the cuttle-fish and the octopus proper.

With regard to some of the islands which are rarely visited, we look for more precise information from a man whose education qualifies him for gathering it; but even there we get not only no original research, but not even vivid description which shall enable us to realize what has been vaguely said of their rare picturesqueness by casual travellers. Of Thasos, whose forests are proverbial among the Greek islands, Mr. Tozer writes:

"Descending on foot, I reached the forest, and followed the path that winds downward through it in the midst of most enjoyable surroundings. The calls of the goat-herds to their flocks, the tinkling of the goat-bells, the curling wreaths of smoke from the charcoal-burners' fires, and, as an accompaniment to these, the whispering pines, the running streams, and the expanse of blue sea, formed the perfection of rural scenery. The plain is covered with olive-trees, the extraordinary age of which is shown by their gnarled and twisted trunks; and the turf beneath them was starred with pink anemones and the blue heads of the grape hyacinth."

This is not only Mr. Tozer's best, it is all that he says of the forests of Thasos. He has confused forest, mountain, and plain in one picture.

In what is reported of these least known islands there is something that may serve travellers who mean to visit them as respects the manner of communication and the difficulties of living; but for much information beyond an idea of how the author enjoyed his journeys and how any one else might make them, it is useless to look to the book. As a guide-book even it is not so good as the ancient 'Isles de la Grèce' of Lacroix, which was printed in 1853, for the author has not taken the pains to recall the legends and historical events which alone make travelling in those classic lands more pathetic and interesting than in the more western lands.

RECENT NOVELS.

Mrs. Fenton. By W. E. Norris. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

The Young Queen, and Other Stories. By E. S. Vicars. London: George Bell & Sons.

Viera. A Romance 'Twixt the Real and Ideal. By Roman I. Zubof. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

Erlach Court. Translated from the German of Ossip Schubin by Mrs. A. L. Wister. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Magdalen's Fortunes. By W. Heimburg. Translated by Mrs. J. W. Davis. Worthington Co.

Countess Loreley. Translated from the German of Rudolf Menger by Miss Dandridge. D. Appleton & Co.

ANOTHER one of the never unwelcome children of Mr. Norris's pen greets us in 'Mrs. Fenton.' Here is, as usual, the clear English which reads itself, a little plot, and a few characters, all well drawn, none deeply interesting. Yet it always turns out that there is not a dull page between Mr. Norris's covers, and that many a well-sent shaft strikes home upon the sense of humor. His is the genius for comfort. His philosophy, his satire, his wit, his cynicism, his tragedy, are all comfortable and make us so. In a recent work of his, that destroyer of modern fiction, Organized Charity, attempted an appearance as one who will no longer be balked of her natural prey. Lo! even that baleful She changed under our author's alchemy, and turned ministering angel. Is it surprising that this talent for geniality should endear him and his novels to the public?

'The Young Queen' and the eight stories grouped with it, are of the young and for the young; but, being quite without the objectionable quality which such stories often have, of a sub-conscious appeal to the elders, they at once become pleasing to readers of all ages. They are slight in construction, some of them being mere fragments; but their quality is both rare and fine, and makes itself felt by a delicate pungency and a graceful originality. A chattering school-girl who appears in several of the sketches is capitally drawn. The story of two girls who go unchaperoned to a fancy ball is charming. Their meeting with a guest who represents Pepys, and their badinage with him in perfect understanding of the literary situation, is but one example of the pretty wit that runs through the book. The whole breathes an unusual spirit of humor, of compactness of style, and of a fine cultivation, speaking in light, natural tones, and not put on for the making of a book.

That 'Viera' is announced as a romance "'twixt the real and the ideal" prepares the reader for a good deal of balderdash, and this expectation is amply fulfilled. A young man named Alick succeeds to the title and estates of a disreputable gambling uncle. Among his new possessions is the portrait, and also the ghost, of a terrible old gambler who in his lifetime played with the uncle. He now plays with Alick, the stakes being a beautiful young woman, who appears as a sort of astral body. The card-playing takes place only on Fridays. On intervening days Alick rides and talks philosophy and slang with a cousin, of the "young-man-called-John" type, and visits a pretty kinswoman. The latter he stimulates to lofty action in page upon page of turgidity, bidding her "renounce the society whose conditions suck the very life-blood of her moral being." When he pauses for breath she prods him with polysyllables—or demolishes a chance antagonist who is present at one of the debates, by saying: "The abundant facts of history demonstrate against your contentions." Viera, the ideal maiden, now begins to carry Alick off upon aerial excursions. Soaring through the signs of the Zodiac, they visit heaven, Siberia, and other places, giving each other good advice upon love en route. In Alick's heart it is nip and tuck between Viera of the interstellar spaces and Edith of the spiritualistic séances and picnics; but a lecture of twenty pages on woman's rights delivered by Edith in a public hall carries the day. Alick forsakes Viera, and, after the due attack of brain fever, marries Edith, and we leave them, the world, and the universe, "revolving and striving towards the perfect realization of their archetype."

Ossip Schubin's novels are well known in Austria and Germany; but, so far as we know, do not often find themselves in America. This is the more surprising because they are far better suited to the modern taste than are the antiquated affairs, half nursery, half madhouse, which contrive to get themselves translated from the German as entertaining fiction. Ossip Schubin deals largely with scenes laid among the Austrian aristocracy. In 'Erlach Court' the characters are notably real, or, when unusual, are drawn with a commanding touch which gives them a title to life. There is, moreover, a vein of exceeding cleverness which yields delightful flashes on every page. The story is by no means dull, but it is the way of telling it which is chiefly attractive. When, as sometimes happens, the characters crowd too closely, they bring their own excuse in the vividness of their being. This goes far to cover the fault of a certain loose-endedness in the construction. Mrs. Wister's translation is of course admirably made, and the public will thank her for what she has done and for her skill in doing it.

'The Countess Loreley' is also translated, and well translated, from the German. Like 'Erlach Court,' it is thoroughly modern, and, so far, a novelty. It is, however, far less spontaneous and sparkling, though affording an occasional noteworthy observation. The Loreley herself is somewhat hazy as a portrait, and the group of gentlemen who surround her are rather too much in the extremes of excellence or unworthiness to be very real personages. The author, too, seems to have been conscientiously painstaking in keeping the story as near the verge of the disagreeable as possible, without any honest cause. Some scenes from the campaign of 1870 are hardly more than a feint of making a serious affair of the book, which persists in appearing nebulous and frivolous, spite of much bloodshed. We leave the Loreley smiling upon her third husband, and wonder if this is to be the novelist's new vogue.

'Magdalen's Fortunes,' on the other hand, appeals strongly to the psychologic sense of having experienced it before, which may be due either to the separate action of the lobes of the brain, or to the inherent qualities of this class of German novels. One is forced to remember the madman whose delusion was that he had a state dinner every day; "yet," said he, "somehow everything that I eat tastes of oatmeal porridge." How well we know already "the stately man," the "pale, lovely girl," with golden braids; the faithful coachman Gottlieb, the haughty matron, the machinating widow, the forester living in the deep wood, the spring landscape, and the obsolete upholstery. There is nothing to offend, and it may even yield an anæmic pleasure. The present estimate, however, would class it among those books which afford "not enjoyment and not sorrow."

A Naturalist among the Head-Hunters. Being an account of three visits to the Solomon Islands in the years 1886, 1887, and 1888. By Charles M. Woodford. London: G. Philip & Son; New York: Longmans. 1890. Pp. xii, 249. 8vo.

THE Royal Geographical Society has paid a high and well-deserved tribute to the value of Mr. C. M. Woodford's work in the Solomon Islands in making him their Gill memorialist for this year. It required no little devotion to science and a rare courage to live alone, for months at a time, among a people who, during the last two years, have murdered one white man out of every three among them—a people whose first thought on seeing a stranger is, "Will he kill me?" the second, "Can I kill him?" Mr. Woodford's purely geographical work was inconsiderable in comparison with the zoölogical, his collections consisting of more than 20,000 specimens, with many species new to science. The most interesting chapter in his book is an account of an ordinary day's occupation, in which he shows unusual powers of description of bird and insect life. The morning he spent in collecting, accompanied by his boy Barakossa, "a youth of about twelve years of age, who combines in himself the offices of cook, keeper of the animals, collector of orchids, and general adviser on native matters." By four in the afternoon his day's captures are put up, and his native collectors begin to appear with butterflies, prawns, snakes, or birds, receiving in return sticks of tobacco. One boy alone desires his butterflies to be put to his credit, as he wants a large knife valued at twelve sticks. Until night-fall the natives sit about his hut discussing the news and begging for tobacco, which, however, they will not steal. Though he left his hut, containing a large store of this precious commodity, sometimes for a week at a time, the door being closed simply with palm leaves, Mr. Woodford never lost "so much as a stick of tobacco." The evening is devoted to bird-skinning, and capturing the moths and beetles which, attracted by the light, fly in at the open door. This life was diversified by occasional trips in traders' schooners or canoes to different places, and by lengthened excursions into the interior of two of the islands.

Our traveller does not appear to have been as keen an observer of human life as he was of birds and insects, and frankly confesses that the longer he lived on the Solomons the more conscious he became "of possessing nothing but the most superficial knowledge of the natives and their customs." In this respect he differs from Prof. Lumholtz, which is to be regretted, as the Solomon Islanders are far more interesting than the North Australian savages. They cultivate the ground, build excellent keel-boats on scientific principles, and have some skill in ornamentation and carving. Although naturally treacherous and cowardly, when their confidence was won they were apparently trustworthy, and, as we have seen, strictly honest. Cannibalism and head-hunting is decreasing, though still rife in some of the islands. On one of them this singular custom prevails:

"All the villages of the district will club together and make a pool of native money, shell-beads, armlets, necklaces of porpoise teeth, and other ornaments, which goes to the village that distinguishes itself most in the attack upon the first vessel that comes along. At the village of Manaqui, at the time I am writing of, might have been seen a receptacle, raised on four posts and approached by a ladder. This was used as a bank for the pool money so collected. At the time I last left the group, viz., December, 1888, I knew that there was money out in this part of Malaita for a ship, and I regret to hear that the pool has since been won by an attack on the small trading schooner *Savo*, in which three white men and twelve natives lost their lives."

Mr. Woodford discovered during his last visit that an extensive and widespread system of castes exists upon some of the Southern islands. He could learn little of them besides the facts that "a man might not marry a woman belonging to his own caste," and that "natives belonging to tribes speaking a different language will be found to belong to the same caste." The fauna of the Solomon Islands is extremely interesting, as it includes many extraordinary species, as rats "nearly two feet in length," tree-climbers; frogs weighing over two pounds and a half; butterflies which measured "nearly nine inches across the wings," and the smallest of parrots known. This last, together with several species of bats, was discovered by our author. Although the islands are but five hundred miles distant from New Guinea, they have but one marsupial and no birds of paradise. It should be added, however, that our knowledge of them is by no means complete, the interior of none of the larger islands (which contain lofty mountain ranges, in one instance, on Bougainville, 10,000 feet high) having been explored. In the closing chapters a connected narrative is given of two of the author's trips, and there is an appendix treating of the different languages with vocabularies, and one in which it is argued that San Christoval was the sacred isle of Bouro—according to their traditions, the cradle of the Polynesian race.

There is much that is interesting in Mr. Woodford's book, though he was hampered by the fact that Dr. Guppy had gone over much the same ground in greater detail in his larger and more important work on these islands, published three years ago. The maps and illustrations are excellent. One of the boy collectors shows an unusually well-shaped head and a pleasing and intelligent face.

The Working Principles of Political Economy in a New and Practical Form: A Book for Beginners. By S. M. Macvane. New York: Effingham Maynard & Co. 1890.

IF it be true of political economy, as Prof. Macvane declares, that "there is nothing in the science that young persons of ordinary ability may not master if only they apply themselves," how shall we explain the fact that in their dealings with it not only our legislators, but most of our writers, and even many of our professors, betray incompetency? In truth, the science is not an easy one, and any mastery of it obtained by the schoolboy is likely to be a mastery of words and not of ideas. But we do not hesitate to say that for those who wish to apply themselves seriously to this study, no sounder guidance than is here provided is anywhere to be found. Almost all current discussion of social topics suffers from a blunder about wages that has been in recent years extensively received. Prof. Macvane renders the community a valuable service in demonstrating the absurdity of the view that wages are drawn from the product of the labor for which the wages are paid, instead of being advanced out of previous savings. The clearness and force with which this is done are thoroughly admirable, and there will be hereafter no excuse for disregarding in these discussions the all-important element of time.

The fact that we select this demonstration for praise is by no means to be taken as implying that the treatment of other questions is not marked by the same ability. Few books display a stronger grasp throughout on the part of the author of all the details of his subject, and if we limit our special commendation to one point, it is only because that point is at present of peculiar timeliness. The few criticisms that we shall venture upon relate to comparatively unimportant matters, and are intended only to draw attention to statements which seem likely to occcasion learners some confusion.

Thus the statement that buying is easier than selling, although perhaps a maxim among business men, will hardly bear examination. In the first place, every purchase is a sale, and secondly, injudicious buying is the most potent cause of ruin to both manufacturers and tradesmen. It is easy enough to buy at the seller's price, but it is quite as easy to sell at the buyer's price. The price that is given is quite as important as the price that is received. Again, when it is said that buying and selling do not create wealth, because they merely lessen the labor of carrying on exchange, we are led to inquire rather closely into the meaning of "creating" wealth. Of course, there is no creation of matter, and human industry is as a whole devoted to putting matter in the place and shape in which it is wanted. In this complicated process buying and selling, like transportation, may be as useful as any productive action, and, in so far as they economize labor, are properly described as creative of wealth.

It is a possibly misleading statement that comparatively few men own capital. The term "comparatively" is elastic, but if we were to consider the immense number of farmers and house-owners, and the constant increase of deposits in banks and other investments, we should probably conclude that the capitalists were in the majority. We fail to find any definition of "demand and supply." These magic words have been so often used to cover up logical shortcomings that the beginner should be put on his guard against an unthinking use of them. The substitution of "amount of waiting" for the established term "abstinence" seems to us to be attended with no advantage sufficient to compensate for the friction resulting from the change. It is like putting a statute that has been thoroughly construed into new language. We do not understand why a farmer does not practise abstinence, whether he employs a hired man or not.

It is paradoxical to maintain that risks to the capital employed in production are no burden in themselves, and the greater simplicity resulting from the resolution of the burden of risk into labor seems to us attained by disregarding an essential element or condition of production. In the very able treatment of money, Prof. Macvane occasionally uses language that may not arouse the learner to the difference between capital and currency, and something might be gained by distinguishing more carefully between currency and money in the narrower sense. The treatment seems to us at times possibly affected by the old currency theory, especially in the explanation of the phenomena of depressed business. Quite different results attend the normal increase of money and the application of labor-saving contrivances in its use, and that abnormal creation of currency occasioned by expectations of extraordinary profits. A little more space might well have been given to credit. But perhaps it would not be possible to improve the discussion without making it too elaborate for such a treatise.

The subject of protective duties being a political issue, the author prefers to confine him-

self to a statement of the arguments on both sides. He omits, however, and perhaps in a purely economical treatise he ought to omit, the most weighty argument in favor of free trade, that it prevents the prostitution of Government to the pecuniary interests of individuals. He does not feel it necessary to maintain the same reserve on the silver question. The appendix contains a convenient table showing the duties and amounts collected upon the principal articles of import. Upon the whole, we are disposed to recommend this book as the best summary of the leading principles of political economy that has fallen under our notice. Whether it will prove the best for beginners, experience will show; but mature minds will find it sufficiently strong meat to exercise their digestive powers.

The Anatomy of the Frog. By Dr. Alexander Ecker. Translated, with numerous annotations and additions, by George Haslam, M.D. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1889.

As is well remarked in the introduction, "there is no occasion nowadays to offer a lengthened apology for devoting a treatise solely to the anatomy of the frog, which enjoys the doubtful honor of being, κατ' ἐξοχήν, the physiological domestic animal. It is kept in every physiological laboratory, and is daily sacrificed in numbers upon the altar of science. The physiologist has recourse to it, not only to obtain answers to new questions, but for the sake of demonstrating easily and quickly the most important known facts of the science. These unlucky batrachians are to be had in any number, and are specially adapted for experimental investigation; they have consequently fallen under a harsher tyrant than the stork in the fable, and their prophetic outcry in the frog chorus of Aristophanes, δεινὰ πεισόμεθα, has been literally fulfilled."

Even granting all that is implied in the above paragraph, and recalling the experiments that are now commonly done upon frogs in the most elementary grade of physiological teaching, the general reader may yet wonder that to the structure of this humble creature could be devoted 450 pages of text, and a figure, upon the average, for every third page; still less might he be prepared to find that, notwithstanding this and several other treatises of lesser scope, and several hundred papers on more or less special topics (over 300 are cited in connection with the nervous system alone), there are yet many things to learn about the frog, and several points which are still the subjects of distinct differences of opinion.

The accuracy and clearness of the present work are to be ascribed to the unusually composite nature of its authorship. The chief author, professor of anatomy at Freiburg, published the first part in 1864, and for the second, which appeared sixteen years later, had the coöperation of Wiedersheim. The translator, formerly of Owen's College, England, now of Zurich, has brought his work up to date by conscientious use of publications and by personal investigations. Finally, it is stated that the entire proof was read by A. Milnes Marshall, himself the author of a treatise on frog anatomy, and consequently the closest critic of another's work.

Notwithstanding the extended text and numerous illustrations, there are some serious and apparently needless deficiencies; *e. g.*, there is no figure of the conarium, so peculiarly located outside of the cranium, or even of the cranial or dermal regions connected with it; the account of the skin, while detailed in respect to the "supplemental toe," neither describes the conarial spot nor refers to the paragraph (p. 155) where it is considered in connection with the brain; nowhere, excepting from the "literature of the nervous system," would the reader learn that a single eye upon the top of the head has been shown to be connected with the conarium in a considerable number of vertebrates. The interesting lymph-hearts are inadequately presented. The central nervous system is treated with reasonable fulness, but the morphologically important lining membrane of the cavities is omitted from the figures, and the most important and instructive view of the brain, viz., when divided on the middle line, is omitted. It might have been supplied from the papers of H. F. Osborn (whose name, by the way, is constantly lengthened by an *e*).

The colored plates and most of the woodcuts are not only correct, but artistically good. Exceptions are the representations of the humerus (Figs. 35 and 36), and of the liver (Fig. 194) —the last almost indescribably inappropriate. A commendable feature is the arrangement of the explanations of figures in separate lines alphabetically.

In view of the declared preference for simpler terms, it is to be hoped that in another edition those typical long names, *vena cava anterior* and *posterior* may be superseded by Owen's unmistakable mononyms, *precava* and *postcava*. The consistent employment of the unequivocal terms *dorsal* and *ventral* is to be noted, especially since their unanimous sanction at the recent session of the Association of American Anatomists.

The small size of all European frogs, and the consequent need of enlarging most parts, occasions the query why the great bullfrog of North America has not been introduced, if only for the sake of museum preparations, laboratory instruction, and class demonstration. For the latter purpose and for physiological research the frog will probably retain its present sad eminence; but it is far from perfect from the purely anatomical point of view. Like the human species, it is a morphological monstrosity, and should be tabued to beginners in biology in favor of some less specialized form, like the European *Proteus* or the North American *Necturus*, which also might perhaps be naturalized in other parts of the world.

Browning's Message to his Time: His Religion, Philosophy, and Science. By Edward Berdoe. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co. 1890.

Dr. Berdoe is a leading member of the Browning Society. The present collection is a series of papers read before students of the poet. They are brief, and are confined to a few fundamental points which in fact may be reduced to two, namely, that Browning was a Christian and a scientific poet. As to the first of these statements, it cannot be said that Dr. Berdoe has anything fresh to bring forward; in this part, which is the least interesting, the author is engaged only in propagandism, and assuring his audience that in Browning they will find a spiritual guide. The second statement, however, occasioned controversy when it was made, and in an appendix to the lecture containing it a very able letter is inserted, in which the writer argues cleverly that if Browning is a scientific poet, the "less poet he." Without entering upon the question of the capabilities of science as material for poetry, it must be said that Dr. Berdoe hardly makes out his case. Browning used illustrations from science, with some parts of which he was acquainted, but not in any profuse way except in one of his least known pieces, "Numpholeptos"; but beyond this consideration he did not express the scientific spirit or observe scientific method in his thought, and hence cannot fairly be regarded as the exponent of the scientific habit of mind in poetry. Science gave color to his verse, as it also has done to Tennyson's; in the results of science he had great interest; but the thoughts of science were but a small portion of his thoughts, and by no means the significant portion. Dr. Berdoe, as a physician, may notice and value more the elements which Browning took from science in setting forth his own ideas; but he clearly overestimates them, as is shown by the paucity and repetition of the examples. Quite the most valuable paper in this volume is that upon Paracelsus, which is a study of him in history as the Reformer in medicine, and touches the poem only indirectly. The great defect of the book as a whole is its tedious repetition of the same thoughts, and especially the same short quotations, which seem to serve the author as texts, and are always used as proofs of what he is laying down. The work of a faithful and enthusiastic student is here, but of critical faculty or literary sensibility there is a "plentiful lack."

On the Wing through Europe. By Francis C. Sessions. Welch, Fracker Co.

This book is written in such a kindly and unassuming spirit that we find it difficult to criticise it very severely. The contents had much better, however, have been left in the columns of the newspaper for which the author tells us it was "written hastily, . . . as I could catch a moment's time on the cars, or while stopping for rest during the intervals of travel and sight-seeing." Considering that this is a third edition, there must be a demand for such writing. Mr. Sessions tells us of the England of Disraeli, Paris of the Exhibition of 1878, and Switzerland while the St. Gothard tunnel was in process of construction. The author makes a mistake in thinking that the present edition "would gain nothing" by revision. It is bad enough to learn that (p. 19) Christ Church Cathedral, Dublin, was built in 1038; that (p. 135) it is only twenty-four miles from London to Dover; that (p. 167) the Danube rises near the St. Gothard Pass; that (p. 197) the Pope *and seventy-two* cardinals reside in the Vatican; but when (p. 159) we are told of passing by Lake *Sesaporck* on the route between Basle and Lucerne, and when (p. 175) the gloominess of the stores in *Regent Street Quadrant, Berne*, are spoken of, we begin to suspect that the printer's devil must have got at the forms before they went to press.

The author's sense of humor is not keen, or he would scarcely have concluded with the following paragraph:

"If I may be pardoned, I should be glad to indulge a little local pride, and say that, in all my travels, I have not seen so prosperous and thrifty a city as my own city of Columbus, Ohio, nor, for its size, any place so attractive in public buildings of masterly design and splendid workmanship. The old State House, with its Doric style of architecture, massive and grand, is a noble structure, and if the dome were remodelled so as to render it symmetrical with the other parts of the building, surrounding it with columns, as has been suggested, it would challenge the criticism of the world. Our Hospital for the Insane is the largest of any yet erected, and all of our public buildings—the idiot asylum, and those for the blind, deaf, and dumb, the Ohio State University, and the Penitentiary—are certainly, considering their cost, equal for style of architecture to any in the world, and would attract

the attention of all who are competent to judge in the matter."

Artist, printer, and bookbinder have well done their part.

Essays on Subjects of Moral and Social Interest. By John Stuart Blackie. Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1890.

THE five essays that fill this volume, upon Christianity and Social Organization, Physical and Moral Analogies, the Philosophy of Party, Scottish Nationality, and Philosophy of Education, belong to that more formal and laborious kind of essay which flourished before the magazine supplanted the review, and which grew with especial vigor in Scotland. Prof. Blackie makes the attempt to lay out his subject on a long scale, and to treat it reasonably on all its sides; he puts it to intellectual siege, and prepares to reduce it in the old way, with at least a three-months' interval before the corps of the Reviewers must move on to new posts. This sense of importance in the matter and of thoroughness in the method of examination is a pleasant change from our present off-hand and cut-down magazine papers, imparts seriousness and dignity to the volume, and gives it the flavor of a departed respectability. In the matter, too, a strong character and a vigorous mind are seen to be held fast, as if they had grown into the subject of thought and interest and had become bound up with it; there is something of prejudice, even, in the work which gives a tang; and there is a good deal that is Scotch, just as there always was in the Reviewers. The Scotch ballads and the Scotch heroes are very much to Mr. Blackie's taste, and in none of the essays is he quite so perfervid as in the analysis of Scotch nationality, and the plea for it against the Anglification of our day. The defence of war, too, with much effrontery for these times, must be a part of the old blood-thirsty inheritance of the Border; in fact, the author seems to *love* war, and this, in a book whose every other page preaches the name of Christianity, is sufficiently remarkable. The incomplete comprehension evinced by him of the doctrine and spirit of democracy is also singular to an American reader, and the conception of the "Christian" landlord and "lord-manufacturer" as a permanent fixture in organized society, where "Christianity" will continuously affect the law of wages favorably to the workmen, is an extraordinary contribution to economics, which may perhaps be classed with the curious argument that death is a good because it makes the old give place to the young, who enjoy life more. Strewn upon the pages one finds much whimsical or loosely-thought matter, perversities and twists of judgment, and, of course, a fine scorn of the other side, and some excellent examples of vehement rhetoric; but through the whole there is also a sound common-sense element, and in the chapter on education there will be found some remarks upon methods of teaching of high value.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

App'etons' Annual Cyclopædia for 1889. D. Appleton & Co. $5.
Chambers, G. F. Handbook of Descriptive and Practical Astronomy. 4th ed. Vol. II. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. $5.25.
Keltie, J. S. The Statesman's Year-Book for 1890. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Kobbé, G. The Central Railroad of New Jersey; an Illustrated Guide-Book. New York: Gustav Kobbé.
Loewe, L. Diaries of Sir Moses and Lady Montefiore. 2 vols. Chicago: Belford, Clarke Co.
Masson, Prof. D. Collected Writings of Thomas De Quincey. Vol. VII. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Peabody, Prof. A. P. Harvard Graduates Whom I Have Known. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Russell, W. C. Horatio Nelson and the Naval Supremacy of England. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Sargent, J. Y. Exemplaria Græca: Selections from Passages for Translation into Greek. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Satchel Guide for the Vacation Tourist in Europe. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Slingo, W., and Brooker, A. Electrical Engineering for Electric Light Artisans and Students. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
Smyth, Rev. N. Personal Creeds; or, How to Form a Working-Theory of Life. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Steele, W. Mortal Lips. Belford Co.
Storrs, Rev. R. S. The Puritan Spirit. Boston: Congregational Sunday-School and Publishing Society. 75 cents.
Stuart, G. H. Autobiography. Philadelphia: J. M. Stoddart & Co.
Sullivan, T. R. Day and Night Stories. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Sweetser's Maritime Provinces. 7th ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Sweetser's New England. 12th ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Sweetser's White Mountains. 10th ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Swedenborg, E. Angelic Wisdom concerning the Divine Love and the Divine Wisdom. Am. Swedenborg Printing and Publishing Society.
Symonds, J. A. Introduction to the Study of Dante. 2d ed. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Taylor, Rev. I. The Origin of the Aryans. Scribner & Welford. $1.25.
Thayer, W. R. The Best Elizabethan Plays. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.40.
Tilden, Rev. W. P. The Work of the Ministry. Boston: Geo. H. Ellis.
Titled Americans: A List of American Ladies who have Married Foreigners of Rank. Street & Smith. 50 cents.
Tourgée, A. W. Pactolus Prime. Cassell Publishing Co. $1.
Tozer, Rev. H. F. The Islands of the Ægean. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $2.25.
Trelawny, E. J. Adventures of a Younger Son. New ed. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Twenty Novelettes by Twenty Prominent Novelists. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
United Australia: Public Opinion in England. Sydney: Charles Potter.
Valdés, A. P. Sister Saint Sulpice. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Van Dyck, H. God and Little Children. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.
Wallace, J. H. Year-Book of Trotting and Pacing in 1889. Vol. V. Wallace Trotting Register Co.
Welch, C. Catalogue of the Guildhall Library of the City of London. London.
What One Can Do with a Chafing-dish. John Ireland. 75 cents.
Wolff, J. The Salt Master of Lüneburg. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Worth, E. A Little Worldling. Am. News Co. 50 cents.

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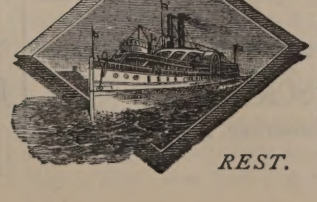

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 29, 1890.

The Week.

THE scene which the House presented when the McKinley Tariff Bill was finally passed, was in harmony with the monstrous character of the bill itself. What that character is, our readers know full well. It was rightly described by Mr. Bland, in a few brief remarks, while the silver-lead paragraph was under discussion, thus:

"I see gentlemen rising on that [Republican] side of the House, one contending for a high duty on lead, another for a low duty on lead, each one of them declaring that his particular industry will be ruined unless his theory is carried out. On the other hand, one wants a high duty on glass and another a low duty; and so on throughout the whole of the schedules. It is not a question as to whether the Government needs the revenue or not; it is not a question whether we are levying duties for the purpose of raising revenue to go into the Treasury; it is not a question whether the majority of the American people are to be benefited by this bill; but it is a scramble, a trade, and a bargain on the part of gentlemen on that side of the House to see who can get the most of the steal in this bill. It is a mere bargain and sale; a trade, a scramble, a grab-game; and it seems that those who have got their maw into it are standing watch so as to crowd all the rest out. The whole thing is a steal and a robbery of the great American people."

A game of grab on a scale of national magnitude would naturally be carried out with the least possible discussion. There were 156 pages in the bill. Discussion ended on page 42. At this point amendments were allowed to be printed in the *Congressional Record*, but no debate could be had on any of them. From that point the bill was pushed and pulled by main strength and heaviness. All the property and business of the country was tugged at by yeas and nays only. The vast industries of which tin plate is the basis, the canning and roofing and household-utensil manufactures, were ravaged by a majority of one, the vote standing 150 to 149. The duty on jute yarn was fixed by a clerical error at 30 per cent. instead of 35, as was intended by the Committee; and when it was sought to correct the error, the motion was defeated by a majority of one, the vote standing 143 to 144. In this way the private fortunes of millions of people were disposed of, and the most astounding instance of Socialistic legislation of our time was put through under the lash.

Senator Plumb's motion, adopted by the Senate on a test vote, requiring the Finance Committee to furnish, with any tariff bill reported by it, a statement showing the amount of money now collected under each item, and the amount to be collected under the same items of the new bill, and also the reasons for increase of duty, if any, and (as amended on motion of Senator Hawley) the reasons for decrease of duty, if any, and (as amended on motion of Senator Reagan) the equivalent ad-valorem rate of the specific duties in every case where practicable, is distinctly a blow at the McKinley bill, and may almost be regarded as a death-blow. It is a matter of some significance that this cumbersome resolution was not resisted by the Finance Committee, although it was opposed by Senators Sherman and Morrill, who are members of the Committee. All that Senator Allison did was to suggest the words "where practicable" as a modification of Senator Reagan's amendment, and Senator Allison's colleague, Mr. Wilson, voted with Plumb on the roll-call. Evidently now is the time for the committee of New York merchants to move on the enemy's works. They could not have a more favorable signal.

Senator Wilson of Iowa has reported from the Committee on the Judiciary a substitute for the bill recently brought forward to meet the emergency created by the Supreme Court's "original-package" decision. The substitute provides that "when any intoxicating liquors shall be transported from one State or Territory to another, or from any foreign country, such liquor shall, when the actual and continuous transportation of the same shall have terminated, be considered to have ceased to be the subject of inter-State commerce and be a part of the common mass of property within the State or Territory, and subject to the respective powers of the State or Territory in respect of all police regulations of prohibition, regulation, or taxation." Substantially such a measure as this should be passed without any unnecessary delay. The present state of things is intolerable. For example, in western Pennsylvania towns which forbid the sale of liquors, a firm of Ohio brewers has begun selling beer in "original packages" of an eighth, a quarter, or a half of a barrel, as they appear to have a right to do under the Supreme Court's decision. Apparently the only thing that will put an end to such scandals is the passage by Congress of such a bill as Senator Wilson has just reported.

The silver debate in the Senate has given rise to a discussion of the question whether the greenback-redemption fund of $100,000,000 is a greenback-redemption fund, or simply a part of the general resources of the Treasury. This question was raised by an amendment to the Silver Bill, offered by Senator Plumb, providing that the Secretary of the Treasury should not keep on hand more than $110,000,000 at any one time. Senator Sherman objected that the business of the Department could not be carried on with so small a balance as $10,000,000 in the general fund, that being the amount which would be left to the Secretary if the Plumb amendment should be adopted. Mr. Plumb replied that, on the contrary, he would have $110,000,000 for all purposes, including greenback redemption. Mr. Sherman pointed out that $100,000,000 had been expressly accumulated for the resumption and maintenance of specie payments on and *after* January 1, 1879, and that Congress had at a later period (1882) passed another act recognizing the principle by appropriate words, viz: "That the Secretary of the Treasury shall suspend the issue of gold certificates whenever the amount of *gold coin and bullion in the Treasury reserved for the redemption of United States notes* falls below $100,000,000." The words in italics certainly do recognize a fixed sum of a particular metal as "reserved" for a specified and definite purpose. The Act of 1882 was an express acknowledgment of the preëxisting fact that about $100,000,000 of gold (the exact amount was $95,500,000) had been accumulated by the sale of bonds for the redemption of United States notes. That the language of the act of 1882 was not mandatory in form is nothing to the purpose if its meaning is clear, and we do not see how it could be made clearer without being mandatory. It is all the more binding in morals from the fact that it was, at the time, universally conceded and agreed that such a fund existed as a reserve fund for a special purpose. It was not until many years later that any question was raised concerning the sacredness of this fund.

Another question, somewhat of the same character, was raised by Senator Daniel of Virginia, and that is whether the Coinage Act of 1873, which dropped the silver dollar from the list of American coins, was passed by stealth and fraud. Mr. Daniel so affirmed. Mr. Sherman affirmed the contrary, and produced evidence that the bill was before Congress for two years and was frequently debated, and that everybody knew who cared to know that the silver dollar was dropped. Senator Stewart supported the contention of Senator Daniel until he was reminded that he was in the Senate at the time and voted for the bill. This blow would have knocked down an ox, but it had no effect upon Stewart, whose ready answer was that he did not then know what he was voting for. Very likely. Very likely, too, he does not know what he is voting for now. The truth is, as everybody knows, that the silver dollar was an unknown and functionless coin in 1873, existing only in cabinets of curiosities, worth more than the gold dollar, and that it was dropped by general consent as any other disused piece might have been.

The meaning of the silver plank in the national Republican platform was the subject of dispute in the Senate on May 14. Senator Stewart was making a long-winded speech in favor of free coinage, in the course of which he said that the Republican party was committed to free coinage by its platform. Senator Eustis of Louisiana asked him whether that was merely his interpretation of the platform, or whether it was the interpretation of those who prepared the silver plank. Mr. Stewart replied that he drew the plank himself, and that he ought to know what it meant, and that the phraseology "using both gold and silver as money" would be non-

sense unless it meant free coinage of both. Senator Farwell interrupted to say that he also was on the platform committee, and that he did not construe the silver plank that way, and that he knew of others who did not. Then Stewart asked Farwell what it did mean, and the latter replied that it meant this:

"That we were in favor of both gold and silver as money at the market price; that the Government should buy, say, a thousand dollars' worth of silver and coin it into a thousand units. That is what I meant, and that is what I hold it to mean now. The free coinage of silver should be at what it cost the Government, and not at seventy cents."

Thereupon Mr. Stewart made fun of the idea of "free coinage at the market price," which certainly is a contradiction in terms. The plank in the Chicago platform is in these words:

"The Republican party is in favor of both gold and silver as money, and condemns the policy of the Democratic Administration in its efforts to demonetize silver."

If we were asked what this resolution means scientifically, we should say that it means what Mr. Stewart says it does, because a metal cannot be considered as money if its coinage is restricted. Any professor of political economy, being asked by his class to interpret the words, would be obliged to interpret them in that way. It is true that no particular ratio of silver to gold is expressed in the resolution, but, in the absence of any, the ratio now established by law (16 to 1) must be assumed to have been intended.

It is much more to the purpose to inquire what the Committee on Resolutions meant, and what the Convention meant, when this plank was put in the platform. Speaking broadly, we should say that both Committee and Convention meant anything that would catch votes. Senator Blair was quite right in holding this view. If the platform meant anything in particular, why, he asked, had not the party passed the Blair Education Bill? That was quite as plainly indicated as a part of Republican policy as free coinage of silver. Very true, but with this difference, that if each member of the Convention had been taken into a corner and asked what he thought the education plank meant, he could have told, while if all had been asked what the silver plank meant, none of them except Stewart, and possibly Farwell, could have told, and these would have told contrary stories. Most people think that we are now using both gold and silver as money because they see both in circulation more or less, and because they know that they can have either gold or silver by asking for it. This condition answers the popular conception of using both gold and silver as money, and this is what the Convention thought it was voting for—all except Stewart. That sly statesman, who did not know what he was doing when he voted in 1873 to drop the silver dollar from the coinage, did know what he was doing when he drew the silver plank in the Chicago platform. But since men do not like to have beliefs smuggled into them, nobody will believe in free coinage of silver any more, now that Stewart has shown us how smart he was, than before.

Mr. Cabot Lodge has, in an interview, dealt very skilfully but very gently with Mr. Clarkson's deliverances on the question of civil-service reform. He assumed that all that part of Mr. Clarkson's speech in Boston which consists of an attack on the merit system of appointment as at present carried out, was a joke—perhaps as good a way of disposing of it as could be expected from a faithful adherent of the Administration like Mr. Lodge. He then went on to show that Mr. Clarkson's position that *all* offices should be held by the party in power would never have been thought of, "if the holders of the subordinate places had not been taught for years that the right to carry letters or run errands for the Government depended on their political activity." He also affirmed that experience had shown that the use of the patronage for party purposes at the polls was a source of weakness rather than of strength; concurred with Clarkson in repudiating a civil-service pension system; denied that, under the present system, heads of departments selected their own subordinates in the unclassified service, and said they were selected for them by Congressmen, which is strictly true. Unfortunately, we fear the party leaders are far more in accord on this matter with Clarkson than with Lodge. Lodge is sound, but Clarkson seems to be orthodox. We find the following in the Washington correspondence of the Philadelphia *Inquirer*, which stands very close to the Administration and speaks its sentiments with a certain authority:

"The Boston speech of Gen. Clarkson is very satisfactory to the members of the Administration. It is regarded as a fair exposition of the Republican position on the questions discussed. There is a perceptible modification of the early views in reference to the civil-service work. There is a movement on foot to introduce some very radical changes in the organic act of the service. The speech of Gen. Clarkson was somewhat in the nature of a valedictory to his official life, as he is getting his affairs in condition to retire about the end of June. In connection with the enterprises in which he will embark he expects to continue in active party work. He feels that he can accomplish more untrammelled by office duty. A member of the Cabinet, referring to the speech to-night, said: 'I endorse every word of it.'"

By the bye, we have never known a time since the Civil-Service Law was passed when there was not "a perceptible modification of the early views in reference to civil-service work," and also "a movement on foot to introduce some very radical changes in the organic act of the service." The "early views" are always found in the platform, and the "perceptible modification" begins after the party gets into power, and is soon followed by "the movement for radical changes." This is true of both sides, but we think the Democrats have never gone as far as the Republicans did under Cleveland, when they abused the Administration bitterly for not carrying out the spoils system to its utmost extent. The Democrats have always reproached the Republicans for not living up to their professions, while the Republicans have strenuously urged on the party in power a policy of general perfidy and wickedness. Happily, the "radical changes" are never brought about. When the time comes to make them, the grumblers lose heart and let the "humbug" and the "fraud" go on its way.

The most striking attribute of the two newspapers with which the President's son is connected as part proprietor, *Judge* of this city and the *Journal* of Helena, Montana, is their frank contempt for anything like morals in politics. An obviously inspired Washington despatch which was sent on May 14 and published in the *Journal*, announced that "Senator Quay never stood so well at the White House as he does now, and the attacks upon him have awakened the sympathy of the President, because he recognizes that they have been made for partisan reasons; the Senator calls at the White House frequently, and can always get the ear of the President when other persons are refused interviews." Almost simultaneously with this defence and "vindication" of Quay in Montana, appears the following similar service for Clarkson in *Judge* in this city: "Mr. Clarkson will resign from the Post-office Department. He chopped off many heads with neatness and despatch, and is therefore the best of civil-service reformers. The President will never find a better man for his place, and it is to be hoped that he will leave his axe well sharpened." Thus the two organs of the Harrison family unite in openly expressed contempt for moral obligations in political conduct and for Presidential fidelity to civil-service reform pledges.

The passage of a ballot-reform law in New Jersey brings the number of States which have enacted such laws this year up to four, and swells the entire number which have secured them since the agitation of the reform began in 1887 to fourteen. The New Jersey law is in some respects different from all the others. It is not so good a law as most of them, but it is better than the Connecticut law, which is the poorest of all. While modelled on the Australian system, the New Jersey law contains the serious defect of allowing the official ballots, which are to be printed and distributed at the public expense, to be obtainable five days in advance of election by any one who will apply for them. This, of course, will enable the party bosses to have the tickets put in the hands of their followers outside the polling-places. The bosses cannot follow the voters to the polls to see how they vote, for no electioneering is permitted within 100 feet of the polling-places, and voters are required to put their ballots in envelopes, in a secret compartment, before depositing them. The official envelopes are to be obtained nowhere except in the polling-places on election day. This envelope requirement may be of some service in preventing the consummation of corrupt bargains, but it will not counteract entirely the evil which is made possible by the distribution of ballots in advance of election, and the use of such ballots whether obtained inside or outside the polling-places. The ballots are to be similar to those required by the New York Reform Law, each party or faction or movement having a separate one for its candidates. The great

gains of the New Jersey law are that the control of elections and ballots is removed from the political machines, that "heelers" and workers are driven away from the polls, that nominations may be made by petitions, and that there must be absolute secrecy in voting. These constitute a great improvement over the old system.

The Central Labor Union is quick to comprehend the advantages which third-party and independent movements have gained by the new election law. Its members met on Sunday, and, after calling attention to the facts that independent organizations can now "place candidates before all the voters without being subjected to an enormous and practically prohibitive expense for printing and distributing tickets," and that "it is now possible for men to vote in absolute secrecy for the candidates of their choice without fear of intimidation," resolved that they saw "in the immediate present a hopeful opportunity for a popular movement to smash all the political machines, and restore to the city of New York a 'government of the people, for the people, by the people.'" They appointed a committee to consider and report upon the best means for accomplishing this purpose. Tammany Hall is also sensible of what has happened, and is holding meetings in all its district organizations, at which the new Election Law is expounded; and its workers are all cudgelling their brains to see how they can "beat the law" in order to circumvent its secrecy obligations. What are the respectable citizens doing? Are they showing as much eagerness as either the machines or the labor agitators are? Are they appointing committees to consider and report upon the best way by which to improve the opportunity presented by the new law in order to give the city a genuine popular uprising, not merely against the machines, but in the interest of intelligent government? There is no time to be lost if a movement of this kind is going to be started this year with hope of success at the polls.

The instructions given to the commander of the revenue cutter *Bear* respecting the capture of sealing vessels in Alaskan waters are identical with those of last year, except that captured vessels are to be dismantled, so as to prevent any repetition of the offence during the season. The commander is to warn all persons against entering Bering Sea for the purpose of violating the laws of the United States therein, and particularly the law which provides that no person shall kill any fur seal "within the limits of Alaska Territory or the waters thereof." What those limits are has not been defined. The British Columbian sealers hold that they are the waters within three miles of any land of Alaska Territory. Do we hold the contrary? Not so far as any authentic documentary evidence has been submitted. Not so far as either Congress or the President has declared. We have not gone to the length of laying down one rule for Bering Sea and a different one for the Gulf of St. Lawrence. It would seem, therefore, that the Government has put into the discretion of the commander of a revenue cutter a question of extreme gravity which it has not ventured to decide for itself, and that upon his decision may rest issues of vast importance. Of course, no discussion of the Bering Sea question of any value will be possible until the negotiations between Secretary Blaine and Sir Julian Pauncefote are made public.

Minister Romero has had published a speech which he delivered in the course of the Pan-American Congress, wherein he took occasion to allude to Mr. Flint's figures brought forward to prove the exceeding generosity of our tariff to South American products. The veteran diplomat but thinly veiled his scorn for the assertion that the United States had been actuated by anything but self-interest and regard to the demands of manufacturers in laying taxes on South American imports. He roundly asserted that if any of the products now admitted free were to come into competition with anything produced in this country, prohibitory or fatally discriminating taxes would be clapped on them at once. The Mexican Minister delicately intimated that he was too well acquainted with the tariff policy of this country, with all its ins and outs, to have any Pan-American wool pulled over his eyes, and predicted that the action of Congress on the question of Mexican lead-ores would be a good test of the professed desire of this country to have a reciprocal trade with the republics to the south of us. A neat rejoinder to Mr. Flint was also made by one of the Argentine delegates. The 87 per cent. of free imports, he said, explain why South American products enter our ports, but they do not explain why the most of them are driven away to Europe by our tariff. "When the honorable delegate estimates the liberality of his tariff on the basis of the articles that come in, he reminds me of a man giving a party who should be surprised at the fact that out of a hundred people in his parlors, eighty came there on his invitation. What would surprise me would be not the eighty friends, but the twenty intruders; and if the giver of the reception still wished to prove to us his reputation for munificence, I should need to ask how many people had been shut out from the enjoyment of his hospitality."

There can be no doubt that the Argentine Republic is suffering severely from the financial crisis now fully upon her. Immigration during the first three months of the year has decidedly fallen off, and a new feature in the returns is the springing up of a movement of emigration, no less than 13,000 persons having abandoned the country in the period mentioned. The volume of foreign commerce has also undergone considerable diminution, and the customs receipts are diminishing in consequence. Still, the Administration is making a more resolute and intelligent effort to face the difficulty than it has before displayed. President Celman has taken occasion in various public addresses and messages to Congress to insist upon the need of a rigid economy in the administration of public affairs. He has given the best earnest of his determination in cuting down the estimates for the current year by as much as $10,000,000, or about one-sixth of the whole. Remedies for the great evil of a depreciated because immensely inflated currency are diligently sought for, and the lowering premium on gold shows the beneficial effects of contracting the volume of paper money. A new scheme for a national currency, based on land, has been put forward, and, curiously enough, appeals to our own Senator Stanford's similar proposal as a valuable precedent. There is no thought of adopting it, however, there more than here. In spite of all, the country's difficulties are only momentary. As a whole, the national position is sound and the public credit is unimpaired. As the President said at the opening of the great new La Plata harbor, a nation carrying through such a vast enterprise as that, is not going to suffer irremediably from mistakes in financial legislation.

Stanley, in his address at the Guildhall in London on the 13th, made a savage attack on the Ministry, on "Quakerism, peace societies, protection combinations, anti-enterprise companies, and namby-pamby journalism," by which he meant all persons and corporations who doubt the wisdom of England's seizing a large slice of Central Africa, and keeping it against all comers with the strong hand. He says she might have had the Congo region, and made 100 per cent. on the venture, and now Belgium has got it. She might also have had East Africa, and now Germany has got it; and he praises the German Emperor and Maj. Wissmann to the skies as men who know what they want and will stand no nonsense. Lord Salisbury has answered him by denying that any division of East Africa with Germany is yet arranged, and intimated that Stanley in his denunciations did not know what he was talking about, and that, when all was known, it would be found that the missionaries, the explorers, and the trading companies, and everybody else concerned had been properly taken care of. What makes the British public feel blue about East Africa is the accounts the agents of the East African Company are sending home of the high-handed way the Germans are behaving, and a map which Sir Francis de Winton recently published in the *Nineteenth Century*, showing that Germany had got the heart of the continent below the great lakes and as far west as the Congo, while England was shoved away up north towards Sahara. The fact is, as Lord Salisbury has hinted, that Germany is showing in Africa all the push of youthfulness in tropical colonizing. The pinch of trouble and expense will come by and by, while England, which has had a century's experience of fighting barbarians under strange skies, and has settlements all over the world, feels prudent and likes to go slowly. Such rescuing expeditions as those of Abyssinia and the Sudan naturally make a deep impression on the national mind. When Germany has had one or two, she probably will be more cautious.

FOREIGN RAILWAY COMPETITION.

ONE of the numberless contradictions of which the policy of protection is full, is brought out in the recent report of the Senate Committee on Canadian Competition and in the testimony printed with the report. The same communities which favor high duties on imports, are most earnest in demanding the continuance of the transit trade through Canada of American products. The reason for this demand is, that these communities, by reason of railroad connections through Canada to other parts of the United States, are enabled to ship or receive goods more cheaply than by lines lying wholly within the United States, or are given such exceptional facilities as to make the withdrawal of them a commercial misfortune. Senator Blair labored hard with the railroad witnesses before the Committee to draw out acknowledgments that the forbidding of Canadian railroad competition would compel the payment of higher charges to American roads; and although these witnesses evaded a direct reply, there is no doubt that at first such would be the result in many cases. The reason is plain: the Canadian routes whose competition is most complained of are longer than the corresponding American ones, or encounter some other difficulty which compels them to charge less for carriage to competitive places if they would secure any of the traffic. Such reduction in charges now arranged by an agreed differential or otherwise would, at least at first, be lost to the shipper should the Canadian route be closed by the Federal Government. Washington despatches to Boston papers speak of this as "a sacrifice of New England." The recommendations of Senator Cullom's Committee are, however, very moderate in tone, and less severe than would be justified by the facts collected. The Committee merely recommends a license system for Canadian railroads, or some other plan "not injurious to the general trade and commerce of the country."

The question raised by the quoted remarks is one of fairness and equity. Senator Hoar, Chairman of another Senate committee, that on Relations with Canada, put the matter squarely thus: If Canada chooses to spend millions of money in building and running a railway, and if that railway, by reason of such subsidies, can and does carry American products more cheaply than we can carry them ourselves, why should we not get the benefit of that cheapness at Canada's expense? Perhaps as good a way as any to answer this question is to ask another: If a manufacturer in Canada can produce a certain line of goods at lower prices than we can, why should not the New England consumer get the benefit of the cheapness? The usual answer to this is, that an extra price should be laid upon such imports to protect the American manufacturer. As long, then, as protection is our national policy, how can we decently refuse protection to American railroads? And if higher prices for clothes are paid by the New Englander, why should he not also pay higher charges for freights? The parallel runs close throughout. In many of the Pacific charters granted by Congress there is a section or proviso that only rails of American manufacture should be used. In any case, whether built under a Federal or State law, the American road purchases rails and all materials at protected prices, pays a high scale of wages in all departments, and at the same time is compelled under present conditions to sell its product (*i. e.*, transportation) at prices fixed by a foreign and, perhaps, Government-aided rival; and not a part of its product merely, for, under our long-and-short-haul rule, these foreign prices affect the whole traffic of the road. To take a slightly different illustration: Suppose Congress should allow manufactured goods to come in duty free, while taxing the raw material. There is no practical difference between such a plan and taxing the material of which the American plant is made, while allowing the Canadian roads free entrance to our cities.

There is no logical escape from the conclusion that Canadian railroad competition as it exists to-day is a direct violation of the protective principle. New England Republicans are now favoring the protective policy as regards their manufactures, and at the same time demanding a free-trade policy in transportation, without a blush for their stultifying position; but others see the absurdity clearly. If comparative freedom of competition is a good thing as regards the carriage of American products, why is it not equally good in other things? If American railroads can stand it, why cannot American manufacturers? If Senator Blair thinks that the stoppage of transit through Canada would for a time raise the price of breadstuffs in New Hampshire—a thing to be bitterly opposed—what should be said about the extra prices for protected articles now paid by the citizens of the same State? If it is replied that the New Hampshire factory would suffer by the admission of foreign goods free of duty, the easy answer is that the capital invested in railroads is as much entitled to consideration as that of the Manchester mills. That certain American railroads would lose a part of their traffic by the closing of the Canadian routes is true, but these are really acting the part of smugglers or disturbers of the protective peace, and logically have no title or claim upon that part of their business. Finally, if foreign competition is necessary as a "regulator" of American railroad tariffs on grain from the farms of the Northwest, why is it not equally necessary as a regulator of the prices paid by the same farmers on binding-twine?

A CASE OF PARTY DEBASEMENT.

IN Hartford, Conn., a few weeks ago, a city election took place in which Gov. Bulkeley, Chief Magistrate of Connecticut, as one of the leaders of a local Republican faction, had a deep interest. Joined with the Governor as his chief henchman was "Pat" McGovern, a Hartford ward-worker of most unsavory repute. When the votes were counted, it was found that upwards of a hundred "official" ballots issued by the State for elections of the kind were headed by the title "Citizens' Ticket," placed above the full list of the Republican candidates. In the Seventh Ward of the city these irregular ballots led to a contest before the Superior Court, where Judge Thayer some three weeks ago, in a preliminary decision on a demurrer, intimated that their title was a distinguishing mark in violation of the new Connecticut Secret-Ballot Law, and that the ballots were illegal.

On further proceedings the case came into the same court a fortnight ago, and Gov. Bulkeley himself was called to the stand. He testified, as it seems without a blush visible enough to get into the newspapers, that he and McGovern before the election had met in secret conference at which it was decided that these "Citizens'" ballots should be printed and put out. Under cross-examination, the Governor said that the tickets were put out "because there was a demand for them" on the part of electors who didn't like to vote tickets headed "Democratic" or "Republican." Why the tickets, in that case, were not printed without any title at all, to suit the nice scruples of the critical literary voters who wanted the Republican candidates without the Republican head-line; why, also, the Governor, who had himself signed the present law, did not discern that the title was a distinguishing mark by which voters might be detected either separately or *en bloc*—these two points this ingenuous magistrate did not undertake to explain. The State law on the subject is reasonably explicit. It declares that the ballots shall be provided by the Secretary of State to political *parties*, and that the name of the party issuing them shall appear in the title. In this case the Governor's own testimony showed that no "citizens'" party had issued the ballots, but that they were the pure invention of himself and McGovern, who thus headed the list of Republican candidates with a moral as well as political falsehood. Judge Thayer rendered his decision on May 21, and it was in accordance with the intimation he had previously given, "that ballots containing the word 'Citizens',' as indicating a party issuing the same, were void, and consequently that Talcott was elected Alderman in the Seventh Ward at the recent election." This was the only question brought before the Court. It is to be considered, however, that the Connecticut law furthermore provides grave penalties for any person "who shall violate any provision of this act." Under a moderately strict construction of the statute, therefore, it is possible that Connecticut's Governor is open to a criminal prosecution.

As a violation of high official dignity, of political ethics, and of the law itself, the case is surely bad enough. But it is less with Gov. Bulkeley that we have to deal in the offence than with the Republican party in the State that stands sponsor for the man and his acts. With full knowledge of Bulkeley's character and his peculiar shady tactics in Hartford politics, a Republican State Convention chose him two years ago without opposition as its candidate for Governor. It was a Presidential

year; Bulkeley was famous as a political "hustler," who knew how to handle money, who had the money to handle, and who could carry out effectively the scheme attributed to him, in his own phrase, of "working the scalawags." In other words, he stood to his party in the State in very much the same relation as Matt Quay to his party in the nation. He polled, too, almost his full party vote, and was duly chosen Governor by his party's representatives in the Legislature. And now, when he reappears as a trickster in city politics, we have looked in vain through the Republican press of the State for signs of the indignation which this disclosure ought to excite. In the more than century-old and eminently respectable Hartford *Courant*, proud of its Federalist and Whig heritage, no comment appears as to a scandal on which every Republican moralist in Connecticut ought to focus his wrath. The New Haven *Palladium's* only emotion in the matter appears to be one of admiration that the Governor did not commit perjury on the witness stand. "Morgan G. Bulkeley," it says, "is no trimmer. His testimony in the matter of 'Citizens' Tickets' was fully and candidly given; and when he had finished every one knew the facts. Such a trait commands the instinctive admiration of every man." And this in a New England commonwealth where the Republican party and its lineal predecessors used so to plume themselves on dignity, on purity, and on social and moral altitude—a State, too, where the Governor's office is much more dignified than powerful. Picture the effect on his party had Gov. Roger Sherman Baldwin in 1844 devised a trick to evade an election law, or had Gov. Henry Dutton in 1854 put a "distinguishing mark" on official ballots, or had Gov. Buckingham a few years later held a secret conference with a vulgar ward politician of Norwich to carry an election by violating a statute which, as Chief Magistrate of the State, he had signed!

We commend this episode of Republican party debasement, in one of those New England States where the party was cradled, to the prayerful attention of all its good deacons and church members.

THE GOVERNMENTS AND THE LABORERS.

THE workingmen in the great capitals have now made the May demonstration in favor of eight hours as a day's work and other improvements in their condition, and the leading Governments of Europe have nearly all made the admission that the labor problem is the leading political question of the day. The German Emperor has, as everybody knows, taken the lead in the matter, and announced his intention of improving the lot of the working classes in some manner, and of smashing anybody who interferes with his plans. An international conference was held on his invitation in Berlin a few weeks ago, and he has since then treated the matter in a speech from the throne at the opening of the Reichstag. Germany, Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Spain, France, Italy, Holland, Portugal, Sweden and Norway, and Switzerland all took part in the conference. Something great ought to have come of it, but what did come was simply a series of recommendations touching restrictions on the labor of minors and women in mines and factories, and on Sunday labor, nearly every one of which is already in force in England and America and France. There was a good deal of academical discussion of the laborers' condition, but the attempt to arrive at an international agreement restricting the hours of labor of adults, which was the original object of the conference as proposed by the German Emperor, was abandoned as impracticable at the very outset. The very suggestion showed the singularly cloudy condition of the imperial mind touching the whole matter.

In his speech from the throne at the opening of the Reichstag, he cut down his programme, as set forth in the "rescripts," by fully one-half, and proposed simply measures which, whatever their practical value, are within the reach of his own Parliament. He suggested the prohibition of Sunday labor, the legal protection for workingmen's lives and health and morals, some increase in the authority of working-class parents over their children, and the creation of machinery of arbitration between workmen and employers, and so on. The recommendations were all very vague, and can hardly have any serious result beyond exciting in the minds of the working class in Germany great expectations of improvement in their condition from some sort of governmental interference. Not one of them touched the central cause of working-class discontent, namely, the desire for more money for less work. As a rule, the working classes are not troubled seriously about their morals, or the unruliness of their children, or the risks of their callings. What they complain of is, that they do not receive a sufficient share of the wealth which they produce, and do not get leisure enough in which to enjoy it. The Emperor gave a touch of satire to his social remedies by proposing immediately after them a large increase of the army, or, in other words, a great increase of expenditure in the maintenance of idle consumers of the national produce, who have to be supported by the working classes.

The Pope, too, could hardly be expected to let the occasion pass by without having a say on it. So he has written a letter about the labor question to the Archbishop of Cologne, in addition to the one he wrote to the Emperor in answer to an invitation to take part in the conference at Berlin. His plan for solving the problem is simple enough. The duty of the Holy See is to "proclaim the principles of real justice, to teach respect for the dignity of human nature in the person of the workingman," and to "awaken in the conscience of the workingman himself the sense of duty," and "make him faithful, moral, sober, and honest." It will be easily seen that this does not help the world very much at this crisis. What is making all the trouble is the discontent of the working classes, and what the working classes complain of is not that they are short of morality or religion, but that they do not get paid enough for their labor, and have not as much time to themselves as they would like. They are not in the least grateful to people who give them good advice about their conduct of life.

We may go through all the governmental and professional utterances which the pending labor crisis has called forth in Europe, with similar results. They all avoid the real question. All the Governments which propose to do anything in the matter, propose to do something which the workingmen either do not care for at all or do not greatly care for. They propose more State guardianship of the workingman, when what he wants is more liberty and more spending money. As far as we can see at present, the net result of the great interest which they are now showing in the condition of the working classes is to strengthen and spread the belief that the employing classes are in possession of a fund or reservoir of wealth of which the manual laborers do not get their share, and the more equal division of which ought to be and can be enforced by legislation.

This idea crops out clearly in all the addresses of the labor leaders. In asking for eight-hour days, they are not troubled in the least by the argument that if it should diminish production, the working classes would be worse off. They hold that any loss incurred in this way could and would be made up by diminishing the share of the capitalist class, and, more than this, that by the same process the means of employing more laborers would be furnished. That the condition of laborers would not be sensibly improved by an equal division among them of all the profits of all the capitalists in the world is capable of mathematical demonstration; but it would not, for the reason we have given above, make much impression. The belief that somewhere there exists a store of good things which Government can, if it pleases, dole out, would still exist. It is this belief which the Emperor William's amiable talk, and the governmental fuss in other countries that has followed it, are strengthening. The labor leaders look on it all as a sign of fear, and of a desire to temporize and put off the evil day when the luxuries of life will have to be equally diffused. In fact, there appears to be every sign that we are entering on a period of extraordinary folly in the economical world.

THE INDUSTRIAL CONDITION OF MEXICO.

THE present régime in Mexico is a republic so strongly centralized that it appears like an autocracy with a democratic nomenclature. Yet it is far from despotism. The men at the helm act, in fact, with the consent of the governed, at least of the great majority thereof, because that majority perceives that this manner of governing is the only one adapted to the present wants of the Mexican population, and that, while tyranny and too great arbitrariness would not last, a looser

form of governing the people would cause a relapse into chaos. It is difficult for the average American to conceive accurately the working of a power which, while observing the outward forms of democracy, still acts quite independently in the main, and often contrary (in appearance) to the principles of a republic. It is, however, necessary that it should act in this way, owing to the nature of the population of Mexico. There is not, as yet, a strictly national type; that type is only just forming, and what it will be when formed it is not safe to predict. There are as yet too many local shades, and especially racial differences. In this respect the course of development was, in Mexico, the reverse of what it has been in the United States. There, sectional types are gradually blending into a national picture. In the northern republic local variations are growing out of an original homogeneity. The cause of this difference lies in the historical development of the two countries.

Some parts of Mexico were found by the Spaniards much more densely inhabited by Indians than any part of the United States was at the time of its first discovery. Instead of crowding out the natives, as was done in the north, the Spanish Government recognized in them the first and principal resource of the land, and began to train them for the ends and aims of civilization. This was a very slow and tedious task, and one which required centuries of patient toil. When the insurrection against Spain broke out in the beginning of this century, the work had not been half performed. The Spanish language had not penetrated, as a medium of daily intercourse, into many provinces; the Christian religion had scarcely superseded more than the most bloody rites of antiquity; tribal distinctions still separated district from district, even village from village, and the idea of humanity was borne by the Indians as a chain of bondage. To shake off the Spanish rule signified, for the aborigines, return to the primitive state.

A comparatively limited number of Spanish settlers occupied Mexico, and their offspring (the Creoles) felt justly slighted by the conduct of the mother country towards them. But while they were hostile towards the native Spaniards, there was little cordiality between them and the Indians. They united temporarily against the Spaniard, only to return with greater sincerity to their mutual state of mistrust, as soon as the main point, political independence, was secured. Thus the population was divided, at the very inception of the Republic, into two distinct, not to say hostile, camps, of which one, the Creoles, enjoyed the superiority in culture and means; the other, the Indians, the great superiority in numbers. Between the two, a numerous class of Mestizos constituted, not so much a link as a population of transfuges and spies, betraying both sides or joining either, as the balance of power seemed to pass from one to the other. The superior intellectual attainments of the Creole, however, established him in a position which but few among the Indians could reach. This helped to perpetuate in Mexico a social classification which no constitution, no proclamation of first principles, could obliterate, and which will remain for a long while yet. It is not an aristocracy of birth, not strictly a moneyed aristocracy either; it is rather one originally of racial origin, coupled with, but not exclusively based upon, financial standing. That the latter is no criterion is shown by the fact that the most modest man of business who claims to be a Creole looks down upon the richest but unpolished Indian; whereas, the educated Indian enjoys the same prerogatives as the well-to-do Creole or foreigner.

The Indian of Mexico is not always illiterate. Formerly the Church, of late public instruction in country schools, has done much for him. But he is always, to say the least, "peculiar," suspicious, and easily influenced to commit violence, even against his own race (provided it be not of the same village), but principally against the whites or against foreigners.

It is often stated that the Indians of Mexico are the only class there who work. The inference is drawn that consequently they are the real and only hope of the country. Truly, the so-called upper classes, even if they are poor, scarcely do any manual labor. This is not limited to the Mexican people proper. The same thing happens with all foreigners after they have resided in Mexico for a certain length of time. They accustom themselves to use the *criado*, the *mozo*, the *cargador*, as much as the natives use them; many of them deplore the "unfortunate position" of these "poor, down-trodden" people, while at the same time they are exceedingly watchful to guard against overcharges by these objects of their philanthropic commiseration. It was inevitable in Mexico, this formation of a lower class: it resulted naturally from conditions prevailing at the time of the conquest, and from the firm determination, persistently executed, of the Spanish Government to preserve the Indian. The breach between the two races was too great, in culture, to make it possible for the Indian to cross it at once. Spain sought to lead him across the chasm gradually. To do this, the Indian had to be trained, beginning at the very lowest level of European society, as it was then constituted.

A strong and to some extent paternal government is, therefore, required, in view of the mode in which the population of Mexico is constituted. It must sustain the mentally weak, and shield the numerically feeble from explosions of inconsiderate anger or jealousy on the part of the others. At the same time, it must be able to prevent ambitious elements of the more educated classes from exercising a fatal influence upon those below, using the latter for purposes detrimental to the peace and prosperity of the country. Where social differences are so pronounced as they are in Mexico, a government by all for all is impossible.

For the material development of the country the working faculties of its people deserve chief consideration. Among the higher classes there is no lack of ingenuity and skill. What they need is technical training, and, together with it, a certain amount of moral training to give them the tenacity of purpose that creates an inventive spirit. We must remember first that in tropical countries the facilities afforded for mere subsistence do not foster the desire to improve the mode of living artificially. Hence the necessity of invention is not as great as in climes where the contrast of seasons alone impels man to aid or to combat nature for his own benefit. Furthermore, the whole past of Mexico has given little room for the development of industrial skill. After Spain had once instituted its suicidal policy of isolating the colonies, industrial growth was stifled; for where there is no hope of improvement in production there is little motive for invention. With the period of dissensions and troubles inaugurated by independence, the arts of peace could not flourish, so that the present apathy of the Mexican people towards industry and technical and mechanical progress is easily explained, whereas it is no proof of their inability to perform work in that direction. Time is required above all—time spent in peace, and with a feeling of security for all achievements.

The Indian possesses natural mechanical skill, but in a peculiar way. As early as the sixteenth century, one of the many clerical educators of the Mexican Indians remarked that, while the Indian displayed surprising deftness and real skill in the working out of details, he lacked general ideas, was incapable of symmetrical conception of a whole. This is very true to-day, although much improvement is visible. Still, for a long time to come, notwithstanding the efforts at general education, for which the present Mexican Government is to be so highly commended, ere the Indian can enter the lists as a successful competitor in industry and manufactures, much patience, and, above all, much simple manual training, will be necessary.

Nature in Mexico has the general reputation of being overburdened with riches. The inhabitants are often reproached with being unworthy to own such a paradise. But Mexico is far from being uniformly rich in natural products. The surface of the republic is extremely varied in its topography, and whereas the greatest portion of it lies within the tropics, its northern sections resemble closely the Southwest of the United States, and are in many places perhaps even more forbidding on account of aridity. It is well known that Mexico has no navigable rivers. Some of its streams can be used for small craft for a short distance, but they bear no comparison with any of the mighty arteries of the United States. On the Gulf coast there are no real harbors. The Bay of Vera Cruz is not a bay. It is an enormous inroad made by the sea into the sandy beach, where, at one place, large steamers may anchor within reach of the shore. The outlets of the rivers at Tampico, Tuxpan, and other places are closed to larger craft by bars of sand and débris which until now it has not been possible to remove. The approach to Mexico by sea has been rendered difficult by nature itself. On the west coast it is easier: Acapulco and Mazatlan, for instance, have good harbors. In the interior there are but few lagunes, and the water supply of the regions north of the City of Mexico is scanty and irregularly distributed. On the other hand, the Northern States of the Republic are those which contain the richest mineral deposits. Sonora has extensive coal fields. In regard to the precious metals, those who might enter Northern Mexico with great expectations should have their attention called to the fact that the further north one goes, and the more he approaches the boundary of the United States, the more that peculiar and often deceitful formation called "pockets" prevails. There are probably rich deposits of silver yet undiscovered in the heart of the northern Sierra Madre, but the difficulties of transportation have hitherto more than offset their eventual intrinsic value. Southern Mexico is less rich in ores. There the vegetable kingdom unfolds its treasures, accompanied by all the drawbacks which a tropical climate and tropical vegetation present to man.

These drawbacks are often not sufficiently recognized, and when the enterprising Northerner at last comes to realize them, it is sometimes too late. Precious woodlands, proper for the cultivation of exotic staples, lie usually in regions where exuberance offers serious obstacles to man, and where the climate not unfrequently permits acclimatization only to a second generation. These are natural features which man cannot change, to which he must submit, and under the influence of which he

will undergo gradual transformation himself. That transformation will enable him to comprehend much in the present mental and physical condition of the Mexican people that history does not explain, and he will see then why certain things are and must be in Mexico, while they do not and cannot exist elsewhere.

On the natural products of the country its future industry and commerce are largely dependent. Its agriculture is limited by the topography of the land. There are few countries more "accidented" than Mexico in its southern parts. Few of the States are one continuous tropical forest—Yucatan appears to be, when once the arid coast-belt is traversed. There it would seem that all products of the hot regions might flourish with equal facility; and yet Yucatan imports maize! The great American staple grows there, of course, but it seems that the quality of the grain is inferior. Such local phenomena are common. They impart a semblance of great diversity of resources, but at the same time they limit the possibilities for one or the other important product to areas that are small in comparison with those over which in the United States or in Europe the culture of great staples can extend. At the same time they restrict commerce and compel foreign importations to cater to a great variety of local tastes and wants.

Many of the valuable vegetable products of Mexico have not yet been touched; many are as yet scarcely known outside of their homes. In these there lie powerful resources for the country. To render them available it requires peace and order. As varied as the topography is the ethnography of the country, and order cannot be maintained successfully by the same means in every section. There are to-day whole districts where the authority of the Government is as null as the influence of the Church; others where a foreigner is unknown, or at least an exceedingly rare bird. The opening of the soil of Mexico is yet in its infancy, and it can only expand if there is stability in the central power. That stability seems to be insured. The prospects for the future of our sister Republic appear, therefore, to be fairly bright.

Foreigners who earnestly desire to make Mexico their home will always be welcome there. To succeed, it is first of all necessary to abandon all unreasonable expectations of Mexico based on its natural resources, its climate, its population. Next, all thought of appearing there as a missionary of culture should likewise be abandoned. Much improvement is indispensable in Mexico, but it will come slowly, as a reform grounded upon natural and historical conditions, and not in the shape of effervescent proselytism. Finally, honest acceptance of the condition of affairs, submission to the laws, and adaptability to accepted customs are required there as well as in the United States or in any other portion of the globe. The immigrant who observes these rules will meet with no opposition from the people, and least of all from its Government. Bad elements exist in Mexico, of course, as everywhere else; but never before since the end of Spanish rule have they been so effectually checked, so successfully controlled, as during the administration of Gen. Porfirio Diaz.

LABOR DAY IN EUROPE.

MILAN, May 2, 1890.

THE great day has come and gone. The ruin of society, which the heated imagination of most Continental governments had expected if the workingmen of Europe were to be allowed to "demonstrate" all on the same day, has not happened. The dreaded spectre of the red-handed laborer wading in the gore of his enemies, the capitalists, has changed into something very like a small boy with "'arf a brick" in his hand. Something like sanity has begun to be visible in the press again, and one can now fairly review the question as it stands.

There can be no doubt that the anxiety of the governments was very genuine. For the first time what appeared to be the voice of reason had joined itself to the clamors of violence, and presented to Europe an "Internationale" more terrible than that of fire and sword. The watchword of the leaders in the new campaign was the eight-hour day. The old cry of "Eight hours for work, eight hours for sleep, and eight hours for 'recreation,'" was revived and made the text of flaming demands that all the laborers of Europe should unite in abstaining from work on the first of May and in "demonstrating" their allegiance to this programme.

There seems every reason to believe that nothing more was intended than a peaceable declaration of principles, manifested, as such declarations are wont to be, by public meetings and processions in the streets. But these are precisely the things which the Continental Government, backed by the well-to-do citizen with something to lose, cannot think of without a shudder. The response to the workingmen's peaceful proposition was, therefore, as might have been expected, a declaration of war. The different countries took measures, each according to its alarm. Germany, already hopelessly committed to the policy of forcible repression of all "dangerous" sentiments, had no need of any special enactments. Government laborers were simply warned not to abstain from work, on pain of dismissal, and many large firms followed the same plan. Others put the question to vote, and allowed such of their operatives as chose to take an extra holiday. Italy, in violation of a fundamental law, prohibited all assemblies on the 1st, and proceeded to mass soldiers at dangerous points in case of need. France, the starting-point of the present movement, and with more reason than any other Government to dread the consequences of any great gathering of people in her capital, took all measures needed to prevent disorder, and succeeded. England let the thing take its course, trusting, as it has so often done, to the natural effect of liberty in making men responsible for their own acts. Switzerland followed the same course.

Milan was a fairly favorable point from which to observe the European method of dealing with popular manifestations. It is, in many respects, the chief city of modern Italy. Its population of over three hundred thousand is mainly engaged in manufacturing. It is not a centre of culture, like Florence, nor of ancient traditions and new governmental interests, like Rome. Far more than either of these it represents the pure modern industrial community, with its sharp contrasts of employers and employees. Naturally, therefore, the alarmist in Italy had pointed with especial distinctness to Milan as likely to give most serious trouble on the awful day. It was probably with a sense of great relief that the well-meaning citizens awoke on the morning of the 1st to find a heavy rain falling in that determined fashion which promises a long continuance. Rain is a conservative element; it demands the possession of an umbrella as an indispensable condition of respectability. It seems almost, however, as if the good Milanese had forgotten this physical fact, and had actually conspired against themselves, for in the great covered Galleria Vittorio Emmanuele and the adjoining arcades they have provided a gathering-place where five to ten thousand persons can move about with considerable comfort, quite protected from the weather. As the rain continued heavy through the forenoon, their covered retreat became the natural resort for all who wanted to see what was going to happen.

Up to noon everything went on as usual. Shops were open, women were abroad: only a larger proportion of idlers marked the day as different from others. Now and then a company or two of soldiers was marched across the great Cathedral Square, just to remind the people that they were not without "protectors." The rumor spread that the royal palace close by was filled with troops, including a yard full of cavalry. Soon after noon the crowd in the Gallery had become pretty large and a trifle noisy. It was a very harmless-looking crowd. Evidently nine-tenths of the men there had come with the same laudable purpose as my own, simply to be on hand if anything interesting were to happen. The other tenth was made up, as is usually the case at such times, of rough and umbrellaless ragamuffins, not in themselves dangerous persons, but liable to be easily converted into effective mob material. The officers of the law, the picturesque carabinieri, revolver at the hip, marched in pairs up and down the Gallery, trying to look unconcerned, but evidently not quite easy in their minds. Men with their arms full of "labor literature" were crying their wares lustily, and disposing of surprising quantities of bad arguments and excited eloquence. I am bound to chronicle that the patriot of whom I bought my copies cheated me to the extent of 100 per cent. on the price.

As time went on, the lively tongues of the younger "demonstrators" began to wag a little too noisily; cruel jests at the expense of the authorities were flying about; words soon led to crowding, crowding to hustling, and hustling to scuffling. In a twinkling the frightened shop-keepers of the Gallery drew down their iron shutters, the great cafés closed their doors, the police fell to arresting with more promptness than discrimination, and a column of soldiers, which had been awaiting precisely this moment, cleared the Gallery and held it. The alarm spread rapidly around the square. All the principal shops were shut and remained so throughout the day and evening. Women disappeared from the streets and filled the balconies wherever a peep into the square could be had. Troops were drawn up across one of the entrances to the square on the side from which a party of "demonstrators" was said to be approaching. Announcements appeared that the theatres would "repose" for two nights—and this is the whole story.

It has been amusing and instructive to watch the expressions of opinion on the results of the May-Day demonstration in general. All parties agree that it was as harmless an affair as could well be imagined. A few broken heads are all the damage to be recorded in the whole of Europe. As to the explanation of this lack of result, however, opinions differ very widely. The voices friendly to the "laborer," or at all events opposed to repression of him, declare that the outcome was just about what was intended. There was, say these voices, no intention of violence, but only that, on this day, laborers all over the world should feel the unity of their class as a bond superior to all others, and should give peaceable expression to that feeling by taking a holiday and "demonstrating." That great num-

bers of workmen should prefer not to lose their day's wages, and should have no very profound sentiment of "solidarity," was, under existing circumstances, to be expected.

On the other hand, the "elements of order," as they like to call themselves, are jubilant over the triumph of authority. The declarations of the laborers, they say, mean nothing more nor less than the destruction of existing order. That workingmen should be capable of having opinions and quietly expressing them seems to these elements of society simply impossible. The lack of violent disturbances on the 1st they ascribe, not to any good will on the part of the labor party, but to the wholesome respect inspired by the certainty that any such efforts would be promptly suppressed. They draw from the whole episode the conclusion that the policy of repression has again justified itself. So far as the party is concerned, it will certainly be so much the easier to carry repressive measures in any European Cabinet, whenever the next occasion may arise.

The observer who stands outside both these parties, who sees on the one hand the hard struggle of the laborer, and on the other the desperate necessity now laid upon every European government not to lose any of its energy in internal conflicts, will come to a conclusion quite different from either of these. It seems very clear that the Labor Party—there seems really to be no good substitute for that absurd phrase—has made a decided step in the direction of organization. It has at least succeeded in emphasizing the idea of its own solidarity with sufficient sharpness to keep the whole press of Europe occupied with it for several days. But is this a gain? If the ultimate solution is to be worked out by each country gradually, by methods in harmony with its own history and in proportion to the actual demands of its own people, then this declaration of class interests as superior to those of nationality must only tend to embitter the feeling of the governments towards subjects who seem to them disloyal. Furthermore, such a proclamation of interest by one class is pretty certain to call out the antagonism of other classes. It is already predicted that the next elections in Germany will show a very marked falling off in that support from the other parties by which the great Socialist gains of the late elections were made possible. One must be personally familiar with the intensity of national feeling now dominant in Europe to realize how seriously any party would injure itself by seeming to represent ideas which could be attacked as "foreign." So long as nobody will go to a Wagner opera in Paris, while the average German is taught to use the word "Deutsch" as simply descriptive of all the virtues, an international party must choose its weapons with great discretion, or it will only consolidate the opposition.

Now, in the present crisis, it has not been discreet in this choice. The selection of the eight-hour day as a battle-cry was most unfortunate. The documents distributed in the streets of Milan will serve as fair examples of the arguments by which the shortening of the labor day was commended: If the day be shorter, more laborers will be needed to accomplish the work, and thus all the hosts of the unemployed will find something to do. This increase of occupation will bring an increase in the conditions of health; women will be relieved of labor ruinous to the race, etc., etc. One paragraph rose to this astonishing pitch: If the greedy capitalist really must have sixteen hours of labor done in a day, let him employ two men instead of one, paying to each, of course, the writer added, the full wages of a day. With such stuff as this for its contribution to economic science, little wonder that the new Internationale failed to command any very widespread sympathy.

There remains the question of suppression. A leading Roman paper of to-day calls attention to the significant fact that where the workingmen's associations are the best organized and most conscious of their purposes, they have shown themselves least dangerous to society, and most anxious to separate from themselves those enemies of all parties whose simple watchword is anarchy, and whose method is destruction of whatever exists. It draws the very obvious moral: "Let the workingman alone; let him unite; let him assemble; let him talk as much as he likes; keep the soldiers to fight our foreign enemies, when we settle who those may be; don't get panicky over rumors." All that is very sound advice, but it may well be doubted if it will be heeded. The possession of a handy army is a terrible temptation to any Ministry which has once felt the sense of power. Unquestionably the first duty of a Government is to keep the peace; but between whiles it is bound also to do nothing which shall make breaches of the peace more likely to happen. Whether the policy of repressing freedom of action does not furnish precisely that provocation to violence, is the question which faces Europe to-day.

A careful balancing of the probable results of yesterday's events shows, then, but little change in fundamental conditions. If it marks an epoch in any way, it does not seem at present as if it could be an epoch in the advance of the nations towards a reasonable settlement of existing difficulties, but rather an epoch of increasing bitterness and an obscuring of the true issues to be considered. E. E.

THE GROSVENOR GALLERY.

London, May 4, 1890.

For the art critic in London, last week was one of hard labor. On three consecutive days the three large galleries opened their doors to the press. But an advantage of this arrangement was that it helped one to make an interesting comparative study which would scarcely have been possible had a long interval separated the three openings. The result of this study is to give undoubted preëminence to the Grosvenor. The Bond Street gallery, which showed a decided falling off in interest and importance after the dispute among the directors leading to the establishment of what is jocularly called the Halicarnassus, has this year done much to retrieve its reputation. And it is for this reason, in noticing the three exhibitions, that I give it that precedence which would seem by right to belong to the Royal Academy.

The first fact that strikes one on making the rounds is that the success of the Grosvenor is entirely due to the younger men; and the second, that the affected morbidness which of old gave this gallery its notoriety has disappeared, to be replaced by honest, healthy work. Sir Coutts Lindsay, the proprietor and director, has been wise enough to profit by a late split in the New English Art Club, for unfortunately it seems impossible for any art organization to exist long without internal dissensions. This club, of which I have already had occasion to speak in the *Nation*, and which represents much that is best in British art, has hitherto shown in its exhibitions the work chiefly of that little group of men who call themselves the London Impressionists, of the Newlynites, that very clever colony of artists who have settled in a tiny fishing village on the Cornish Coast, and of (perhaps the most promising of all) the younger Scotch painters. But this year, for reasons not revealed to the general public, the Newlyn men refused to have anything to do with the New English Art Club, and their pictures, which might otherwise have been exhibited there, were secured by Sir Coutts Lindsay to give distinction to his walls. The latter, moreover, had the further good sense to obtain the coöperation of the Glasgow men, who have sent him their most important work.

All these artists, whether of Newlyn or of Glasgow, are endeavoring to the utmost of their ability to master the technique of their art, to see things for themselves, and to record their impressions in their own way, with the result that there is strong individuality and brilliancy in almost everything they do, and that their failures are artistically worth far more than the successes of the correct, characterless, academical painter, or of those morbid Neo-Tuscans who never looked at Nature at all, and who, not so long ago, reigned supreme at the Grosvenor. There is indeed a refreshing contrast between the work of men and women who make their studios in village streets and on the sea-coast, or who are the legitimate successors of the French landscape-painters whose inspiration came from Constable and Bonington, and the archaic affectations of the Ruskin-taught, who believe that art began to degenerate when painters first sought to model in the round, and who find it easier to copy the old "squint-eyed Madonnas" than the living human beings about them.

This return to nature, this desire to escape from academical traditions and mediæval limitations, and to be rid of studio properties, is very strikingly shown in the great predominance of landscapes, and this not only at the Grosvenor, but at the Royal Academy and the New Gallery as well. Apparently England, or rather Great Britain, is to have again its great landscape-painters, so sadly in the minority since the days of Constable. The man who in this sort of work stands out most conspicuously at the Grosvenor is James Guthrie of Glasgow, whose name, I venture to say, has hardly been heard in America; it is barely known here save among artists. And he is conspicuous, not merely because he shows one of the biggest pictures in the exhibition, but because of the great excellence of his work. His most important contribution is called "The Orchard," and is a vigorous out-door study of his subject: two children in the foreground picking up the fallen apples, while between the admirably drawn trees you look to a hay-stack in the middle distance, and to a low line of soft blue hills on the far horizon. It is very strong in color, very bold and direct in treatment, very fine and simple in feeling. One can see how susceptible Mr. Guthrie has been to French influence—behind his canvas, as it were, one seems to see many of the great modern Frenchmen; and yet that it does not suggest any one in particular, proves, I think, that he has been able to study them with profit and yet retain his own individuality, just as they could appreciate Constable without becoming his slavish imitators. While this picture is more interesting because it is a more difficult experiment, even more charming is his little "Pastoral," beautiful in color, with the soft harmony of greens broken here and there by the blue line of a winding stream, by the grayish white of the sheep in the foreground, by the reds of the houses half-hidden in the

foliage on the hill-side beyond, and no less beautiful in composition. It is painted broadly, and, because it is a true record of an impression, is full of that poetic feeling which the literary painter somehow never succeeds in suggesting. For its exposition of the poetry of realism, combined with simple, vigorous technique, this picture could not easily be surpassed.

"Audrey and her Goats," by Mr. Arthur Melville, another Scotchman, challenges comparison with Mr. Guthrie's "Orchard," both by its size and its subject and methods. It also is a landscape with figures. On a great stretch of green Audrey stands, a goat clutched by its horns in either hand, her head, with its vivid red hair, rising against a background of trees, over which Autumn has spread her covering of red, no less vivid. It is a splendid piece of decoration, but it is heavy and painty—the experiment is too obvious, it is not convincing. It just fails where Mr. Guthrie's picture succeeds. But it is the failure of a man whose cleverness makes one prefer it to the cut-and-dried successes of the painter so sure of himself that art to him no longer presents any problems. Mr. Melville has hitherto been better known for his water-colors, and the only one he shows in the same exhibition, a curious impression of "Javonaise Dancers," is a little marvel of brilliant technique and color.

It would be useless here to describe in detail all the other good landscapes, there are so many. I will just mention a few by men who, I think, call for special attention. A third Scotchman, Mr. E. A. Walton, shows one which must be ranked among the very best. It is but a quiet stretch of green meadow land with cattle, and pretends to be nothing else, since its simple title is "A Landscape"; but it is delightful in color and in atmosphere, true in tone, and genuine in feeling. Mr. E. A. Hornel, also from Glasgow, promises to make a name for himself as a colorist; it is the color that strikes one in his "Among the Wild Hyacinths," a rich study in greens and blues, even as it does more forcibly in a remarkable piece of decoration he has painted with Mr. George Henry, his countryman, with (for subject) the Druids bringing in the Mistletoe, in which he has simply revelled in the most gorgeous, brilliant colors, without a touch of vulgarity or coarseness. One can but hope that some day into his hands will fall the decoration of large public buildings in Scotland or in England, and that prosperity will not prove his ruin as it has that of so many other promising painters. Color is also the distinguishing characteristic of Mr. John Reid's landscapes, in which quality and style make up in a great measure for a certain want of truth to nature.

Mr. Henry Muhrman, an American, I believe, is represented by two of his low-toned studies, one with Millet-like figures, which would be so much more satisfactory in every way if he could only see that nature is not all made up of dirty grays and browns. And Mr. Peppercorn, the English student of Corot, has two or three of his soft, hazy sketches which are never seen to advantage in a large exhibition. Mr. Arthur Lemon and Mr. Arthur Tomson both show, by the results of their summer's work in Sussex, that Englishmen need not go to France to find that picturesqueness which Millet loved; while, if there be less tragedy and pathos in their shepherds and laborers, there is probably more realism. Mr. Mark Fisher, Mr. William Estall, Mr. Julius Olsson, and Mr. James Paterson are other men to whose future one looks with interest.

Of painters of marine subjects, there are two of distinction of whom England has good reason to boast—Mr. Henry Moore, who carried off the highest honors last summer at Paris, and Mr. Adrian Stokes, one of the little Newlyn group. Both have important and characteristic work at the Grosvenor. Mr. Moore, in his beautiful blue sea, breaking in sand-laden surf on the shore, is perhaps more subtle and more successful in giving the very movement and feeling of the water and waves; but Mr. Stokes paints, as no one else can, the brilliant luminous sky and the clouds just touched by the glowing colors of the sunset, above a cool sea, green as one always sees it off the Cornish coast; he is a poet as well as a painter.

Mr. William Stott of Oldham is a man who belongs to no particular school, unless it be that of Whistler, and who paints pictures that must be classed alone. This year he has given us a charming study of the nude: in a cool green wood, among flowers, and on soft turf, are three women with light gauze drapery, whom he calls "Diana, Twilight, and Dawn." In the immediate foreground is a delightfully decorative arrangement of straight tall irises. The figures are very graceful and well drawn, and treated with great refinement. Two are kneeling, and one lies outstretched in the centre of the composition, her feet towards the spectator, and it is in this figure the one defect of the work is found. She is on level ground, as you see by the position of the kneeling woman at her side, but, to avoid the otherwise necessary violence of foreshortening, the painter has tilted her up as if she were lying on an inclined plank. Because of this defect, many have declared the picture a failure. But its good points are so very good that they make up in a measure for what cannot but be considered a mistake.

Mr. John M. Swan is another man who stands alone. His picture at the Royal Academy last year, "The Prodigal Son," made a real sensation. He is not very young, but he had never exhibited before in the large galleries, and the report was that hitherto he had been altogether in the clutches of the dealers. He is not quite so strong this year, but his "Maternity," a study of a tigress suckling her cubs, is striking for the dignity in the pose of the tigress, in the modelling of the cubs, and in its directness of treatment; to a subject which the average animal-painter does not know how to make interesting, he always adds an indescribable charm by the stretch of vast undefined country he gives as background, and the great depth in the blue of the sky and the far distance.

In figure subjects the exhibition as a whole is weak. The only portrait of note is Mr. Orchardson's study of himself, which he has painted for the Uffizi Gallery in Florence. As if conscious of the great masters with whom he must there risk comparison, he has put into it his very best work. It is much more vigorous than the drawing-room picture by which he is usually represented at the Royal Academy; the modelling is good and strong, and, though, as in all his paintings, too yellow in tone, the color is rich and refined. It is by far his best exhibit this year. Mr. George Clausen has a large striking "Girl at the Gate"; but one wishes that a man who has so thoroughly mastered his technique would show a little more originality; but for Bastien-Lepage one feels that this picture would never have been painted. The girl, who stands directly in the foreground facing you, wears a light blue calico dress, and the whole figure, down to the old worn-out boots, is most carefully studied, while the expression of almost despair on her face gives some likelihood to the story abroad that Mr. Clausen had originally called the picture, "A Village Margaret." The perspective of the background, with its little cottage and garden, is very cleverly managed. Of the Newlynites, Mr. Stanhope Forbes, who may be called their leader, has reserved his principal work for the Academy, and shows a little "Road from a Market Town," in the late afternoon, full of figures. Mrs. Marianne Stokes has worked out a problem of light which it is difficult to understand: an infant, presumably Christ, lies in a cradle, and from the halo round his head the light shines on the mother kneeling by him; but, curiously enough, the light burns on that side of her face which is turned away from him and on parts of her dress which should certainly be in the shadow of the cradle. Praiseworthy as her efforts have been, she has not yet solved that problem of reflected light which Besnard and one or two other Frenchmen have treated so skilfully. Mrs. Stanhope Forbes, Mr. Bourdillon, and Mr. E. E. Simmons, other prominent Newlynites, all contribute work in which appears an "earnest intention to be just"; justness being that quality above all others at which they seem to aim.

Whoever has followed the development of British art of late years must notice how very few names among those I have mentioned are popularly known. But it is this fact which gives significance to the exhibition at the Grosvenor. The best and most striking work this year is by the rising generation of artists, upon whom much of the future of British art depends. N. N.

IQUITOS, THE METROPOLIS OF EASTERN PERU.

IQUITOS, March 10, 1890.

THE major portion of Peru lies east of the Andes. The reason for this fact being so little known is found, not in any fault of the geographers, but in that failure to derive ideas of length and breadth from degrees of longitude and latitude which is so common in the interpretation of maps. This vast region is called the Montaña, or wooded country, being in fact nothing more than a continuation of the great basin of the Valley of the Amazon, overspread by the same impenetrable, vine-draped forests as those which are seen throughout the two thousand miles from Pará to Tabatinga. It is a region regarding whose character and conditions even the Peruvians of "the coast," or Pacific Slope, possess but little information free from that romantic coloring in which travellers are tempted by its remoteness and inaccessibility to picture it. Strange as it may seem, in point of time this Montaña is much nearer New York than Lima. A line of steamers (the Booth Steamship Company) sails directly from New York to Manáos, Brazil, making connection there with the excellent Amazon steamboats, which in another ten days reach Iquitos, the metropolis of this region. The average time for completing this immense journey of 5,400 miles, including delays at Pará and Manáos, is forty days, and the total cost of a first-class passage a little less than two hundred dollars. Not only may passengers enjoy this benefit of close connections, but the same company gives to merchants the boon of through bills of lading for freight from New York to Iquitos. From Lima, however, one must either endure the hardships of a journey across the Andes, which occupies about two months or more, or else go by way of Panama, or around Cape Horn, to Pará, and thence up the Amazon.

Iquitos is 400 miles from the Brazilian frontier. A second line of steamers starting from this point serves the towns along the river for another 500 miles to Yurimaguas, the second city of importance in the Montaña, situated 75 miles or more from the Amazon, at the head of navigation on the Rio Huallaga. Whoever fancies the eastern part of Peru a territory of insignificant proportions, will be assured of error by reflecting that here in a line, lengthened only by the ordinary sinuosities of a river, are 900 miles of navigable water, open to vessels of six feet draught.

The entire Montaña is embraced within the limits of the Department of Loreto, which derives its title from a town of the same name which has passed by degrees into a state of dilapidation, and has yielded up every sign of its ancient importance except the time-honored flag-staff on which the little Gobernador daily hoists a tattered Peruvian banner. From appearances, one would say that not among the least delectable of the duties and prerogatives of the little Governor is to board each passing steamer, ostensibly to sign the bill of health and list of passengers, in addition to which, however, he does not forget to pledge the health of the Captain in a glass or two of the Captain's choice "Madeira." There are other towns between the frontier and Iquitos. Caballo Cocha is a village on a lakelet a mile from the main river, consisting of nearly 2,000 inhabitants, said to be very *simpatico*, from which delicate term one may, with some knowledge of the tropical disposition, picture scenes conspicuous for "the song and dance and the flowing bowl." There is also Pébas, a town of great antiquity, and famous for the manufacture of beautiful hammocks from the fibre of the Chambira palm. It stands high on a hill of red clay on the northeast bank of the Pébas River, a mile from the Amazon. Here, for the first time in the whole ascent of the great stream, is it possible to see Indians in their aboriginal costumes. These, in the case of this tribe, consist of what might be denominated "fringes"—long, heavy fringes of the fibrous red bark of a tree, one fringe tied around the waist, and another around the neck, thus enveloping the entire body.

After these small towns, which are really no more than collections of Indian huts, with one or two corrugated-iron-roofed houses of traders in their midst, Iquitos appears quite like a city. Where six thousand people are gathered together, there is necessarily some division of labor; the common workman, the artisan, merchant, and official, evidence their several degrees of prosperity in personal appearance and in the architectural display of their homes. Consequently the place looks diversified, and suggests progress and the prevalence of better ideas. A vista down one of the principal streets reveals many white-plastered houses, with red, blue, or brown dados, giving a quaint picturesqueness to the place. Here and there one rises to the dignity of a second story, with a balcony overhanging the way. The streets are as green as a pasture, for where gubernatorial edict, instead of the wear of vehicles, is the only obstacle, grass finds little impediment to its growth. Vehicles are absolutely unknown in Iquitos, and it is only at rare intervals that a donkey with his panniers may be seen carrying clay from some extraordinary distance, when a new adobe house is in process of construction.

The city is laid out in squares, and stands on a level plateau elevated about sixty feet above the river. Behind it, to the northwest, rise the forests in their solemn grandeur. On the west the plateau drops abruptly down to the Rio Itaya, a small stream coursing through the lowlands, which from this point stretch an indeterminate distance into the interior. Iquitos Island, which faces the city, is likewise low, but it is not marshy. Indeed, there are practically no marshes in the Montaña of Peru. The banks of the rivers may be overflowed at many places during the winter, or rainy season, but the receding waters leave them high and dry during the months of summer. The plateau of Iquitos, however, is so extremely flat that there is actually no surface drainage, and up to the present time no effort at sewerage or drainage by ditches even has been attempted—the gutters down the middle of the streets being choked with rubbish. The citizens aver that to drain into the river would cause the banks to wear away, which objection will only lose weight when they discover that a lining of bricks, which are plentiful, will prevent such a catastrophe. So the town is in large part much like a shallow frog-pond, and at night the chorus of croakers is sometimes sufficient almost to banish sleep. In spite of this, the testimony of decades has been that Iquitos is healthy. Those swiftly fatal fevers, the terror of so many tropical towns, are entirely unknown.

Iquitos is thoroughly cosmopolitan, consisting of Peruvians, Brazilians, Portuguese, North Americans, English, Germans, French, and Chinese, with of course a large preponderance of Indians and half-breeds, or "Cholas," as they call them. The eastern portion of the town is almost entirely given up to this native element, in which quarter may be seen the palm-thatched Indian hut, or "quincha," with its curious outfit of Inca pottery, hammocks, drums, and feather ornaments, almost the same as exist in the remote "chácras," or haciendas, along the upper reaches of the river and its tributaries. The majority of the cholas, however, live in quinchas scattered promiscuously among the "casas de paredes," or houses of clay walls. There is nothing striking in the appearance of the men, who wear trousers and blouse of Massachusetts "blue drilling," and a slouch hat, or oftener no hat at all; but the barefooted women and girls give a characteristic picturesqueness to the streets by brightly colored calico frocks, a simple white Panama hat worn well down over the eyes, and a blue-and-white shawl, woven with what ladies term a "shell stitch," wrapped with the true mantilla fold around the shoulders. Thus accoutred, they may often be seen passing along the streets, carrying, poised upon the head, instead of a hat, a gracefully decorated water jar, filled with the clear, sparkling fluid that issues from the foot of an Aguaje palm close down by the margin of the river.

Iquitos has suffered much abuse from travellers in the matter of its cuisine. It is true there are no hotels, but there are at least two excellent "posadas" (inns), where may be found as bountiful a table as exists in any part of the Valley of the Amazon. Beef is ever abundant; turtles, poultry, and eggs agreeably expand the menu; yuca and plantains are not only good substitutes for vegetables, but, when well cooked, are delicious. Vegetables, alas! are lacking. Potatoes and peas will not mature in this climate; a little lettuce and cabbage are raised, and vast quantities of beans. These legumes recommend themselves to the easy-going tropical gardener by growing without attention and bearing continuously for many years; one variety, in fact, having acquired the name of "Toda la Vida" because it will live and yield throughout the ordinary life of a man. It has really never yet been proved what vegetables will thrive in this climate, but it occurs to one that future experiments in this direction may be hinted at by Charles Dudley Warner's inveterate enemy, "pusley," which is here betimes, doubtless waiting to make the effort more interesting. It is a surprise to a Northerner to see common Northern plants flourishing in this distant land; but around the little clearings are the familiar ipecac and golden-rod, as well as "pusley," and the convolvulus opens its pretty blossoms to the morning light along every water-course, being called the "Flor de la Caña," because here in its native home it almost invariably clings to the canes that fringe the rivers.

Iquitos at present occupies an unusually interesting position. Within thirty years it has risen from a petty pueblo of a dozen huts to be the foremost city in that Montaña of which Peruvian orators are wont to boast, and which Peruvian poets so often celebrate in song. Some city must of necessity attain great and permanent commercial importance in this region, and very naturally the Iquitenos predict this happy fortune for their own. The situation is favorable. A short distance lower down the Amazon (or Marañon, as local terminology has it) is the mouth of the Rio Napo. Above are three other notable tributaries—the Ucayali, the Tigre, and the Huallaga, with many smaller streams, from all of which come large quantities of "caucho," the Peruvian rubber, which at present forms almost the sole article of export. It is thus central with regard to the staple product of the country. Another circumstance which helped to fix the site of the present metropolis of the Montaña was that to this point, and no further, could vessels of ten feet draught ascend the Amazon at all periods of the year. But there prevails in Peru, as likewise throughout South America, a disposition to achieve the extraordinary before there is a warrantable substructure of the ordinary. As illustrative of this spirit, they once held here a festival, raised a sum of money, built the foundation of a great hospital, and erected a monument on the spot which should by and by be an inner court of the structure; and then, having spent too much on the monument, the whole affair was abandoned, and the unfinished, crumbling walls have become the habitation of snakes and of several thriving colonies of ants. In equal heat of enthusiasm, having concluded that Iquitos was destined to become a great port, they constructed, in 1869, many years before there was any need of it, a floating dock, designed for vessels of a thousand tons capacity. They launched and proceeded to lower it, to see how it would work; but, in their haste and inexperience, the chambers were allowed to fill more rapidly on one side than on the other, and the machine rolled over and sank. This at once formed the nucleus of a sand bar which has grown to such dimensions that now the main river has scoured out a channel on the opposite side of Iquitos Island some miles away, while the harbor in front of the town is so shallow that it is only during the five or six months of flood-water that vessels of more than five feet draught can approach nearer than two miles. It is not yet too late to save the harbor by deflecting the current into its former channel, and by constructing jetties around the sunken dock. If something of this sort is not soon done, the prosperity of Iquitos will be doomed.

For reasons which it would be tedious to explain, the steamboat companies are not permitted to build docks and warehouses, and the merchants are not permitted to transport their cargo from their own establishments to the steamer, except by employing the official steve-

dore, who has a monopoly of all public porterage. The same wretched system of credit exists here as in Brazil, the merchant owing his broker, the rubber-gatherer owing the merchant, and the Indian again owing him. In consequence, prices are exorbitant; for the merchant figures a profit which will permit him to exist, while he loses at least one-half what his books represent as due him. The bulk of the merchandise used here is of English manufacture, and the reason for this is simply that the English have well studied the problem of packing goods for tropical climates, so that they arrive in good condition. The Americans have made so many errors of the kind that the people here have come to think that the quality is inferior. It is only in the matter of flour, which a few firms have learned how to pack in tin-lined boxes, that Americans have succeeded in gaining the trade in perishable commodities. Our hardware, however, has such a reputation that foreign firms are obliged to imitate our styles and to forge our brands to compete with us. In almost every chola's hut throughout the entire region may be seen an American sewing-machine, and they use our expensive "Florida Water" as freely as if it rained down from the skies.

When American merchants will learn to pack their goods appropriately for this humid climate, and will also believe that the South American actually knows and appreciates and patronizes the *best* manufactures, he will reap a harvest if he will intelligently seek this trade; and it would be wise to enter the field early before others have made it for ever their own, for the harvest will grow richer from year to year, now that even the remote Montaña of Peru is feeling the quickening spirit of that new era which is so surely coming for this country.

COURTENAY DEKALB.

Notes.

AN elaborately illustrated work, 'With Fly-Rod and Camera,' by Edward A. Samuels, will be published immediately by the *Forest and Stream* Publishing Company.

Worthington Co. have nearly ready 'Bella's Blue Book: the Story of an Ugly Woman,' from the German of Marie Calm.

Mr. David Nutt (Strand, London) announces "The Tudor Library, a series of sixteenth-century rare books to be reprinted" in large and small-paper editions, limited to 560 copies. The first to appear will be 'Giovanni Pico della Mirandola: His Life, by his nephew Giovanni Francesco Pico,' translated from the Latin by Sir Thomas More, and edited now by Mr. J. M. Rigg. A reprint of Angell Daye's 'Daphnis and Chloe' will follow, to be edited by Mr. Joseph Jacobs. Then there will come 'Poliphili Hyperotomachia; The Strife of Love in a Dream,' from the edition of 1592, with a selection of cuts from the Italian edition of 1498. This is to be edited by Mr. Andrew Lang.

Of Mr. Lang's books there is seemingly no end nowadays. His latest is a little volume containing his lecture, 'How to Fail in Literature' (London: Field & Tuer), delivered originally at the South Kensington Museum in aid of the College for Working Men and Women, and now revised and extended for a wider audience. It is a book to be recommended to all literary aspirants. Especially worthy of study are the samples of machine-made poetry of three or four different types of badness.

We are glad that our wish that Mr. J. S. Tunison's excellent book, 'Virgil in the Middle Ages,' might speedily reach a second edition, has already been realized, and we hasten to welcome the improved volume which is such a credit to American scholarship. The few misprints of the first edition have been corrected, and the usefulness of the book has been largely increased by the addition of an index of names and subjects. The only serious oversight of the former edition, that in regard to Oesterley's discovery of the 'Dolopathos' of Johanne de Alta Silva, has been repaired, and an additional section, dealing with the new material, added to the closing essay. It is pleasant to know that Mr. Tunison's book has been received both at home and abroad with hearty praise by scholars, and has also proved, as we predicted, attractive to the general reader. It is published by Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati.

Under the general title of 'Anecdota Oxoniensia,' the Clarendon Press is publishing materials, chiefly inedited, taken direct from manuscripts, those preserved in the Bodleian and other Oxford libraries having the first claim to publication. These materials include unpublished texts, new forms of published texts, published texts which are rare and difficult of access, collations and descriptions of MSS., and dissertations on their history and character. There are four series—Classical, Semitic, Aryan, and Mediæval and Modern. Part iii of vol. i. of the Semitic series consists of the 'Commentary of Jephet Ibn Ali the Karaite on the Book of Daniel,' edited and translated by Prof. D. S. Margoliouth (Oxford: 1889). With the Bodleian Arabic text the editor gives collations from a number of others, and adds a glossary of curious words occurring in the volume, most of which are not explained in the lexicons of Freytag and Dozy. The translation is published without notes. The work is an interesting illustration of the Jewish exegetical thought of the tenth century. Jephet, as a Karaite, is a bitter opponent of the famous Rabbi Saadia Gaon (El-Fayyumi). His exposition, derived in part from the history of his times, of the visions and predictions of Daniel is full of curious material. Naturally he finds the Abbaside dynasty of Bagdad in his text, and in the iron and clay of Nebuchadnezzar's dream he sees the mingling of Romans and Arabs—that is, of Christians and Moslems—who, indeed, intermarry among themselves, yet disagree on fundamental religious doctrines. In spite of his entire lack of historical critical feeling, Jephet's explanation of the last chapter of Daniel is fairly good.

The Clarendon Press publishes also the lecture delivered by Prof. Margoliouth at his inauguration as Laudian Professor of Arabic in the University of Oxford, under the title: 'An Essay on the Place of Ecclesiasticus in Semitic Literature.' The lecturer's eminent Semitic scholarship fits him in some respects admirably for the purely linguistic work of the restoration of an old Semitic text. In the present essay he gives only a few specimens of the results of his investigations in the work of the Son of Sirach. His method is, by comparison of the Syriac, Greek and Latin versions, to restore the original Hebrew text. Unfortunately, his results are largely vitiated by his assumption that Ben-Sira writes "trimeters and tetrameters with a regularity which scarcely falls behind that of the Greek and Sanskrit poets." He refers to Prof. Bickell's arbitrary way of dealing with the Psalm-metres (without, however, mentioning Bickell's metrical researches in Ecclesiasticus), and does not see that his method is open to the same charge. Still, his comparisons are interesting, and some of his emendations commend themselves as reasonable and satisfactory. His conclusion as to the language of Ben-Sira is noteworthy: it was, he declares, the language of the rabbis. Renan expresses a similar opinion in regard to the dialect of Ecclesiastes. Put in somewhat modified form, this view has considerable probability; but Prof. Margoliouth's inference that the whole modern critical conception of the dates of the Old Testament books must be greatly modified, rests on an unwarranted interpretation of the facts. That Ben-Sira wrote in a popular dialect is not sufficient reason for denying that a Levitical poet of the second century B. C. may have written a psalm in classical Hebrew. Prof. Margoliouth's complete discussion of Ecclesiasticus will be welcomed by scholars, though it is to be hoped that he will revise his principles of historical criticism.

'The Topography of Florida,' by N. S. Shaler, with a note by Alexander Agassiz, is a pamphlet of twenty pages with a map, vol. xvi of the Bulletin of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, No. 7. Several of Prof. Shaler's conclusions are likely to cause discussion. He deals with the southern half of the State, and accounts for the strange conformation of the surface, with its peculiar basins, in the lake region, by supposing it due to the Gulf Stream flowing across this portion of Florida, bringing the sands from the northern shores of the Gulf, as then shaped, and by invoking the aid of a sudden elevation, or series of such movements, within the present geological period. The sink-holes and porous conditions of the limestones are traced to the corrosive action of rain-water containing acids from decaying vegetation, and the origin of the calcareous ooze on the flats is referred to precipitation from mixture of this water with that of the sea. Mr. Agassiz directs attention to Prof. Shaler's discovery, on the east coast, of the extension of the great coral reef northward to Jupiter Inlet and beyond, and shows this to be confirmatory of the opinion of the late Prof. Agassiz in 1851, that the land in the everglades had an origin similar to the land now being made on the mud flats to the west and north of Florida Keys. He also mentions the still existing lack of knowledge in regard to the continuation towards the south of the rocks forming the basis of the northern part of the State. In the everglades the freshets cause a rise of five to eight feet; it is to sudden outbursts of this water, charged with organic matter, that Mr. Agassiz ascribes the frequent immense destruction of the fishes along the shores. This recalls the appearance of the water, as the present writer saw it, near Key West, when the dead and dying fishes were floating by in myriads: it had a slight coffee color, and all through it there were glistening flakes like very small, thin plates of mica. Others have reasoned that the mortality was caused by a supposed escape of volcanic gases or other poisons in the sea bottom.

'A Provisional List of the Plants of the Bahama Islands,' by John Gardiner and L. J. K. Brace, arranged and edited, with notes and additions, by Charles S. Dolley, separately printed from the Proceedings of the Philadelphia Academy of Natural Sciences, is a paper of value to those interested in American botany. The recorded number of species is 621, of 410 genera, or 115 families. About one-third are considered indigenous, and 195 are shared with the Bermudas. Comparisons with the United States and the West Indies are yet to be made. The notes are full of information on distribution, habit, utility, medicinal properties, etc. Besides the systematic index, there is a glossary of common names with scientific equivalents.

The Central Commission for Scientific Geography in Germany has issued an introduction to home exploration, 'Zur Deutschen Landes- und Volksforschung,' prepared by various experts and edited by Prof. Alfred Kirchhoff of Halle (Stuttgart: Engelhorn). The geographic conditions of the surface, a chapter which suffers from its extreme condensation; surface waters, terrestrial magnetism, climate, distribution of plants and animals, German dialects and folk-lore, domestic architecture, the laying out of villages and of fields —so the topics run on through the volume. All this tends towards home study, and teaches that exploration may begin where charity should. Our National Geographic Society might some day undertake the preparation of a similar book for our own country.

Geo. F. Kelly & Co., No. 31 Union Square, announce the immediate appearance of No. 1 (June number) of a new monthly periodical, the *American Etcher*. The magazine will make a specialty of high-class American etchings, printed on Japanese paper, mounted at the four corners, and enclosed in a mat, ready for framing. Besides the monthly plate, each number will have some letter-press of critical and practical value on topics connected with etchings and etchers.

In the current number of the British *Bookbinder*, announcement is made that the journal has changed hands and that it will be enlarged and improved—for which there is ample opportunity, as few even of English trade-papers have been so narrowly insular. In the fourth volume, to begin with the next number, a few articles are promised likely to be of interest to book-collectors in this country; and illustrations of artistic bindings, old and new, are to be frequent. The stamped cloth-binding of 'A Stage Romance' in the current number is unspeakably bad; yet the editor praises it blandly.

Mr. W. W. Pasko's *Old New York* appears to have met with favor, and its May issue has a very prosperous look, with its three portrait illustrations. Two of these are of Hamilton Fish and his father, Col. Nicholas Fish, of Revolutionary distinction—a family line less than fortunate in its representative in public life of the present generation: *desinit in piscem*, shall we say? Dr. Alexander Anderson's quaint diary is continued, and tells of his service in the yellow-fever epidemic in the fall of 1795 in this city. The picture of drunken and quarrelsome nurses and attendants is in sharp contrast with our modern hospital conditions, and refutes once more the pessimistic view of "progress and poverty."

Petermann's Mitteilungen for April contains the last of Dr. Heyfelder's interesting series of articles on "Bokhara on the threshold of a new era." In this he treats of education, saying that schools are so numerous in the Khanate that at least a quarter of the people can read and write. The pupils are not wholly boys, as he found at least one girls' school in the capital city. The common-school course is seven years, during which many learn the Koran by heart. There are in addition about 200 high schools or seminaries, with from 15,000 to 16,000 students. Here the course lasts from ten to twenty years, the studies being reading, learning, and expounding the Koran, the reading of religious and historical books, mathematics, Arabic and Persian, as well as rhetoric. It is interesting to note that torture was abolished last year as a token of thankfulness for the escape of the Czar and his family from death in the railroad accident the year previous. Criminals are no longer thrown from a tower, and far more attention is paid than formerly to the condition of the prisons and the prisoners. Among the shorter notices is an account of the plan of Dr. Nansen, the Greenland explorer, for reaching the North Pole. He proposes to go in a vessel so constructed as to be raised up and not crushed by the ice, provisioned for several years. His course would be through Bering Straits to the New Siberian Islands, and then, taking advantage of the northern current which he believes to exist, to drift over the Pole to Greenland. In support of his theory it may be said that there came, in the year 1884, into the harbor of Julianehaab, on the south coast of Greenland, a cake of ice on which was frozen a pair of oil-skin breeches, marked with the name of one of the sailors of the *Jeannette*, which sank near the New Siberian Islands three years before.

"Recent Explorations in Peru and Bolivia" is the subject of an interesting paper by H. Guillaume in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for May. Their common object has been to find available routes by which the products of the marvellously rich but entirely undeveloped region lying on the eastern slope of the Andes and about the headwaters of streams flowing into the Madeira and Amazon can be brought to a market. The mineral wealth is represented by gold—stated to be in vast quantities, but in mines situated on steep hills and approached by footpaths only, so that everything must be carried from or to them on men's backs—coal, copper, lead, marble, and jasper. The fertility of the soil is such that "rice yields two crops annually, the sugar-cane ripens every eight or nine months without being replanted, tobacco yields three crops of fine quality, and plantains, pineapples, vanilla, and yucca ripen at every season. Cotton, of a size unknown elsewhere, grows wild in great quantities; coffee and coco produce two excellent crops, and maize may be cut every three months." To these may be added India-rubber, the largest product, cinnamon, camphor, indigo, balsams, many medicinal plants, and all kinds of tropical fruits and vegetables. "Fish and game," says one of the explorers, "were abundant and the climate was delightful." The Indians are comparatively few in number, and are divided into a large number of tribes.

An interesting attempt to revive the old Shaksperian stage by adapting it to the modern theatre is reported from Munich. Two years ago Gaedertz, in a monograph 'Zur Geschichte der Altenglischen Bühne,' published a hitherto unknown interior of the London Swan Theatre of 1596, the main feature of which was the division of the stage by a pair of columns into two sections. On the basis of this discovery, the managers of the Royal Hof- und National-Theater at Munich have proceeded to construct a double stage, one in front of the other, the inner one being narrower and somewhat raised, the outer one nearly corresponding to the ordinary proscenium. This arrangement makes it possible to dispense entirely with the troublesome entr'actes and changes of scenery, and to represent Shakspere's dramas without depriving them of a single scene. The effect produced by "King Lear" as performed in this manner seems to have been perfectly overwhelming.

In concluding our notice of Mr. Henry Adams's History of Jefferson's Administration we ventured to correct his spelling of the name of Joseph Hamilton Daveiss. We depended on the concurrent spelling of the name as bestowed on three counties in Kentucky (especially), Indiana, and Illinois, as well as in contemporaneous prints, in Appletons' American Cyclopædia, and the United States Postal Guide, in taking Daviess to be the correct form. We have been satisfied, however, by possessors of autograph letters of Daveiss that Mr. Adams was right. The error goes back to the act of the Kentucky Legislature of December 14, 1815, which named a county after Daveiss. This misspelling, says a correspondent, was no less inexcusable than the same body's naming Green County after Gen. Greene, Muhlenburg County after Gen. Muhlenberg, Menifee County after Hon. Richard H. Menefee, etc. Mr. Daveiss, we are further told, as if to avert the fate that has befallen him, used to sign his name in capital letters (script).

The quarterly Bulletin of the Boston Public Library for April embodies the whole of Mr. J. L. Whitney's 'Catalogue of the Bibliographies of Special Subjects,' already noticed by us as of great usefulness and wide availability. This is followed by an account of the Barlow sale, somewhat in the nature of an apology for certain costly purchases made by the Library on that occasion. Much curious information is given concerning the origin of the collection, which was begun by Col. Thomas Aspinwall of Boston, and so rightly reverted in part to that city.

Dr. George Bullen's fifty years of service in the Reading Room and as Keeper of the Printed Books at the British Museum have prompted the raising of a testimonial fund on his retirement. Earl Spencer heads the committee, and Mr. B. F. Stevens, 4 Trafalgar Square, will, as honorary Treasurer, receive and acknowledge subscriptions. The names of contributors will be printed in alphabetical order without mention of the respective sums. American indebtedness for the use of the library has here a natural channel of expression.

Prof. Theodore F. Wright, 38 Quincy Street, Cambridge, Mass., as honorary Secretary of the Palestine Exploration Fund in this country, solicits subscriptions and donations to the Fund in view of its special undertaking to excavate the mound at 'Ajlan, the Eglon of Joshua, under the direction of Mr. Flinders Petrie.

—The *Century* for June gives the first place to an extremely interesting and profitable account of the London Polytechnic Institutes and People's Palaces which, within the last decade, have begun a revolution in the conditions of life for the poorer classes of the great metropolis. The original model of all, Mr. Quintin Hogg's Regent Street Polytechnic, is first described in detail which cannot here be followed; but the results are indicated by the fact that seventy thousand persons, in the formative age of their career, have been enrolled in it, and that its annual capacity of twelve to thirteen thousand is fully availed of. It is a club with so many educational, social, and athletic subdivisions that the enumeration is amazing, especially when it is remembered that the Institution is practically the work of one wealthy merchant who has given his time to its organization and conduct, and has expended, besides the first outlay of $300,000, an annual sum of $30,000 from his private means. Its success has been a main cause of the confidence felt in the later similar institutes founded in other parts of London, under the influence of Sir Edmund Hay Currie and others, and in cooperation with the Charity Commissioners, who have appropriated large sums from the consolidated ancient parochial trusts of the city. It is probable that there will soon be from nine to twelve of these great popular schools of useful instruction and entertainment in the different quarters of the city. This is a remarkable instance of the effective energy

and enlightened control of the English spirit, uniting public and private aid for great ends, in the face of practical social questions of real magnitude, and may profitably be studied by the destructive sentimentalists whose philanthropy can find no model short of a German militarism distributing the fruits of industry like rations. In the remainder of the number we notice a highly appreciative critique of the pictures of Mr. Albert Ryder, a timely paper upon the tariff as a tax, in connection with the theory of taxation, by Mr. Atkinson, and a literary and social contribution on the subject of the French Salon.

—The June *Harper's* begins with the first instalment of Mr. Henry James's translation of Daudet's "Port Tarascon, the Last Adventures of the Illustrious Tartarin," of which it is needless to say anything more than that the skill and interest of the translator bid fair to make this latest example of refined light comedy as delightful in English as any rendering of foreign wit which we possess. The illustrations are numerous and spirited, and help to translate to the eye the same foreign element which Mr. James renders for the ear. Vicomte Melchior de Vogüé contributes one of his thoroughly studied sketches of Russia, in this instance in the Caucasus. Mr. Hutton provides the dramatic article in the shape of a history of American burlesque, in which the lively illustrations are the most taking part; but the text is done with the conscientiousness and thorough knowledge of the topic which characterize Mr. Hutton's work in everything he undertakes to write about. Two other papers are of the solid worth which is looked for in the treatment of special subjects in this magazine. One is upon the city of Birmingham, under the title of "The Best-governed City in the World," in which the growth of the city in recent years, its Art Institutes, Libraries, and Schools, the municipal reforms which have made it the owner of its water-power, gas-supply, and a considerable portion of its own soil with the houses on it, together with the governmental system, are described and explained. The second article is an historical summary of the policy of Prince Bismarck, and its gradual working-out to the great results contained in it, from the inception of his schemes to the formation of the Empire. Inferior, but not valueless, papers are on range-finding at sea by electricity, whist for the beginner, and the chapbook heroes of immortal fame in the annals of the heath, the prison, and the gallows.

—In the *Atlantic* Mr. Charles Dudley Warner discusses the relation between the prevailing taste in fiction and the common school, and inquires to what extent the failure to develop an appreciation of good literature in the young is an explanation of the quality of the most popular novels. Whether this is an adequate theory or not, there can be no valid objection to the belief that a more intelligent and better-directed study of literature in the schools would help to improve the public taste, and sustain the better work of those authors who are not simply engaged in supplying a demand for reading, as if the newspapers, magazines, and circulating libraries were mere markets for pecuniary returns. President Walker deals with the present agitation for the eight-hour law in a temperate spirit of conservatism: he grants the usefulness of more leisure to the working classes and the value of State control of the hours of labor in the past; but, on the other hand, he questions whether the workmen cannot obtain such relief as is practicable by their own efforts, which is a better way of control, and he draws from the different conditions of different trades and the variety of their physical strain a doubt as to the possibility of a common limit of labor in all. He argues, too, in behalf of the right of the minority who may wish to labor a longer time, and against the desirability of making so large a reduction, which is really experimental, at once. Hannis Taylor takes up the often-mooted proposal to engraft on our Constitutional system the English Cabinet as the initiating power in legislation (but apparently without the feature which compels resignation on failure to effect measures), and argues in its favor, mainly on the ground of the defects in the working of our present method. There are in the number also an article, in the classical series, upon Ambrose and Symmachus, a word for "villains" from Agnes Repplier, and a description of King Arthur's country.

—*Scribner's* is notable for advance extracts from Stanley's book, illustrated with several cuts, among which the picture of the new-found race of the pygmies is the most curious, and that of the starving of Nelson the most pitiful. The text consists of the opening letter of the explorer, in which he acknowledges his faith in the providential care of God, and gives some special instances in which he seemed to recognize it most clearly; and to this he adds an account of the most miserable suffering of the expedition from the lack of food, during which Nelson's detachment, being left behind, perished or deserted, and the fate of his own column seemed desperate until his coming up with the Arab settlement in the wilderness. In connection with this incident, he draws a strong picture of the nature of these Arab slave-hunting and ivory-gathering bands, and urges the prohibition of gunpowder as the one measure which would inevitably put a stop to the devastation of the interior tribes. The personality of the leader is felt with extraordinary force and in a many-sided way in these fragments of his work. The remainder of the number is made tame by the leading article, but there are an instructive paper on city house-architecture, with illustrations from the East and South, by Mr. Russell Sturgis; a plea for legislation compelling cities to retain the title of public franchises and take a responsible lead in determining the manner of their utilization by leasing corporations; and a collection of Millet's letters from Barbizon, during the period of his greatest difficulty and poverty, which are often touching from their simple and intimate quality. The number concludes with a dramatic scene of the death of Rosamond, by Barrett Wendell, which is of unusual excellence, being, in the first place, really dramatic in handling, and, in the second, composed in blank verse of good form. It is noticeable also as an exceptional return by a young writer to the older models of English verse.

—From the Part of the English Philological Society's Dictionary next to appear we shall be able to learn all about the term *cockney*, the origin of which has exercised the wits of so many speculators. Meantime, Dr. Murray, the principal editor of the Dictionary, has discussed the term very fully in the pages of the *Academy*. It is there pointed out that, as applied to a person, it had, primarily, the sense of "cockered or pet child," and was used, later, to denote the sort of man into which such a child ordinarily develops. As the next step, *cockneys*, in the language of rustics, were the inhabitants of large towns, whom old-time Hodges and Gileses regarded as being, in comparison with themselves, squeamish or effeminate, cockered children of a larger growth, "milksops," "mollycoddles." Gradually, the epithet came, at last, to be restricted to Londoners, on the assumption that, in a preëminent degree, they were lacking in what uplandish folk accounted proper manliness. But, long before the emergence of persons designated as *cockneys*, there was a word *cokeney*, resolvable into *cokeney*, "cocks' egg," and signifying "fowl's egg." This is established by evidence which is beyond all gainsaying. "And, now that we know the original meaning," writes Dr. Murray, "there is no difficulty: the petted and cockered child was his mother's nest-egg, or, as Fuller, little suspecting how near he was to the truth, said, her 'nestle-cock.'"

— Prof. Skeat, in the first edition of his 'Etymological Dictionary,' prudently considered the origin of *cockney* to be "unknown." In his supplement, however, after he had taken counsel with the eccentric Mr. Hensleigh Wedgwood, he fancied that light was dawning on him. Still unaware of *cokeney* as meaning "cocks' egg," he there boldly lays it down that *cokeney*, "cockney," "answers precisely to" the fictitious French *coquiné* and the fictitious Low Latin *coquinatus*, evolved from the Latin *coquina*, "kitchen." And he adds: "I think we are now certainly on the right track." We are somewhat reminded, by this, for its astounding irrationality, of Ménage's celebrated genealogy of *rat: mus, mu-ris, mu-ratus, ratus, rat.* Adopting Prof. Skeat's notion, the 'Century Dictionary' unhesitatingly declares for the original of *cockney* in the Utopian *coquiné* and *coquinatus*, "a vagabond who hangs around [*Anglice* about] the kitchen," or "a child brought up in the kitchen," and pronounces that this is "the only solution of *cockney* phonetically satisfactory." On the other hand, Dr. Murray contends, on irrefragable grounds, that such a "solution" is demonstrably impossible. The implicit followers of Prof. Skeat have now had a lesson, and by no means the first, as to the danger of taking it for granted that his adjudications may safely be accepted without independent research and due acquaintance with scientific philology. A whole host of his confident whimseys has already been exploded by the redoubtable Dr. Murray; and doubtless a whole host more is destined to share their fate.

—A new edition of Prof. Ritter's 'Music in America' has been issued by the Scribners, bringing the work up to date and including two new chapters. The book contains a great deal of information not accessible elsewhere, and the gathering of which implied an extraordinary amount of patience and research in out-of-the-way places. It is not, however, merely a compilation of facts and dates, but the author enlivens every topic by looking at it in its æsthetic and social as well as its historic aspects. Among other new matter there is an interesting discussion of the music of American negroes, in the course of which the curious fact is referred to that in the slave songs the joyous major key predominates. The dying struggles of Italian opera at the Academy of Music are described, as well as the rise of German opera in New York and the fortunes of French opera in New Orleans. The West also receives considerable attention, and emphasis is placed on the great share which the German singing societies have in developing a taste for music: "for, wherever at least four Germans gather together, one may be sure to find a Männerchor." The greatest desideratum in our Western cities is a better orchestral equipment, New York and Boston being the only cities which have permanent first-class organizations. These two cities also differ

from others in being able to get along with a regular concert season, while elsewhere music festivals are needed to stimulate an occasional remunerative interest in the art. In the discussion as to why we have no folk songs, no native popular music, in America, the early Puritan influence and the hardships of pioneer life are taken into account. The following remarks should be printed in large letters and hung up in every school-room:

"When the War of Independence was over, the war songs sank into oblivion; the grotesque, foolishly skipping 'Yankee Doodle'—and history designates this as of foreign growth—had jostled them all out of existence. The fact that a people of such innate, exasperating seriousness, at times bordering on gloom, has accepted a melody like 'Yankee Doodle' as the emotional expression of their patriotic feeling, is a psychological problem. If a prize had been offered, open to competition among all the musicians of this globe, for the most melodiously insignificant, shallow, and trivial song, the author of 'Yankee Doodle' surely would have received the distinguished award."

—The tenth annual report of the Archæological Institute of America (May, 1889, now just printed) shows a cheerful outlook, not above being improved by an increased endowment, and records a noticeable activity in the New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore branches. In the appendix, Professor H. W. Haynes summarizes what has been lately achieved in American archæology, and Professor Alfred Emerson in classic. The latter review gives a good idea of the Acropolis excavations among others. The report makes mention of Mr. A. F. Bandelier's final report of investigations carried on among the Southwestern Indians from 1880 to 1885. The first part of this document, which the writer's name stamps with the very highest authority, is now before us, and makes a comely volume in excess of 300 pages, with several photographic illustrations of the pueblo, a type which seems to be disappearing. Hinged doors and glazed panels, and ground-floor entrances in place of ladders—marks of greater security—are transforming these villages. "Isleta has lost the pueblo character completely, and resembles a Mexican settlement." Mr. Bandelier's narrative is thoroughly readable, while fortified, as usual, with scholarly references and citations.

TWO FAREWELL VOLUMES OF SONG.

Demeter, and Other Poems. By Alfred Lord Tennyson. Macmillan.

Asolando: Fancies and Facts. By Robert Browning. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

One of the speakers at the Browning Memorial meeting in Boston pointed out that Voltaire had, in his day, disposed of Dante in terms that might seem to have been aimed, in our own day, at Browning, pronouncing him almost unintelligible (*peu de gens entendent ses oracles*), and predicting that his fame would only subsist through the absence of actual readers. The speaker might well have gone on to remark that Dante could no more have produced one of Petrarch's perfect and delicious sonnets than Browning could have written the closing poem of Tennyson's last volume; and hence that no permanent comparison could safely be based on detailed perfection alone. The curious simultaneousness of the publication, by the two leading English poets, of their final (or probably final) volumes, leads naturally to some such comparative review of results, and to a closer look at two men, the product of the same country and the same age, and yet as essentially unlike as if remote centuries and the antipodes of space had produced them. It is impossible to resist the impression, in viewing them jointly, that the individual man of genius is greater than his *milieu;* and that the mode of his production still remains a mystery, even after we have weighed and counted all the elements of his outward life.

Great poets are apt to come in pairs, and, when they do, it takes a long time for the balance to adjust itself. Shakspere and Milton would hardly now be cited as equal names, though this was formerly common enough—their sonnets being sometimes published together in a single volume. Nor would any one now regard Goethe and Schiller as equals, a thing once so common that Menzel thought he had finally put an end to it, and had solved the problem by placing Schiller definitely in the higher grade. When, nearly fifty years ago, Tennyson rose to his recognized place, on the publication of the revised edition of his poems (1842), it seemed to his admirers that he would have no brother near his throne. If he was destined to have one, there were a dozen men, now almost forgotten—Milnes, Sterling, Trench, Alford, Bailey, and the like—who seemed as likely to contest the palm as Browning. The latter began to publish poems somewhat later than Tennyson, though but three years younger, and he was not, like Tennyson, helped into fame by being heaped with ridicule; nor was he compelled in consequence to withdraw any foolish verses, as it were under fire, like Tennyson's "O Darling Room!" and "Rusty Christopher"—poems which might now teach us charity even towards Oscar Wilde. But, whereas Tennyson had won assured fame in 1842, Browning's 'Bells and Pomegranates,' which began to be issued in 1841, gained very little recognition, and the poet himself has said that a single odd number has often sold, of late years, for more than the whole series yielded him. Landor's admiring encomium, a few years later, came as an utter surprise to most readers, and Lady Pollock tells us, in her 'Macready as I Knew Him,' that this great actor was almost alone in London, in 1854, in pronouncing Browning "one of the few great poets of the world" (p. 64). Browning's long absences from England, too, kept him from the public eye, though perhaps hardly more than that habit of rather self-absorbed seclusion in which Tennyson rivalled and almost surpassed Wordsworth. When Browning came back to England, however, it was as a kindly and genial man of society, and he never came so near to describing himself, probably, as in his "How It Strikes a Contemporary." The stranger who saw Tennyson saw one who fulfilled by his presence all that fancy could demand of the picturesque, the poetic, the unusual; it was he, not Browning, whose aspect suggested Venice; he looked almost as un-English as Beaconsfield; all his conversation, moreover, revolved in a circle round himself, and he seemed to rate all contemporaries by the degree in which they appreciated him. In talking with Browning, the great difficulty was to believe him a poet at all, until one resolutely pushed through to the depths; he seemed simply one of a thousand genial and experienced Englishmen.

All this personal detail is not without its use in comparing the total result of these two lives. We do not criticise the mode of life or the decidedly self-centred personal habits of the pearl-oyster so long as nature has thus given him the key to the actual production of pearls. Nor can we, on the other hand, complain if a poet loves the market-place, so long as not an incident of that market-place fails to yield its material for him.

> "If any beat a horse, you felt he saw;
> If any cursed a woman, he took note,
> Yet stared at nobody."

As a result, while the admirers of Tennyson may claim with entire truth that if the standard of greatness is to set deep thoughts and emotions to music that surpasses not merely all criticism, but all imagination of possible higher excellence, Tennyson has reached that point in "Tears, idle tears" and "Ask me no more" and "Peace, come away!" yet there is room also in the universe for those who hold that range and compass of poetic conception count for something, and that the volume and variety of human life in this precise age of the planet will be found more copiously and richly rendered in Browning than anywhere or everywhere else, even counting in the whole work of Tennyson. Perhaps the best persons, on the whole, to strike the balance would be those who were familiar, nearly half a century ago, with both poets—who know their Tennyson by heart and a large part of their Browning; and to inquire which poet they continue, at this day, to take with them on their summer vacations. So far as we have been able to apply by observation this test of inexhaustibleness, we should say unhesitatingly that Browning—perhaps from the very fact of the difficulties he offers—holds his readers the longer. It is certainly a curious fact that while Browning societies thrive and multiply in spite of ridicule, and while these include not merely the young, but many persons past middle age, who have been life-long students of Browning, there seems no demand for Tennyson societies, whether of old or young.

If we revert to the Voltairian attitude, and say that all this study is simply due to obscurity, what are we to make of the fact that the Shakspere societies far outnumber the Browning societies? Indeed, we can never get far beyond the Goethian theory that if we wish to know where the best cherries grow, we must ask the boys and the blackbirds. The wide and genuine interest in Browning is really the response to his universal interest in what is human. From the very first, instead of singing of Mariana and faintly smiling Adeline, like Tennyson—worthy though that song might be—he flung himself into the mighty struggles of Paracelsus:

> "Are there not . . .
> Two points in the adventure of the diver:
> One—when a beggar he prepares to plunge?
> One—when a prince he rises with the pearl?
> Festus, I plunge!"

Or he joined the historic march of Strafford, following his terrible motto, "Thorough," till it brought him to his death. 'Sordello' will live, in spite of its bewildering condensation, because no other book so profoundly analyzes that contest between thought and action which so absorbs the early maturity of many a strong man. When Tennyson paints a human soul, he does it strongly, penetratingly, almost tenderly; but he does not paint it "as if his colors were blended of the mind's own atoms," as Margaret Fuller said of Coleridge; and this is what Browning did. He did it, too, with a wealth, a copiousness, an endless variety, that makes his collected poems an encyclopædia of human existence. As for the manner, he too could produce perfect lyrics, as in "Pippa Passes"—lyrics that sing themselves more essentially than Tennyson's softest strains; but when these did not come, something else must take their place. Just as Emerson says of John Quincy Adams, at bay in Congress, that he cared little if his voice wheezed and coughed—no matter; it must cough and wheeze his emotions—so Browning must give what he sees of life, melodiously if he can, rudely if he must. At any rate, we receive it, vast, varied,

unequal, often disappointing, sometimes exasperating, but we have it all.

And it will always seem a proof of this more extensive observation that Browning was incessantly creating and multiplying new types of character, and that even the plots of his dramas were almost absolutely his own. Of course, when a poet is so great as Shakspere, it matters little to us whence his story comes; but it takes Shakspere to make us wholly indifferent to that side of the matter, and in comparing poets below that supreme grade it is impossible not to recognize their difference as to degree of inventive power. It was with a sense of disappointment that all readers learned the Finnish origin of the 'Hiawatha' measure; it is with a kind of annoyance that the reader finds the iron rhythm of George Meredith's "Nuptials of Attila" to have been caught from Hodgkin's translation of the Latin prose of Jornandez ('Italy and her Invaders,' ii., 194):

"'Mid the joys of wine and night,
Painless thou hast taken flight,
From thy brethren, Attila."

In the same way it is impossible to forget that Tennyson found the Arthurian traditions ready-made to his hands, and that he hammered out his "Ulysses"—magnificently indeed—from the six terse lines of Dante:

"O frati, dissi, che per cento milia
Perigli siete giunti all' occidente,
A questa tanto picciola vigilia

"De vostri sensi, ch' è del rimanente
Non vogliate negar l'esperienza,
Diretro al Sol, del mondo senza gente."
('Inferno,' xxvi.)

Browning, on the other hand, after building on slight historic bases the whole airy fabric of 'Paracelsus' and 'Sordello,' trusted wholly to himself in 'Bells and Pomegranates,' and produced a series of dramas of which only one —and that the poorest—had any historic basis at all; achieving a series of highly wrought and admirably adjusted plots, all drawn, with their dramatis personæ, from his own brain. He wrote no more plays, but multitudes of his later poems were each a condensed drama—still original, plot, characters, and all; and when at last he borrowed again in the 'Ring and the Book,' it was virtually to produce a dozen dramas in one. Compared with this vast and living profusion, the dramas of Tennyson seem scanty and cold, and even his stately Arthurian traditions a little academic. Only in 'In Memoriam'—doubtless his masterpiece—did Tennyson unite creative imagination with wealth and variety; nor did Browning, perhaps, produce any single work which, taking all things into account, reflected his own genius with equal completeness.

It is pleasant to be able to add, since the world has something at stake in the vitality and longevity of genius, that the farewell volumes—if farewell it be in both cases—of the two great Victorian poets show them in full vigor at the last, and holding each to his characteristic qualities. Tennyson meets the final change with an exquisite reverie, and Browning encounters it face to face, as he might meet one who brings a challenge that arouses, not dismays. There is none of that stretching of the hands, one to the other, which is so agreeable to contemplate among our veteran American poets; they do not look towards each other, but float on side by side, like the two "ships becalmed at eve" in Clough's fine poem, unconscious of each other, yet having a common course towards the same haven:

"One port, methought, alike they sought,
One purpose hold, where'er they fare;
O bounding breeze, O rushing seas,
At last, at last, unite them there!"

LAWTON'S VERSIONS OF EURIPIDES.

Three Dramas of Euripides. By William Cranston Lawton. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889.

EURIPIDES has not been so fortunate in his translators as Sophocles and Æschylus, partly by reason of the greater number of his plays, but chiefly because they are so unequal in interest and execution. It happens, however, that every one of the dramas which are here presented has been done before into English verse, and by no means ill-done. If the "Alcestis," in "Balaustion's Adventure" represents, as a recent *Saturday Reviewer* thinks, the very worst of Browning's performances, it must be remembered that Browning's nadir, contrary to definition, manages to climb high in the poetical horizon. It is natural, however, that Mr. Lawton should prefer to try his fortunes with the "Alcestis," the "Medea," and the "Hippolytus." They are as powerful and beautiful as anything of Euripides: the motive of each, self-sacrifice, jealousy, passion, and revenge, is entirely modern and intelligible. If there is anything antiquarian in them, it is a mere question of externals, and has little or nothing to do with the main action of the play. The conditions and limitations, however, of the Greek theatre were so different from ours that they require explanation for the English reader who desires to orient himself in a region so foreign to his experience. It would be hard to find this better done than in Mr. Lawton's introductory essay, in which he shows culture, good taste, a critical spirit, and sufficient learning without pedantry. Each of the plays is also provided with an introduction and a running commentary, which are in the main helpful and appreciative. It strikes one as strange that the poet has the smaller type allotted to him, while the commentator reserves to himself the more luxurious "long primer." It might also be felt that occasionally the cicerone, however refined and enthusiastic, has too much to say, and leaves too little to the imagination of his "personally conducted" band. But the essays were first delivered, we believe, in the form of lectures, and this may explain the peculiar cosey domestic air of certain passages at which the wicked might smile, and which imply that Boston is still the Delphic centre of the universe.

The general aim of the translator seems to have been fidelity—a very close adherence to the original, which he often apparently renders line for line, in the choral passages as well as the dialogue. We say apparently; for fidelity is of many kinds, and so close a matching of lines carries with it special snares and perils. In the first place, it is of very little consequence that there should be the numerical correspondence which exists, for example, in Longfellow's version of the 'Divina Commedia.' Metrical versions are evidently not made for scholars, except so far as the scholar is a lover of literary art, but for readers ignorant of the original. Being metrical, they must also aim to be artistic, to represent the higher qualities of the poet—his spirit, his beauty of thought and diction; in a word, his charm. The skeleton—"the letter which killeth"—can be obtained from Mr. Bohn and his most useful and honorable guild of anatomists; but the figure, the movement, the life, are what we ask in the poetic version. If an author like Euripides is to live to English people, he must consent to put off some of his Greekishness, and to use the English tongue according to English idiom and tradition. It is most important that the artist who re-creates, should not embarrass himself with the grave-clothes that were buried several thousand years ago; nor, indeed, should he fetter himself with any superfluous conditions. We believe that Mr. Lawton has suffered from his own theories.

The extract we subjoin is taken from the beginning of the "Medea," and presents some impassioned conversation, followed by a strictly choral passage, and some lines of level dialogue. It illustrates several different styles and metres:

CHORUS (entering).

I have heard the voice, I have heard the cry
Of the wretched one,
Of the Colchian, nor is she gentle yet.
Speak to us, prithee, thou ancient dame.
Wails from within have I heard at the gate.
Joyless to me are the woes of your home,
Since it is grown so dear to me.

NURSE.

A home there is none; that already is past!
For he has wedded a royal spouse,
In her chamber my lady is wasting away,
And in no wise the words of one of her friends
May bring to her heart consolation.

CHORUS.

Tearful was the cry I heard.
She with shrill lament proclaims
Him who cruelly betrayed her.
Suffering wrong, she calls on Themis,
Child of Zeus, of oaths the guardian,
Who across to Hellas led her,
Through the strait impenetrable,
Over seas in darkness veiled.

MEDEA (coming from her home):

Corinthian dames, I have issued from my home,
Lest ye be wroth with me; for I have known
Many proud mortals, some who dwelt apart,
Some publicly; but they who lived reserved
Acquired an evil name *and slothful soul.*
There is no justice in the eyes of men,
Who ere they well have learned a mortal's heart
Hate him at sight, though suffering no wrong.
A stranger must cleave closely to the State,
Nor do I praise a townsman crude and harsh
Through boorishness to fellow-citizens.

The choral passage is highly poetic; almost every word in the original is unusual in prose, or has an unusual syntax; the epithets in the later lines are picturesque and have a Homeric flavor. Of this lyric tone there is little intimation in our rendering. The address of Medea follows the Greek, line for line, with apparent closeness; and yet we believe the connection of thought is left quite obscure. This arises partly from the mistake we have italicized, partly from the neglect of certain guiding particles, and partly from a somewhat servile adherence to the letter and the arrangement. A brief paraphrase will explain this: "I come to greet you," says Medea, "lest you misinterpret my reserve and call it pride. For justice dwells not in the eyes of men. They hate at sight an utter stranger who has never done them wrong. So even citizen to citizen should render courtesy; but, above all, an alien —such as I am—should bend his humor to the State." It is very doubtful whether Euripides ever used such timber as the much-disputed τοὺς μὲν ὀμμάτων ἄπο, Τοὺς ἐν θυραίοις, here rendered, "Some who dwelt apart, some publicly"; and a version whose object is clearness and the poetic touch might well have cut this Gordian knot by choosing some simple emendation. This is a matter of opinion, however. On the other hand, it is quite certain that Euripides meant to say "acquired an evil name (reputation) for indifference"; or, according to Wecklein's reading, "the reputation of hostility and indifference."

A similar want of point and of articulation arising from similar causes may be observed in the strophe (page 128):

"Upward run the streams of holy rivers;
Justice is reversed and everything.
Treacherous are the thoughts of men; immortals
Watch no longer over plighted faith.
Fame shall bring us better reputation;
Honor comes upon the race of women,
Shrill-voiced infamy no more is ours."

The best commentary we can offer on this is to place beside it Mrs. Augusta Webster's rendering:

"The hallowed rivers backward stream
Against their founts; right crooks awry
With all things else; man's every scheme
Is treachery.
Even with gods faith finds no place.
But fame turns too; our life shall have renown:
Honor shall come to woman's race,
And envious fame no more weigh women down."

Each translator has misapprehended the sentence, θεῶν τ' Οὐκέτι πίστις ἄραρε, "And their faith plighted by the gods no more stands firm," which contains no accusation against the gods, but merely expands the thought of the preceding clause.

How awkward a task it is to make the English and the polysyllabic Greek travel side by side, is well seen in the line from the "Alcestis," κακῶς κλύοντι καὶ κακῶς πεπραγότι, which Browning renders perfectly by "ill-famed, ill-faring"; and which dissolves into mist in Mr. Lawton's "to live inglorious and most miserable." To the same difficulty may perhaps be referred some lines which we think would be unintelligible to the English reader, such as the retort of Pheres (line 724):

"Thou dost not bury in joy an old man's form,"

where Browning gives ἐγγελᾶς its due in:

"There's no laughing now,
As out thou bearest the poor dead old man!"

Again, in the passage (Medea, 1,209),

"Unhappy girl,
Who hath bereft *an old man's tomb* of thee?"

we doubt whether any one would suspect that the phrase italicized means "an old man with one foot in the grave," or, as we say, "an aged wreck." Another point is lost or buried in the "Hippolytus" (line 458), "They love, submissive to calamity." If στέργουσι is here interpreted by "they love," the usage and the authorities are against it. The nurse has been urging on Phædra the bright example of certain favorites, who were rapt to Olympus, and adds, with gentle irony, "They yield, I trow, *with resignation* to their fate."

The versification is partly illustrated in the specimens we have quoted. The choruses are rendered without rhyme, in metres some of which bear a certain resemblance to the original, and in a rhythm which is not always sufficiently marked to reveal itself easily to the ear. The obvious objection to this method is that it does not represent the Greek and is in accordance with no English tradition. To represent the Greek movement, as Mr. Lawton, of course, feels, would be next to impossible. Mr. Swinburne might perhaps achieve it, for short flights; but he has not chosen to do so, because, as he doubtless knows, versification is a matter of tradition, except to the few who can create tradition. It is not easy to evade tradition, to uproot the growth of a language. Longfellow could not manage it with his hexameter, nor Matthew Arnold, however delicate and exquisite the music of the fragments entitled "Antigone" and "Dejaneira." Indeed, our highest authorities point the other way. Shelley was content to rhyme in the "Cyclops" and Browning in the "Hercules Furens." These masters in their way bowed to the genius of the language, and followed its unbroken lyric tradition since the "Samson Agonistes" and "Alexander's Feast." The question may seem different when it concerns the anapæstic systems which are so frequent in animated dialogue, as an introduction to iambics. The anapæst is native in English, and has been used with great beauty, variety, and force in the "Atalanta in Calydon" and in Browning's "Hercules Furens." But here again Mr. Lawton has chosen to avoid rhymes, and in following the original systems closely, as he thinks, has fallen into lines that are weak and unskilful in emphasis, moving at a canter, and closing with a pirouette. His blank verse, which of course constitutes the bulk of the dramas, is far more pleasing and successful than these experiments. When it fails, its defects arise chiefly from the causes we have pointed out in the address of Medea just quoted. We permit ourselves an extract from the famous soliloquy of Medea, spoken before she resolves to murder her children:

"My sons, my sons! Ye have a city indeed,
And home wherein ye shall abide for aye,
Bereft of mother, leaving me forlorn!
I, exiled, to another country pass,
Ere I have joy in you and see you blest,
Delighting in your wife and wedded bliss,
Holding aloft for you the marriage torch.
Accurst am I for my perversity!
In vain, O children, have I nurtured you!
In vain my labor and my agony
When I the heavy pangs of travail bore!
High hopes were mine, ah me! in other days,
That ye should be the prop of my old age,
And honorably care for me when dead,
That men should envy me. But now is lost
That fancy sweet; for I, bereft of you,
Shall spend a sad existence, full of pain.
And you with loving eyes will watch no more
Your mother, passing to another life.
Ah me! Why do you gaze on me, my sons?
Why are you smiling with that final smile?"

It would be ungracious and unprofitable to discuss in detail slight errors or misconceptions, most of which would doubtless have disappeared upon careful revision. The instances we have noted are typical of a defective and somewhat servile method, which shows itself in various other ways, in the unidiomatic use of participles, and in weak phrases, such as "the implacable one," "the wretched one," which Browning permitted himself occasionally, but which are in him a disagreeable mannerism. The result is a version which may be called a likeness, but which too often reminds us of the cold and waxen counterfeit that was to console Admetus for his lost Alcestis. Picturesque words and phrases have faded into commonplace; metaphors are sometimes emptied of their vivacity and significance; the music of the Greek chorus has largely disappeared and its equivalent in English has been rejected. Yet there remains so much promise in a large part of the dialogue that we should hesitate to discourage a maturer effort. Mr. Lawton may have found his niche; he has not yet proved himself able to fill it. His equipment is not complete either in English or in Greek; perhaps he lacks a little of the "fine phrensy" which the translator certainly needs as well as the poet. So competent a critic will doubtless in time criticise himself, and settle his own powers and limitations. When he has regained leisure from his labors for the Delphi Exploration Fund, in which every scholar and lover of art must wish him success, he will have that opportunity for revision which would have been so useful before he published the present work. He promises hereafter the "Prometheus," the "Persians," and "Antigone." We wish, before completing them, he might encounter, or reread, Fitzgerald's "Agamemnon," and that brilliant version of the "Œdipus Rex" by Mr. Morshead, which is less known, we fear, than it deserves to be. He will find in them the exact antidote for his faults. Both are remarkable achievements, though in very different fashions; each succeeds in reproducing broadly and vigorously those beauties and great qualities which are the very life and spirit of a poem.

Orations and After-Dinner Speeches of Chauncey M. Depew. Cassell Publishing Co.

THERE can be little doubt as to the object of this compilation. When a woodcut purporting to be a likeness of the author accompanies a book, and the publisher informs editors that he will be pleased to furnish an "electro" of the cut for use "in connection with review," it is plain that politics has entered the sphere of literature. Still, we all love our joke, and it is impossible not to have some kindly feeling for a man who has amused so many of his fellow-creatures.

The humor of an after-dinner speech, however, is of a peculiarly volatile character. It evaporates almost before the reporters can bottle it for the next morning's paper, and it is seldom possible to confine it within the covers of a book. Judging from these speeches, we should certainly say that Mr. Depew had observed the maxim of Lord Chesterfield, that a wise man will live at least as much within his wit as within his income. The stories are of course twice-told tales, and the fun is principally of the kind well described as "chaff." There is nothing fine or subtile in it; perhaps the occasions have required good, broad, telling strokes, such as a number of people may easily apprehend at once. But the qualities which are necessary to make wit immediately effective are not enduring, and it must be exceptionally clever badinage that can survive the deadening effect of cold type.

The graver themes of which Mr. Depew treats are handled with varying success. He is at his best in subjects connected with the civil war, and here we find the ring of genuine enthusiasm. Very good, too, are the narratives of the capture of André and of the formation of the Government of the State of New York. But as a rule he does not rise much above the level of ordinary newspaper eloquence, and there are occasional sentences which we can hardly believe to have been written by an educated man. Mr. Depew seems impressed, from time to time, with the magnitude of his subject, and would speak of it in lofty language; but neither his thought nor his pen has been trained to deal with the ideal, and when he attempts to be fine he barely avoids bathos. We hear much of the beacon-fires of liberty, the destiny of nations, the shores of time, the wrecks of empires, the struggling masses, the teeming millions, and the other stock phrases with which our orators are wont to cover the poverty of their thought. The expression, "The high and harmonious teachings of the common school," however, must be allowed the merit of novelty. But for evidences of any depth of culture, or even of elementary statesmanship, we look in vain, and the most laughable thing in the book is the serious reference to President Cleveland as "remarkable for inexperience in the duties of Government and for ignorance of the great issues before the country."

Probably by this time Mr. Depew has learned who was ignorant of these issues, but it does not appear that he has yet acquainted himself with political economy. Whatever may be our impression as to his general sincerity, it does not admit of doubt that he honestly believes that the prosperity of our country has been mainly caused by the taxes upon industry imposed by Congress. We feel more sceptical as to the "prayerful consideration" which he professes to have given the matter of his "withdrawal from the Presidential race," and we are sure that he is quite too hard-headed a man to "devoutly believe," as he declares he does, that the souls of Washington and Lafayette returned "from the unseen and unknown" to participate in the ceremonies at the unveiling of the statue of Liberty, and that their "spirit voices" "joined in the glad acclaim" upon that occasion.

It is a strange fatuity that impels a man enjoying an exalted, secure, and eminently responsible position to desire to relinquish it, and to be "dragged through the hurricane and surfeit of mire and detestable accusation"

(to use the language of another great master of metaphor) to the office of President of the United States. Such would assuredly be Mr. Depew's experience, and his chance of election would hardly seem to justify the sacrifice. It is not his enemies but his friends that will assure him that he will be happier in continuing to devote his days to the solution of railroad problems and his nights to post-prandial oratory. But the appearance of this book proves, we fear, that the disease which has been so fatal to prominent Americans has made alarming progress, and we must conclude that it is not clergymen alone who feel it necessary to sacrifice personal inclination when the call comes to a wider sphere of usefulness.

North American Geology and Palæontology; for the use of Amateurs, Students, and Scientists. By Samuel A. Miller. Cincinnati: The Author. 1889. Pp. 664. 8vo.

In this monument of laborious painstaking, Mr. Miller, who has long been known as a collector and describer of Ohio fossils, has attempted to define all the genera of palæozoic fossils found in North America, and to give a list of all the known species under each genus. As this nearly exhaustive catalogue occupies all but a hundred pages of the volume, the title is somewhat misleading.

The chapter on the "Definitions and Laws of Geology," which forms the introduction to the work, could well be spared, seeing that for those who know geology it is quite superfluous, while for those who do not it is altogether inadequate. Worse still, it is confused and rambling in arrangement, and by no means free from inaccuracies of statement. The author is a rigid uniformitarian, and lays it down as a fundamental proposition that "the changes which the earth has undergone within the scope of geological investigations were produced by the same laws, acting with the same degree of power, as those we may daily witness." "The greater number of valleys in North America have been carved out by the streams flowing in them at substantially the same rate of excavation that is now in progress." "It is evident that glaciers have not been much more imposing in past geological ages than they are now." So far as the *intensity* of the forces involved is concerned, these positions are of course untenable, as might be easily shown were this the place for such demonstration. Especially remarkable is the section on volcanic activity. The observed increase of temperature as the earth is penetrated is referred to pressure of the surface layers, or the "force of gravity," while the melted masses are said to be due to chemical causes.

"From the proximity of volcanoes to, or occurrences in, the sea, it has been supposed their active state is produced by the percolation of sea-water to metallic bases of the earths or alkalies at various depths, which bases become inflamed, and chemical action ensues, producing the eruption." "Electricity is a factor in all earthquakes and volcanic eruptions. Its action is manifest in the atmospheric disturbances, in the undulatory movement on the surface of the earth, and in the speed with which the earthquake wave travels. . . . Suppose a powerful current of electricity near the surface of the earth to be broken and suddenly restored, the shock may be supposed to resemble that of an earthquake. Fusion might result in consequence of such restoration. . . . In other words, subterranean electric currents, if once excited, may melt the rocks and produce the heat necessary, when assisted by the presence of a sufficient quantity of water, to produce volcanic eruptions."

Mr. Miller does not, it is true, commit himself to these views, but that he should have selected such theories for mention while omitting all those that have any semblance of probability, is sufficiently extraordinary. If, again, he had carefully examined the lava plains of the Northwest, he would hardly have stated that "there is no evidence of a volcanic eruption on the continent of North America in past geological ages that surpassed in volume" the great Icelandic outburst of 1783.

This exposition of dynamical and structural geology is followed by a careful account of the American formations, their geographical distribution and mode of occurrence, from the Laurentian to the Post-Pliocene, though these chapters contain much that geologists in general will not be inclined to accept. Thus, Mr. Miller adopts the Taconic system of Emmons, despite the number of times that the untenable character of this supposed system has been shown, and especially despite the recent careful review of the whole question by Walcott. Our author does not seem kindly disposed towards this observer's work in showing that the lower palæozoic rocks of this continent, like those of England, may be divided into the Cambrian, Ordovician, and Silurian. "No careful geologist or palæontologist uses the word [Cambrian] in the nomenclature of American strata, though it occasionally occurs in incoherent geological papers."

In his account of the Western tertiaries, Mr. Miller omits the Puerco Eocene, refers the Wind River to the Nebraska Miocene, and calls the Loup Fork Pliocene. He altogether rejects the glacial theory, and will hear nothing in its favor. "The glacial epoch is a theoretical blunder, not supported by scientific facts or intelligent reasoning, and contrary to all geographical, geological, and palæontological information." We can only suppose that some classes of "scientific facts" have escaped Mr. Miller's attention. Indeed, he seems, in his zeal for uniformity, to deny, at least implicitly, all important climatic changes in the earth's history, ignoring such familiar and obvious evidence as the carboniferous and Miocene floras of Greenland, the sub-tropical plants which abound in the Green River shales of Wyoming, and the like.

The catalogue itself covers more than 500 double-column pages, involving an amount of labor which only those who have attempted similar undertakings can appreciate. Its arrangement leaves much to be desired, in that the genera (except in the case of the molluscs) are placed in alphabetical order under each phylum or "sub-kingdom"; the presence of a full index removes the only excuse for this highly inconvenient method. It is rather surprising too, to see the sponges classified as Protozoa, and the brachiopods as molluscs. Every specialist will no doubt discover errors and omissions, and determinations and references which he cannot admit; but this is, of course, inevitable in any work of such magnitude. The glossary might with advantage have been submitted for correction to some one whose classical studies were more extensive than those of the author. Such a plan would have prevented a number of ludicrous blunders, for example: "majus,-a,-um," "minus,-a,-um"; "gracilius, a,-um."

The book is a useful compilation and will prove of value for museum reference, though it cannot be recommended as a manual for "amateurs and students."

The Marriages of the Bourbons. By Captain the Hon. D. Bingham. Scribner & Welford. 2 vols. 8vo.

Judicious gleaning in the highways and byways of French history has yielded Captain Bingham very interesting material for these volumes of historical gossip. By confining himself chiefly to contemporary sources, he has given his narratives a degree of vividness and authenticity much beyond what is ordinarily possessed by compilations of this kind. It is a familiar paradox that nowhere has royalty a more pleasing glamour cast about it, or does noble blood exercise a more potent charm on the mind, than in this democratic country of ours. Kings and queens are creatures of another world, and the mystery of their being gives a romantic fascination to every little commonplace detail in their lives. For all persons who ever feel the sway of such emotions, Captain Bingham's volumes will be interesting and perhaps instructive. He takes his readers into the very inner circle of royalty, so far as it can be entered through private letters, memoirs, and the researches of modern biographers. Ordinarily we think of kings as enjoying power, and seldom ask ourselves if they enjoyed liberty. The maze of restrictions upon their liberty of action from the cradle to the grave, imposed by tradition, etiquette, family interest, and state policy, to say nothing of the concessions that had to be made to that feeling of proprietorship which their subjects entertained towards them, would make life fairly intolerable for the free American citizen. Repeatedly in Captain Bingham's pages is one impressed with the extent to which royalty had to forego that element of privacy in family life which is so essential to happiness.

It is unnecessary to discuss his work in detail. It is well conceived and well carried out, but insufficient care has been bestowed on the minor details. Selections from the letters of Mme. de Maintenon, Maria Louisa, and Marie Antoinette make up two of the most interesting chapters. It seems to have been an almost fatal misfortune for Marie Antoinette that she married so early. A few years longer spent with her mother would have made her a better queen and a more serious woman. The famous Chevalier d'Éon de Beaumont figures amusingly in one of the chapters on Louis XV. One of the best *mots* that Capt. Bingham records is that of Lord Mount Edgecombe on the later career of this modern Tiresias: "The Chevalier d'Éon Beaumont was his own widow!" M. Vatel, from whom Captain Bingham has derived many interesting facts about Mme. du Barry, attributes her execution during the Terror to "a man called Grieves, an Englishman, a deputy of the United States," who denounced her for having conspired in London against the republic. We find no trace of this Grieves holding any official relation to the United States. He seems to have been a man of worthless character, but some have given him a slight importance by conjecturing that he was the translator of the Marquis de Chastellux's Travels.

Captain Bingham closes with a paragraph on the surviving members of Louis Philippe's family. He mentions the Princess Clementine's marriage, but her later career deserved a paragraph. As the ambitious mother and trusted adviser of Prince Ferdinand of Bulgaria, she has recently played a rôle requiring the highest political tact, and has been of invaluable help to her son in maintaining himself for nearly three years in a position it was not thought he could retain as many weeks.

These volumes are handsomely made, but the text is disfigured by more misprints than is excusable. Among them may be mentioned Austria for Asturias, vol. ii., p. 553. Familiar personages, whose names have a recognized English form, often appear in a French disguise, as, Laurent de Medicis, Jules II. In vol. i., p. 35, we are told that the Bishop of

Liège was "assassinated, as described by Walter Scott, in 'Quentin Durward,' by William de la Marck." The Bishop was killed by De la Marck, but not at all in the fashion described by Scott, as Scott himself took pains to inform his readers in a note. On p. 12, the accession of Hugh Capet is put in the year 957, instead of 987, and on the last page of vol. ii. the death of the Duke of Orleans is dated in 1858 instead of 1842.

Bright Skies and Dark Shadows. By Henry M. Field, D.D. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1890.

THESE letters of Dr. Field's from and about the South have but a slight texture, for the most part, as the author himself frankly recognizes in his preface. The opening chapters, in particular, are marked by many instances of purely personal and superficial gossip such as is apt to characterize the correspondence of an editor of a religious paper on his travels. He gives a good and clear description of the battle of Franklin; both here and in his chapters on Stonewall Jackson and Lee drawing freely and happily upon the stores of knowledge possessed by his Southern friends. But the larger part of the book is taken up with discussions of the negro question, which, of course, is the "dark shadow." Dr. Field does not pretend to see his way clear to its solution, and contents himself with presenting various aspects of the case, in a general way, as they appear to his mind. He roundly denounces the giving of the suffrage to the freedmen as being merely a partisan expedient, and as roundly asserts the justification of the Southern States in freeing themselves from spoliation by a government of ignorance. On the other hand, he thinks the suppression of the negro vote a great wrong, though what is to be done about it he does not know. He admits that there is prejudice against the negro in the North, and even cites Gen. Armstrong to the effect that it is greater than at the South. The most he can advise is patience, with the application of all the resources of education and Christianizing influences.

The Economic Mollusca of Acadia. By W. F. Ganong. St. John, N. B.: Barnes & Co. 1889. 113 pp. 8vo. Ill.

IN this little brochure, which is neatly reprinted from Bulletin No. viii. of the Natural History Society of New Brunswick, the author has endeavored to present a synopsis of what is now known of the actual and possible value to mankind of the molluscs known to live in the waters of the Maritime Provinces. After a general introduction and a catalogue of the beneficial and injurious species, each species is treated of separately, under its scientific appellation, followed by its local or Indian names, with subheads for distribution, both in Acadia and elsewhere, for habits and biography, and for economics and statistics. In the preparation of it, archæologic, antiquarian, philologic, and statistical researches more or less recondite were necessary. The result is a very interesting little book, containing much curious and useful, though condensed, information, and prepared in a workmanlike manner.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aldrich, Anne R. The Feet of Love. Worthington Co. 75 cents.
Angel or Devil? Minerva Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Bynner, E. L. The Begum's Daughter. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
Clark, F. C. In the Valley of Havilah. F. F. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Cutler, Mary C. Philip; or, What May Have Been a Story of the First Century. T. Y. Crowell & Co.
Delpit, A. As 'Tis in Life. Welch, Fracker Co. $1.25.
Dumas, A. The Corsican Brothers. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 25 cents.
Eleusis: A Poem. Chicago.
Epitomes of Three Sciences: Comparative Philology, Psychology, and Old Testament History. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co. 75 cents.
Floyd, Isobel A. Stolen America. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Goodyear, W. H. A History of Art. 2d ed. A. S. Barnes & Co. $3.50.
Haggard, H. R. Beatrice. Harper & Bros.
Harland, H. Two Women or One? Cassell Publishing Co. 75 cents.
Hartmann, F. The Talking Image of Urur. F. F. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Hearn, L. Youma: The Story of a West Indian Slave. Harper & Bros.
Heaven, Louise P. Chata and Chinita. Boston: Roberts Bros. 50 cents.
Heilprin, L. The Reformed Primer and First Reader. New York: Babyhood Publishing Co.
Hudson, W. C. Vivier, of Vivier, Longman & Co., Bankers. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
In Her Earliest Youth: A Novel. Harper & Bros. 45 cents.
Keyser, C. S. Minden Armais: The Man of the New Race. Philadelphia: American Printing-House.
Lane, E. W. Manners and Customs of the Modern Egyptians (1833-35). Ward, Lock & Co. 75 cents.
Lloyd, H. D. A Strike of Millionaires against Miners. Chicago: Belford-Clarke Co.
Lynch, J. Egyptian Sketches. Scribner & Welford. $1.75.
MacGahan, B. Xenia Repninà: A Story of the Russia of To-Day. George Routledge & Sons. 50 cents.
Mahrenholtz, R. Jean Jacques Rousseau: Leben, Geistesentwickelung, und Hauptwerke. Leipzig: Gebhardt & Wilisch; New York: Westermann.
Miller, Joaquin. My Own Story. Chicago: Belford-Clarke Co.
Miller, Joaquin. In Classic Shades, and Other Poems. Chicago: Belford-Clarke Co.
Pellew, G. John Jay. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Roe, E. P. Nature's Serial Story. Dodd, Mead & Co. 50 cents.
Sessions, Francis C. In Western Levant. Welch, Fracker Co. $1.50.
Shakspere's Macbeth, edited by K. Deighton. Macmillan & Co.
Sienkiewicz, H. With Fire and Sword. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $2.
Stanley: A Popular Account of his Rescue of Emin Pasha. E. P. Dutton & Co.
Stapleton, Patience. Babe Murphy, Chicago: Belford-Clarke Co.
St. Martin, T. The Christ in London, and Other Poems. London: Authors' Coöperative Pub. Co.
The Danvers Jewels and Sir Charles Danvers: A Novel and its Sequel. Harper & Bros. 40 cents.
Van Zile, E. S. A Magnetic Man, and Other Stories. F. F. Lovell & Co.

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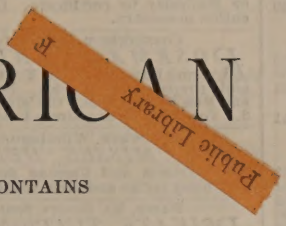

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 5, 1890.

The Week.

THE Republicans in the House appear to have decided that they must comply with the "*demand*" of the Grand Army Machine for the passage of a service pension bill. A party caucus was held on Monday, and after a long discussion it was agreed that the representatives of the House on the Conference Committee should insist upon the House amendment adding the service-pension scheme to the Dependent Pension Bill originally passed by the Senate. A service-pension scheme means the addition of an immense sum to the present enormous pension demands, but the country's only hope of escape now rests in the Senate. Thus far that branch has been strongly disposed to stand out against the job, but there is no assurance that it may not surrender to the "*demand*" of the Grand Army Machine.

The Senate has passed the bill intended to give the States the power of regulating the liquor traffic which was so largely taken from them by the "original-package" decision of the Supreme Court. The vote stood 34 in the affirmative to 10 in the negative. All of the negative votes were cast by Democrats, but five Democrats voted in the affirmative and one or two others were paired on the same side, among the number being such good lawyers as Gray of Delaware and George of Mississippi. There is no reason to suppose that the House will fail to concur. The majority in the Senate was so large that it is fair to presume the greater number of the Representatives will be found on the same side; and, what is of equal importance, Speaker Reed must favor the passage of the bill, as the courts of his State have just decided that the "original-package" decision at Washington overrides their former judgments and gives free license to the sale of liquor in that form.

Among the luminous conceits offered for enactment in connection with the Senate Silver Bill is a proviso "that the standard silver dollar heretofore coined and herein provided for shall be the unit of account and standard of value in like manner as now provided for the gold dollar." This is embraced in an amendment proposed by Senator Vest of Missouri, whose usual acuteness of perception seems to have been laid aside for the time being. The primary object of having a legal unit of value is to have something with which foreign money can be compared, invoices settled, duties liquidated, and foreign coins received at our mint. A unit for these purposes must be one thing, not two things. Even if the silver dollar be kept at par with the gold dollar, so that they are one thing for the purposes of internal trade, they are still two things for purposes of comparison with foreign money, because the element of comparison is the bullion contained in the coins. We trust that Senator Vest will not confuse the importers, the custom-house, and the Assay Office by insisting on his amendment.

In the Senate debate on the Naval Appropriation Bill Senator Blair of New Hampshire was as cranky as usual. He offered an amendment providing "that this appropriation shall not be available until the Government of Great Britain shall have been requested by the President to withdraw all her naval forces from American waters and to dismantle her naval stations in both North and South America and in adjacent islands, and shall have declined or shall have neglected for one year so to do." If Great Britain should decline to accede to this reasonable request, he (Blair) would then be in favor of building battle-ships; but if she should comply with our wishes in this matter, then a navy would be unnecessary and we could spend the money in promoting education. Even looking at education from the belligerent point of view, he considered that the money would be much better spent on schools than on ships, because "there is nothing that gives such tremendous force to a people in war as to teach them to think." Mr. Hale said that the New Hampshire Senator was not nearly so simple as his remarks indicated, and that if he (Blair) were Secretary of State or Minister to England, he would never put to the Government of that country the sort of question that he pretended to favor. Mr. Hale wanted to ask the New Hampshire Senator, soberly and without jesting, what sort of a reply he would expect. Instead of answering the question, Mr. Blair asked Mr. Hale if he had ever read the Bible, and Mr. Hale replied that he had. Then Blair wanted to know whether Hale believed in the millennium—the time when nations should learn war no more—and Hale said that he did not believe in it as a present condition. Then Blair made another speech setting forth the reasonableness of his plan of asking Great Britain to blow up her forts and demolish her dock-yards on this continent, and the probability of Great Britain acceding to it. Such a move, he went on to show, would lead to a general disarmament throughout the world. Mr. Blair kept the Senate in session several hours over his crazy proposition, which was finally rejected without a division.

The Senate Finance Committee, or subcommittee, has got itself to work on the Tariff Bill, and has made rapid progress on the schedules about which there is little or no difference of opinion among the majority. Nevertheless, it would be a mistake to suppose that even the Republicans will get through the bill without throes of anguish. The articles of wool, tin plate, sugar, linen, and silver-lead ores will be the principal bones of contention. And now we hear that it is proposed to put hides again on the dutiable list in order to reconcile the ranch-owners and the cattle syndicate. Trouble may also be expected when the tobacco schedule is reached. The items of barley and hops are not without difficulties, especially in this State. The Finance Committee is not a bed of roses just at this time, especially when we remember that they must give a reason in writing for each change from the existing scale of duties which they propose or assent to. Opinions are about equally divided on the question whether any bill will be passed at this session. We are now at the beginning of "the heated term," and since debate is not restricted in the Senate, and since many appropriation bills are yet to be considered, there is some room for doubt on this question, as there is also much room to doubt whether the party in power will be most harmed by passing the bill or by not passing it. The Democratic leaders consider that their interest lies in the passage of a bill as nearly like the McKinley bill as may be.

The ridiculousness of the McKinley Tariff Bill was somewhat enhanced in the last agonies in the House by several amendments offered by the Committee of Ways and Means, some of which were adopted, while others were not. Among those that were adopted was one making "Russian camel's hair" dutiable at the same rate as carpet wool. We learn from the Boston *Journal of Commerce* that there are two kinds of camel's hair known to the trade, viz., Russian and Chinese. The latter variety is made dutiable at the same rate as combing wool. The only difference between the two is that the Chinese have the habit of sorting camel's hair according to its fineness, whereas the Russian exporters send it out in a mass, the fine and the coarse hairs together. It is needless to say that neither of them is produced in this country, and that nobody, not even Uncle Jerry Rusk or Statistician Dodge, desires that they shall be. It should be added that camel's hair is now free of duty and always has been. Until the McKinley bill dawned upon the world, it never occurred to anybody to tax it. During the struggles in the Committee of Ways and Means, however, camel's hair had as many ups and downs as hides. It was first put on the dutiable list and then on the free list, and was on the free list when the bill was officially printed. What influences induced the Committee to put it back on the dutiable list we do not know; but we presume that when the carpet-manufacturers declared that they would fight against the outrageous duties on carpet wool, and when the wool-growers abated a part of their exactions, they (the wool-growers) insisted that camel's hair should be taxed because it is used as a substitute for carpet wool to some extent. The Boston *Journal of Commerce* furnishes engraved cuts of the two kinds of camel's hair,

magnified four hundred diameters, to show that there is no difference between them except in the matter of fineness. It would have been more to the purpose to have applied the microscope to the Committee of Ways and Means.

The passage of the River and Harbor Bill in the House with the Hennepin Canal attachment is the result of a bargain between three parties, to wit, the Lower Mississippi land-owners, the Chicago sewer-builders, and the owners of the Milan (Ill.) water power. Navigation and commerce have nothing to do with any of these things, or are at most only incidental to them. The Milan water-power people are to have the first chance, the bill providing that the work shall begin at the western end of the Hennepin Canal by the construction of a lock and dam in Rock River. This will replace, at the public expense, an old, worn-out wooden dam at that place and save the owners the expense of rebuilding it. If commerce were the chief consideration of the bill, the work would be begun on the eastern end, and thus the canal would become available as fast as any section was completed. Beginning at the western end, none of it becomes available until the whole is completed. Moreover, the western end enters the Mississippi River below the Rock Island rapids and above the Des Moines rapids, or at the only point where its usefulness would be restricted to a reach of 100 miles of river. The Chicago Drainage Commission have generously postponed their share of the good things until the Milan water power is provided for. In the next bill they will insist on some work being done on the eastern division.

Emily G. Mills is the widow of Oscar B. Mills, who was appointed an acting third assistant engineer in the United States Navy in October, 1862, was promoted to the place of second assistant engineer in 1864, and was placed upon the retired list in 1872. On the 10th day of August, 1873, he was accidentally shot and killed by a neighbor who was attempting to shoot an owl. Fifteen years later, when the fashion of asking for a pension on account of the death of any one ever connected with the army or navy had set in, his widow made her application and Congress granted it. But the signature of the President was necessary to make the bill a law, and Mr. Cleveland refused to affix it. In a message laid before the House May 3, 1888, he made a simple statement of the facts, and added only this comment: "As long as there is the least pretence of limiting the bestowal of pensions to disability or death in some way related to the incidents of military and naval service, claims of this description cannot consistently be allowed." Of course such a message was fatal. But a new President came in a year later, and Mrs. Mills renewed her application, the result being that among the acts which the *Congressional Record* of May 27 reports as just approved by Mr. Harrison appears this entry: "An act [H. R. 5083] to pension Emily G. Mills." Could the absurdity of pension demagogism further go?

The announcement was made officially a few days ago that the Pacific Mail Steamship Company had bought the British steamer *Barracouta*, well known in this port, at the low price of $140,000, and would put her at once into the Central American trade. It was stated that as the *Barracouta* was only seven years old and was a good freight boat, she would prove a very desirable acquisition to the company. Of course she will sail under the British flag, thanks to our navigation laws, and will appear in the annual trade returns of the United Kingdom, although she is owned wholly by an American company. And presently we shall hear some subsidy beggar at Washington bewailing the decline of American shipping, and asking Congress to pay him a bounty for carrying the flag alongside the *Barracouta*, because "trade follows the flag." The *Commercial Bulletin* supplies another item of interest to our infant shipping industry, viz.:

"A new fruit steamer, the *Aud*, reached this port yesterday. She came from Baracoa with a full consignment of bananas. She flies the Norwegian flag and registers 542 tons. *She is one of half-a-dozen new steamers that have been placed under time charter to Gomez & Pearsall.*"

And this is far-off Norway that supplies us with half-a-dozen new steamers, without any subsidy whatever, to run between New York and Central America, while our ship-owners are "organizing" in twenty or thirty States and Territories, including Idaho, to make a raid on the Treasury in the interest of navigation. There is nothing to prevent American citizens from owning these six Norwegian steamers, or six others like them, and making the profits on their voyages, except our absurd navigation laws.

Long before its close, the barren results of the Pan-American Congress had been pretty clearly foreseen in Europe and South America, and it is safe to say that no presses were stopped to get Mr. Blaine's valedictory address, as it was reported that they were at the time of his opening speech. It is only in these days, however, that the definitive judgments pronounced upon the Congress by the weightier organs of opinion on the European continent are reaching us. Two of those that have fallen under our notice merit attention, on account both of their source and their significance. The *Revue Sud-Américaine* of May 18 devotes its leading article to the Washington Congress. Exclusively concerned with South American affairs, as its title indicates, this journal may fairly be taken to speak for the foreign delegates to the Congress. Summing up the whole, "from the standpoint of immediate practical results," it thinks the issue very little "flattering to Mr. Blaine." "Wholly Platonic recommendations, which even so encountered a good deal of dissent, all the main proposals aborted—there is the balance-sheet of the Pan-American Congress." Yet the *Revue* very justly considers the gathering to have had great indirect consequences and significance. "It has been a collective manifestation of free and peaceful America, in the face of armed and conquering Europe. It has been a weighty warning to the protectionists of Europe." This means that Europe ought not to fall into the folly which has lost the South American market to the United States and brought the Congress itself to an inglorious end. Finally, according to the *Revue*, the Convention was "a proud refusal of Spanish America to sacrifice the least part of its sovereignty by accepting the proposals of the United States, or to participate in that country's plan of isolation and exclusion directed against Europe." It shows how the foreign representatives set over against Mr. Blaine's shibboleth, "America for Americans," the more worthy and statesmanlike motto, "America for Humanity." Its general conclusion is, that the ties now so closely uniting South America with Europe will be distinctly multiplied and strengthened as a result of the fresh demonstration offered by the Congress that the United States are not in a position to have a foreign trade.

The other opinion is that of the editor of the *Journal des Économistes*, M. de Molinari. In the May number of his periodical he despatches the subject in the following paragraph:

"The Pan-American Congress, convoked under the influence of the protectionists of the United States, has adjourned without having reached any result but a Platonic resolution in favor of arbitration. How could it have been otherwise? A commercial union is only an extension of free trade, and is not free trade the death of protection? We are aware that the American protectionist had a different idea, namely, a continental blockade for the purpose of shutting European goods out of the South American market, for the benefit of the manufacturers of the United States. But the South Americans do not seem to have discovered any motive for protecting the industries of their Northern brethren at their own expense."

The appointment of a receiver for the Chicago Gas Trust by Judge Collins seems to have taken the Stock Exchange, or that portion of the Exchange that deals in "industrials," very much by surprise. There was not the least occasion for surprise if these people had kept the run of judicial proceedings in all the Trust cases here and elsewhere. The uniform course of the decisions has been that joint-stock corporations cannot abdicate their powers or turn them over to be exercised by another body. If they do so, they commit suicide, and the courts will wind up their affairs whenever a proper case is presented. The Chicago Gas Trust was composed of four distinct corporations amalgamated as a Trust under the auspices of a Philadelphia syndicate. It was a monopoly of the most objectionable sort. It is now on the way to Execution Dock, to the joy and satisfaction of all good citizens. If people will speculate in such trash, they are entitled to no sympathy when they lose their money.

The flag editor of the Philadelphia *Press* had an able article in Thursday's issue of that journal commenting upon what he alleges to be the fact, that the decorations in Richmond in honor of the unveiling of the Lee statue "are entirely of a Confederate character, and the Stars and Stripes find no place among them." But the "staff correspondent" of the *Press* in Richmond, whose opportunities for observation would appear to be rather better than those of the flag editor in Philadelphia, reports that "everywhere the Stars and Stripes wave from flagstaffs and hang from windows. Indeed," he adds, "the profusion with which the national flag is used for decoration is as marked as it would be in Philadelphia or New York or Boston." He describes at length the manner in which the Union and the Confederate flags are displayed side by side on business blocks and in the resident streets, saying that "the national flag floats over almost every door" on the latter streets. Evidently the flag editor of the *Press* had not learned the facts from the "staff correspondent" before he wrote his article; but, as the champion of all flag editors, Col. Elliott F. Shepard of the *Mail and Express*, has shown, facts are the last thing that the flag editor cares to have.

The subscribers to the $5,000,000 guarantee fund for the Columbo-Tammany Fair are in a state of mind over a discovery that they cannot get their subscriptions back again permanently without legislation. They pledged their subscriptions to a fund to defray the expense of getting up a fair at no particular time, and they are now assured by legal talent that they are liable to be called on to pay over the money for any fair which may be organized in the name of Columbus for the next six years, or until they are relieved under the statute of limitations. The executor of the estate of a deceased subscriber cannot close up its affairs so long as this question remains undecided. No living subscriber dares to go to Europe or anywhere else, for fear somebody may get up a Fair in his absence and demand the amount of his subscription. There appears to be no relief for them before the Legislature meets in January, 1891, unless the Governor shall take pity on them and call an extraordinary session to enact a law giving them immunity from Fair organizers of all kinds.

A firm of New York publishers—Messrs. Funk & Wagnalls, are now imitating Wanamaker by advertising their intention also to take a hand in the plunder of the Messrs. Black through a photographic edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' They are conscious that there is something wrong about the transaction, for they take pains to excuse themselves in this way:

"A word as to international copyright: We have long favored such a law; in its absence, it has become well-nigh, if not wholly impossible to do a successful book business and respect the wishes of the holders of foreign copyrights. Our books, again and again, are reprinted in England without so much as a thank you. If we make a market for a foreign book, it is straightway reprinted against us, at a less price, by some one who pays no royalty. We are forced by self-protection to adopt the following rule as the fairest, all around, that is practicable—to publish what we wish of foreign books and then pay the foreign copyright owners what we think to be a just share of the profits. This we regard as the nearest approach practicable to an equitable working plan until our nation has recovered from its collapse of conscience on the international copyright question. This rule we apply to our handling of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.'

"We invite all to call at our store and examine our marvellously cheap edition of this wonderful work, or send money for a set."

Now, why, in the name of common decency, is a man obliged to do a "successful book business," if he cannot do it honestly, any more than a successful grocery or stationery business? What should we say to Park & Tilford if they told us they could not conduct a successful business without employing agents to steal stores for them in England and France? And what has the reprinting of the Funk & Wagnalls books in England by somebody else to do with the right to steal books from the Messrs. Black? Supposing the *lex talionis* to govern the relations of civilized business men, how can it excuse the punishment of one man for another man's fraud? Have the Blacks ever stolen the Funk & Wagnalls books? And what on earth is "the self-protection" which forces this latter firm to seize on "what they wish" of a foreign author's property, and then pay him what they "think to be a just share of the profits," after having sold the man's goods to strangers? Was any such overwhelming necessity as this ever heard of outside a robber's cave? When did your "rule of self-protection" get the better of the Eighth Commandment? And finally, brethren, is it worth while "waiting for our nation to recover from its collapse of conscience" before finding out what is the matter with your own conscience? The national conscience is not within your control. It will have to be doctored by a good many people besides you, but the Funk & Wagnalls conscience you have right under your hand, and can treat with as vigorous remedies as the case seems to call for.

The Methodist Book Concern's column advertisement of "impropriety and immorality," as the editor of the *Christian Advocate* rightly terms it, which got published in that paper without the knowledge either of the editor or of the advertisers themselves, contained, as our readers may remember, this astonishing paragraph:

"Do not be frightened by the unjust and untrue statements which appear in papers, and which are supplied and paid for by rival publishers. Remember that *you can arrange with an editor for just as strong notices of your book, if you care to pay for them, because the business of an editor is to make money for his paper*, and as long as you pay him for what you desire inserted he will treat you just as kindly as he will any one else."

Now this appears not to be true of the *Christian Advocate*, at all events, and we are glad that our comment called out an emphatic disclaimer of it from that paper. But here we have an office circular from the "*Herald and Presbyter*, the most largely circulated Presbyterian Weekly Newspaper in the United States. Montfort & Co., Publishers and Proprietors, 178 Elm St., Cincinnati, O., June 2, 1890," asking school-teachers for "patronage in the advertising columns," "*also to give facts for a brief free reading notice.*" And, says this largely circulated Presbyterian journal, "P. S.—We shall be glad to have you, from time to time, give us items of interest in regard to your institution." No wonder that people can be made to believe that "you can arrange with an editor for just as strong notices of your book, if you care to pay for them." The *Herald and Presbyter* goes on to say: "Presbyterians are distinguished for business activities and enterprises. They favor movements to advance the material, intellectual, and moral interests of society. They educate their children. The *Herald and Presbyter* advertisers appear before an extensive and appreciative audience. The clean character of its advertising secures them favorable attention." Evidently the *Herald and Presbyter* itself is of those "distinguished for business activities and enterprises," but its "movements" are not in accord with the "moral interests of society," and the character of its "reading notice" advertising is the opposite of "clean."

The British Ministry have succeeded, after the fiercest contest which has taken place in the House of Commons since the early days of home rule, in getting through the Committee the clauses of their revenue bill which put an increased tax on beer and spirits to supply the County Councils with the means of buying out liquor-dealers who wish to surrender their licenses. We have already given some account of the nature of the controversy, which has roused the temperance advocates all over the country to the highest pitch of excitement. They say that the provision of a fund to compensate the publicans for the loss of their licenses is a formal recognition that a license to sell liquor is a property or freehold, instead of being, what it really is, a permission given, in consideration of the weakness of human nature, to carry on a trade which is injurious to the community. They maintain, moreover, that after this concession has been made, no license will ever be taken away without compensation, owing to the chariness of English magistrates about interfering with what seems in the smallest degree a property right, and that a new and formidable barrier will thus be set up in the way of restricting the liquor traffic in any particular county. The bitterness of the conflict is increased by the general belief, both of the Liberals and the temperance men proper, that the measure is really a note of preparation for the general election; the liquor interest, or "licensed victuallers," as it is there called, being in England, as in this country, a very powerful body in politics. The collapse of the Liberal resistance in the House was due to a cunning concession made at the last moment to the Parnellites as regards Ireland.

A UNIQUE PERFORMANCE.

THE public announcement by the Postmaster-General of the United States that he proposes to take a photographic copy of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' and sell it at a very low price and pocket the money, is certainly the most extraordinary incident in the history of this very remarkable Administration. Here is his announcement, which is literally unique:

DEAR SIR: We can furnish you with an exact facsimile of the ninth AND LATEST (1889) edition of 'Encyclopedia Britannica'—maps improved and brought down to date—at $1.50 the volume.

The set is well printed on good paper, without abridgement, and is one of the most substantially bound books we have ever handled.

To let you fully know what an unequaled opportunity this is, you can have the FIRST VOLUME for sixty (60) cents, without any agreement on your part to take the remaining volumes of the set—which can be had if desired at the price first named ($1.50 each), and be paid for as received.

The set will be in twenty-five (25) volumes, corresponding in number and matter with the Edinburgh edition. The total cost to you would be $36.60.

We expect to be able to deliver four volumes a month, and to complete the delivery in November next. You can arrange to take the books one or more a month, as you please.

Very truly yours,
JOHN WANAMAKER.

PHILADELPHIA, May —, 1890.

Following close on the announcement of the President of the Senate that there are no morals in politics, and that a man may lawfully lie, cheat, and steal in order to get the better of his fellow-citizens in party contests concerning the administration of the Government, one hardly knows what name to give this document. The 'Encyclopædia Britannica' is a collection of articles which have cost the original publishers a very large sum of money and an immense amount of labor. Without the expenditure of this money and labor the book would not exist. The paper and binding might exist, but nobody would buy them except by the pound as waste to be consigned back to the paper-mills. What makes the volumes worth the nine dollars each at which they have been sold, is the words printed on the pages, describing certain facts and expressing certain ideas. The publisher paid the authors for these words. He could not have got them without paying for them, and after he got them they were, by all the laws of morality, as much his as the furniture in his store or the type in his composing-room.

Even if we accept the view which some people hold, that there can be no such thing as property in ideas or in forms of expression, and that anybody who wants ideas or forms of expression may lawfully appropriate those of any other man, if he can get hold of them, it must be borne in mind that the appropriation must be for his own use. This argument will only cover stealing for the special personal benefit of the thief. If he prigs a man's thoughts, it must be for the cultivation of his own mind. He must take them, as he takes the air or the sunshine, simply as the common heritage of the human race. He cannot take, for the purpose of selling and making money, something which another man has constructed for the purpose of making money. To take a thing from another man because it is not property, and then immediately treat it as property for commercial purposes, is to be not only inconsistent, but absurd. Literary pirates are bound not to deal in their own plunder. They may study it, and absorb it, and enlarge their minds through it, but they must not open a store to sell it in, or peddle it through the country at low rates. Consequently, although John Wanamaker, Postmaster-General of the United States, might be justified in stealing from the Messrs. Black of Edinburgh one copy of the 'Encyclopædia' for the improvement of his own intelligence, or for his use as a book of reference when composing his Sunday-school addresses, on no theory yet produced by any school of thieves touching literary property can he steal from the Messrs. Black in order to stock his store, and for purposes of sale at a profit, without becoming himself a thief.

In copying the Messrs. Black's book by the photographic process, Wanamaker is simply guilty of counterfeiting. He is doing what copiers of bank-bills and greenbacks call "pushing the queer." His edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' is neither more nor less than "green goods." It is true that, unlike the counterfeiter, he gives the person on whom he "pushes the queer" a thing of value. The person whom he cheats is the person whose bills he copies, so that his offence, although it resembles counterfeiting externally, in reality belongs to the category of grand larceny. Admitting that Wanamaker may lawfully appropriate one copy for the improvement of his mind, the fact still remains that the money he makes by the sale of the counterfeit property belongs to the Messrs. Black. In Wanamaker's drawer, or in his bank account, it is simply "swag," far more so than the money which Claassen and Pell took from the Sixth National Bank, and for taking which they are now to go to jail.

We made some fun the other day of the suggestion of the London *Speaker*, that the 126 members of the House of Representatives who voted against the Copyright Bill should, on their arrival in London, be treated as "social pariahs" or disgraced persons with whom men of honor could not properly associate in clubs or private houses. We thought this suggestion was due to ignorance of the special conditions of society that exist in large portions of the country, in which professional authors as a class are unknown, and the idea that a living can be made by book-writing is quite unfamiliar to most of the inhabitants. The notion, therefore, in these places, that there is anything of *marketable* value in a book, beyond the paper and typography, is hard to grasp. It is not surprising that it has not secured a firm lodgment in the local system of ethics, and cannot get Congressmen to do much "voicing" for it, as they say. In truth, the strong sense of literary property is not very old even in England. So we bespeak patience and discrimination of London society for our erring Congressmen. But John Wanamaker, the Postmaster-General of the United States, we leave at the mercy of British moralists. If, when he goes over to London, he has to take all his meals at a hotel, and is refused admission to all the clubs, and all "the great houses," as 'Squire Smalley would say, we shall not utter a word of protest. He ought not to be able in any civilized community to sit down comfortably at a dinner-table with honest men.

THE CENSUS QUESTIONS.

ONE of the most curious aberrations of the new Census Bureau was the list of questions it drew up to be asked by the enumerators. Some of these actually required people to tell not only about the diseases of members of their families, but about their own, and not only about their diseases but about their debts. The great object of a census is not so much to collect statistics on various matters, as statistics which are reliable—that is, from which one can make solid deductions of some kind. Rows of figures which cannot be depended on as records of facts are of no use whatever except as arithmetical exercises for children. This makes it extremely important, first, that the enumerators and collaters employed by the Census Bureau should be not only persons of good character, but persons noted for their accuracy; and, secondly, that the information they are set to collect should be easy to collect. The harder it is to acquire any particular kind of information, the less desirable it is that it should appear in a census, because if once it gets into the official tables, it acquires an air of authority, and may mislead thousands of persons in making calculations for public and private purposes, who, if they saw it anywhere else, would pay little or no attention to it. For statistical purposes it is always better to have no figures at all than figures which are not correct. After every precaution has been taken to secure the services of good enumerators, it will still be necessary to be very chary in extending their sphere of duty. They should be held up to the utmost diligence and efficiency in taking the count of population, and in collecting such obvious facts as age, sex, color, nativity, and parentage—that is, facts which are visible, or which the person interrogated is not likely to have any motive for concealing. But every step the ordinary enumerators take beyond this, the less trustworthy do they become. All information which can only be got by questioning becomes unreliable in the direct ratio of its disagreeableness. This is the ordinary experience of human nature, and nobody needs to pay more attention to peculiarities of human nature than census enumerators.

All this would be true even if census enumerators, especially in large cities, were accomplished statisticians, or persons of high character and standing, or if any pains had been taken to prepare for this census by selecting them under the civil-service rules. But no such pains have been taken. The civil-service rules have been deliberately disregarded in selecting them, and it is quite safe to say that a considerable number of them in this and other large cities belong to the

class known as "political heelers"; that is, people without regular occupations, who live, or try to live, by odd jobs in or out of politics. At all events, they are not by any means the class of persons to whom any one fit to superintend a census would think of confiding what are called "inquiries of a delicate nature," and yet they have been actually charged with the task of extracting from men and women answers to figure in a body of official statistics touching the two things on which all men and women are most reluctant to give information to any one—their bodily ailments and their pecuniary condition. No man, and especially no woman, likes to tell a stranger about a secret disease or disability—that is, about one which is not visible—and about debts and liabilities. Almost everybody resents inquiries on such subjects, even from friends, as an impertinence. It is therefore easy enough to foresee the state of mind in which they would receive them from a more or less forbidding stranger popping in from the street with a note-book. Of course they cannot be prevented by any legal penalties from returning lying or incorrect answers if they answer at all; and then what is the virtue of the resulting figures? Think of laboriously tabulating such stuff and having it printed at the public expense!

The criticism excited by the programme has been so lively that the earlier talk of giving power to the enumerators to arrest people who refused to answer them, or to start some sort of legal proceedings against them on the spot, has been judiciously abandoned. The enumerators will not take women to jail who resent their silly questions about their bodily condition or that of their daughters. We presume that penalty will be reserved for the fathers and brothers who kick them out of the house. A circular has been accordingly issued by the Superintendent revising the instructions. As it is a curiosity in its way, we reproduce it:

WASHINGTON, May 26.

To Supervisors of Census: You will please instruct enumerators in cases where persons refuse to answer the questions on the population schedule relating to physical and mental disabilities (22 and 23), or to the question relating to farms, homes, and mortgages (26 to 30 inclusive), to enter in the proper column the words "Refused to answer." No further steps will be necessary on the part of the supervisor or enumerator, and all legal proceedings will be instituted by the Washington office through the Department of Justice.

(Signed), ROBERT P. PORTER, Superintendent of Census.

The last part of this is worthy in every way of the author. It will be a comfort to sufferers from mental and physical disabilities, and persons who like to keep their private affairs to themselves, to learn that if they do refuse to lay their whole condition in life before the enumerator, such "legal proceedings" as may be taken against them will be instituted by the Washington office through the Department of Justice. This has an awful sound. To have the Department of Justice pursuing you to make you tell about your rheumatism, or your cough, or your fistula, would, of course, be a terrible experience for a delicate man or woman; but we advise the diseased public to be of good cheer. They will never be troubled by the Attorney-General with any species of writ. Common sense reigns in the Department of Justice, if not in the Census Bureau.

POLICE ETHICS.

THE wonder that this city has any orderly government at all grows with every session of the Fassett Committee. During its two months of inquiry into the methods of our municipal administration it has touched no department, even in the most cursory manner, without making revelations of jobbery, mismanagement, and more or less direct bribery and corruption. It has shown that the Sheriff's office for twenty years has been a perfect sink of iniquity, being literally a den of thieves who used the office as a headquarters from which to rob that portion of our citizens who were compelled by law to go there for assistance and protection. It has shown that the incumbent of this office, who confesses that he made a bargain for the division of illegally extorted tribute from the people whom he was sworn to serve faithfully, and who received from one such illegal source alone $21,000 in two years; who confesses, also, that he passed over $10,000 of his profits from the office to the political boss who had put him into it, through the absurd pretence that he handed it over as the godfather of the boss's infant child—it has shown that the man who did this was elected to the Mayoralty because he had by these and similar acts demonstrated his "usefulness" to the political forces which control the city. It has shown that the Excise Commissioners—all of whom are under indictment for wilful breach of official duty—have been conducting their department in the interests of rum-sellers and dive-keepers, and have been aided in that respect by police justices and by at least one of the higher courts.

On May 28 the Committee devoted a few hours to the conduct of police captains, and the result was similar in kind to what had gone before. Three captains were examined, and two of the three made admissions which ought to lead to their summary dismissal from the force, but which are more likely to lead to their promotion if the Police Board acts upon their case as it has recently acted upon that of another captain whom it found guilty of blackmailing. One of the two testified that though he had ninety-five men and two ward detectives under his orders, he was unable to get proof, easily obtained in abundance by excise inspectors, that a notoriously infamous resort in his precinct was really immoral, and he therefore signed a report in favor of granting a license to its keeper in which he vouched for him as a "man of good moral character." What he regarded as "good moral character" he had some difficulty in explaining. He did not think that a man who habitually violated the excise law could be said to be of bad moral character. He would not consider a man who was a "manufacturer of thieves and libertines" to be an immoral character. Finally, he summed up his ethics by saying: "A man can be good and moral, and a man can be good and not moral in a way." He did not know of any policemen who were "good and not moral in a way," and seemed to have a vague idea that goodness of that kind was to be found mainly in dive-keepers, who should because of that quality be allowed to conduct their business without police interference.

The second captain, who was the somewhat notorious Killilea, made even a worse exhibition of himself. He was forced to admit that he had, eight days after formal complaint had been made to him of the bad character of a place in his precinct, signed a report in favor of the renewal of the place's license, in which he said no complaint had been made against it. He was forced to admit, also, that he made a sham effort to test the place's bad character upon which he based his report that it was fit to have its license renewed. It came out during the inquiry about this place, which is notoriously one of the most infamous in the city, that when its proprietor was brought into court to plead to an indictment which adjoining property-owners had secured against him, one of the Excise Commissioners, Koch, appeared as the man's counsel. It was subsequently explained that Koch was not regularly retained as counsel, but, happening to be in court at the time, he had merely "acted as counsel in a friendly sort of way." This is the same Commissioner who was drunk when he was himself arraigned on indictment a few weeks ago. That he should be engaged in "friendly" offices for a keeper of a disreputable house whose license he, as Excise Commissioner, had been asked to renew, is one of those characteristics of Tammany government with which this public ought by this time to be very familiar.

We doubt if either the police captains or the Excise Commissioners are able to see anything particularly objectionable in their code of official conduct. They have a moral sense only a shade or two duller than that of the liquor-dealers and dive-keepers whose interests they protect, and with whom they have been intimately associated all their lives. It is not their fault that they have been put into positions of official responsibility, where they are supposed to be the guardians and preservers of the rights and interests of the law-abiding and respectable people of the community. It is the fault of these same law-abiding and respectable people that they allowed them and their kind ever to get possession of the Government, and that they allow them to keep possession year after year, though their grotesque intellectual and moral unfitness has been known and recognized of all men for years.

THE ICEBERG SEASON OF 1890.

THE fortunately harmless collision during fog of the steamer *Normannia* with an iceberg is but the latest of many collisions of the kind which have been reported since the present year came in. They have been the result of a remarkable flow of arctic ice over the Grand Banks of Newfoundland, which

has caused a condition of affairs more suggestive of north polar exploration, and of the journals of arctic navigators than of ordinary Atlantic voyaging. Our Signal Service and hydrographic charts during the last five months have been a continuous report of great fields of ice, of bergs many in number and often of great size, of "the whole coast of Newfoundland blockaded by ice" at times, of sailing vessels "nipped," and of steamers forced far from their courses to avoid the icy obstacles. The monthly review of the Signal Office for February, closing the winter months, refers to this flow of ice as the greatest during the last eight years, and made peculiarly exceptional by its early appearance in January. The May pilot chart of the Hydrographic Office covering the month of April reports twenty serious accidents to vessels by collision with ice and two vessels lost. One vessel reported seeing no less than 140 bergs, another 59, another 50, and another 49. One of these bergs was estimated at 250 feet high above the water line, and a thousand feet long, another 100 feet high, half a mile long, etc. When the record of the whole of the iceberg season of 1890 is fully compiled, we shall doubtless have the story of an area of ice quite unprecedented—a probability that gives special interest to the pilot chart covering the month of May, which will be forthcoming from the Hydrographic Office in a few days.

It is not merely the extent of the separate ice-fields and the number and magnitude of the bergs which make the present season noteworthy, but the vast expanse of ocean over which the ice area has reached. Hitherto the eastern limit of the ice in the track of ocean steamships has been fixed at about 40° W., possibly a little further. This means a limit say 500 miles east of Newfoundland. But the last report of our Hydrographic Office tells of bergs moving northeastward in longitude 35° W., which would mean a distance of some two hundred miles further east of the island. This variation of the record is accounted for at the Hydrographic Office in two ways: first, the enlargement or change of direction eastward of the arctic current flowing south past Labrador; and secondly, the probability that the immense mass of ice has created in the Gulf Stream lakes of fresher and lighter cold water, which have kept the bergs from melting rapidly after reaching the warm Gulf Stream water and changing, in its flow, their southerly course to a northeastward one. It may be noted that Mr. Richard Brown, F.G.S., in his 'Notes on the Northern Atlantic,' fixes the North Atlantic ice area off Newfoundland at about 200,000 square miles—figures which this year will have to be greatly enlarged, perhaps doubled.

The interest, popular as well as scientific, excited by this exceptional ice flow on the ocean may justify some speculations as to its origin and age. It is periodic, usually appearing eastward of Cape Race in April or late March, and is annually looked for by the sealing fleets which, in early March, sail northward from St. John's, Newfoundland, to "meet the ice" and secure, if lucky, their profitable cargoes of seal pelts. How long it takes to drift in the cold arctic current from the upper polar regions to the ocean steamship paths cannot be accurately stated. Very uncertain elements, such as strength or direction of winds, variations of the arctic currents or of the amount of discharge from arctic glaciers, enter into the problem. As one clue to it, we have the drift of the wrecked party from the *Polaris* during the later months of 1872 and up to April 30, 1873. That party sailed on their ice floe from near the upper point of Baffin's Bay for almost two hundred days, until rescued off Labrador. Adding the distance southward to the ocean-steamship tracks, we should have about eight months as the time of passage of the ice from upper Baffin's Bay to the Grand Banks. This would make the ice seen from the decks of ocean steamships belong to the flow detached by the arctic heats of the previous summer, as is generally assumed. But, as Gen. Greely has pointed out in his story of arctic exploration, an immense portion of the arctic ice has its origin much further north than Baffin's Bay; and when we find in that remote region a glacier like the Humboldt, with a sea-front from forty to sixty miles wide, we get a vivid conception of the magnitude of the remoter arctic ice flow, which, with its winter detentions, may have had a voyage of two, or even three, years before it reaches the Gulf Stream. Incidentally we can perceive the value to commerce of that great warm flood of water intercepting the arctic current, and melting quickly the bergs which otherwise might be common visitors to our own coasts, and, lasting long into the summer months, might become far more serious terrors to navigators than they are now.

Another point, the connection between our two successive "open" winters and this season's ocean ice, must be left to the scientific experts. If they find that our two mild winters extended into the arctic regions, that connection may be made clear.

The special perils of vessels from ice on the Grand Banks and beyond during this season recall a paper printed in *Harper's Magazine* of August, 1882, by Capt. J. W. Shackford, then of the American Line steamer *Illinois*, plying between Philadelphia and Liverpool. Capt. Shackford argued in favor of a route through the ice region about a hundred miles south of the ordinary steamship courses—a route over which during six seasons his ship's record showed an average of but three hours of fog. During 1881, one of the most foggy seasons known, his record showed fog for but two hours. We reproduce here his entries for six days of two steamers which sailed from Philadelphia and New York respectively on the 28th of May, and took respectively the southern and northern courses:

FROM PHILADELPHIA.	FROM NEW YORK.
May 29. Fine weather; five hours fog.	Light airs and hazy.
May 30. Pleasant weather; no fog.	Light breeze and hazy.
May 31. Fine weather; no fog.	Light breeze and fog.
June 1. Fine weather; no fog.	Light breeze and hazy; then clear.
June 2. Pleasant weather; no fog.	Moderate breeze and fog.
June 3. Rain.	Moderate breeze and fog.

It is generally assumed that the arctic bergs floating down past Newfoundland reach lower latitudes than bergs in other parts of the world. This is a mistake. The British Government Reports from ships meeting with south polar bergs, and extending over many years, showed bergs floating northward to much lower southern latitudes. Among them is the report of "many bergs" 400 feet high seen in November, 1839, in latitude 41°, which would be about the north latitude of New York city; three bergs 500 feet high seen in November of 1856 in the same latitude; and one seen August 16, 1840, from the Dutch ship *General Baron von Geen*, which is described as 1,000 feet high, and was met in latitude 37.30, which would correspond in north latitude with a point say 190 miles south of New York. The heights of the bergs given above refer to altitudes above the water-line, which must be multiplied by nine to give the depth below water. One of the floating ice mountains described in the British official reports was three miles long. Their heights indicate places in the great glacial continent of the south polar regions where the universal ice-sheet reaches enormous thickness. Sir James C. Ross, *facile princeps* among antarctic explorers, mentions the ice-sheet at no point as more than 300 feet high, and his largest berg—seen first in 1841 and again seen and measured in the succeeding year—was but 150 feet high though four miles long. It was of the common "table berg" type of the antarctic seas.

Since Ross's expedition of almost half a century ago—unless we except the short excursion into the ice of the *Challenger* scientists—there has been no real exploration of those mystic south polar realms of ice where glacier and pack and berg reach proportions far greater than in the arctic regions. The fact gives fresh interest to the plans for antarctic research which have been lately discussed in Australia. The purpose of the Danish Government of organizing an expedition to explore the interior Greenland ice-cap, announced by cable a few weeks ago, is still another point of kindred interest in this exceptional iceberg season.

LONDON—PARLIAMENT—IRELAND.

LONDON, May 22, 1890.

THE charm of London at this season can scarcely be exaggerated. It is no longer the gloomy, unlovely city of Oliver Twist and of the forties, when as yet the good and beautiful things of life were reserved for the few, when a park meant merely trees and grass, when the word *hotel* recalled dinginess and horsehair and high charges, and when it was difficult to procure meals outside a pothouse. Democratic ideas, enlightenment, and intercourse with the Continent have changed all this, and now London, at least London west of Charing Cross (and usually we judge a city by its best side), is perhaps one of the most delightful and cheapest cities in the world. Its pulse of life and beauty and strength can be felt only through quiet every-day residence and observation, undisturbed by evening entertainments and sight-seeing. Palatial public buildings and mansions have risen on every side. New avenues have been opened up,

scientific horticulture has embellished the parks, and nowhere are the capabilities of window-gardening better shown. City squares and graveyards, within the memory of some of us receptacles for battered tins and refuse, have been transformed into attractive gardens where children play and the weary take their ease. Everywhere you recognize a change from the gloomy Puritanism of the past to the growing conviction that life ought to be embellished and enjoyed. There prevail a lightsomeness and tastefulness quite foreign to our old impressions of the place. All that architectural skill can accomplish is being brought to the reconstruction of the city on new artistic lines—it is rising skyward under the pressure of its lateral expansion.

The inhabitants, however, in the streets and parks are what most impress the visitor with an indescribable sense of the well-being of London. The very flower of material civilization is before him, all that wealth and art and training can effect to adorn life, where for the most part struggle and want and sin and sorrow are thrust aside. Contemplating the array of youth and beauty and rank, superbly mounted, among the spring foliage in the bright morning sunshine on Rotten Row, the brilliant line of equipages on the drive in the afternoon, refinement and grace sweeping in their carriages to the levée and drawing-room, one is tempted to feel for the moment as if this were true life. All that is best in learning is to be found in the libraries of London; all that is most renowned and exquisite in art can be studied in its museums and galleries. At this centre of the most travelled and exploring of peoples, a kaleidoscope of exhibitions and a going and coming of bronzed travellers bring other nations close to us. In the quiet halls of the Patent Office, we are thrilled by seeing original creations of Arkwright and Watt and Stephenson, upon which depended so much of our modern progress. And over all this is the consciousness of power and dominion. We have before us a greater than Rome. We are at the mainspring of the most extensive empire the world has ever seen, exercising through modern science a direct, immediate, and unquestioned rule, such as was never imagined in former centuries. Above and through all there is paganism enough, but to me it is revealed less in the degradation of the poor crossing-sweepers and the worn, anxious-looking flower-girls and small dealers, crowding many of the thoroughfares, than in the hard faces and demeanor of the faultlessly dressed aristocratic men who throng the pavements in the vicinity of the clubs.

An Irishman is struck with the general kindliness and civility of all ranks and classes in London. Why should there be any barrier between us? All that is open to an Englishman is here open to an Irishman. Walk down to the House of Commons. The policemen stop the traffic rolling over Westminster Bridge as rigidly for the humblest Parnellite member as for the First Lord of the Treasury. As said member walks, perhaps alone, up the quiet expanse of Westminster Hall, from which the wealthiest and most powerful non-members of the land are ordinarily excluded, what a flood of associations and recollections present themselves to his mind if possessed of any imagination or historical knowledge! And to what an assemblage he belongs!—the greatest in its traditions that ever existed; with all its defects, the parent, the exemplar of freedom. The oldest and bitterest Nationalist member must acknowledge that he has never had reason to suspect a member in committee or in the House to be influenced by personal money considerations. Class interests, political, family, and commercial interests, are potent enough, but a vote for direct money considerations is unknown. The Irish member is not long in the House before he perceives not only that many of the police and attendants are Irish, but that a considerable proportion of the most prominent Government officials are his fellow-countrymen; Irish, indeed, occupying some of the chief administrative posts. In the arrangement of the committees he will meet perfect fair play. Arthur O'Connor, one of the sixty members for some months on their trial before the *Times* Commission, has just been appointed to one of the most important and honorable positions in the House, the Chairmanship of the Standing Committee on Trade. "We should all be delighted," said the Secretary of the Treasury the other day, in reply to some criticisms of Mr. Healy on the proceedings of a certain committee—"we should all be delighted if the honorable and learned gentleman would himself consent to serve with us." Why, then, should there be any alienation? Why should we Irish not realize that this wonderful metropolis is as much our capital as it is the capital of Mercia or Anglia? Why should we not feel that all this liberty, all the possibilities dawning on us under the growing influence of democracy, are as fully our heritage as that of Englishmen and Scotchmen?

The Speaker is in the chair, the last words of the initiatory prayers are said. The dream is past, and the present stands out in its stern reality. The Ministry desire to rule Irishmen in Ireland by and through the influence of a class, in the interests of a class, as Englishmen have sought to do since the invasion. After three months at the House, an Irishman finds himself a more implacable foe of the Government than when he first entered its precincts. Every day's experience of the freedom and fairness of British institutions in England strengthens his undying determination not to submit to the present administration of his country. He does not object to a common rule. Whatever his theoretical visions may have been in youth, manhood has brought the realization of the actual. He is no more responsible for the fact of a common rule, its necessity and desirability, than he is for the existence of the channel which forbids union, and the ocean which forbids separation. The contention of those who opposed the Union of 1800 was that it must inevitably lead to division and turmoil in Ireland, that it must perpetuate the power of a class to stand between the majority and their wishes. As it appeared to Grattan and the patriots of the Irish Parliament, so it has always proved, and so it continues. If Ireland were denied home rule, the duty of the Government would seem clear to accept Irish public opinion as a guide in ruling the country. Scores of honest and able Englishmen have devoted themselves to the government of Ireland with this view; none have been able to accomplish their desires. The attempt has wrecked many a noble reputation as it wrecked William E. Forster's. Mr. Balfour and his party struggle on in the old grooves, sinking deeper and deeper into the mire and confusion of the endeavor to govern an integral portion of the empire in direct opposition to the desires and wishes of its inhabitants.

For example: One of the principal measures of the session is a bill for the settlement of the Irish land question. It is opposed by the whole weight of Irish public opinion, National as well as anti-National. Not one Irish member of Parliament connected with landed interests spoke generally in its favor. Parnell and his party, 85 out of 103 Irish representatives, supported by men like Gladstone, Morley, and Trevelyan, entirely disapprove the Government proposals. Yet the bill is to be pressed on. We still hear the parrot cry, "The Irish representatives do not represent Irish feeling," although within the past three months three vacancies having occurred in Ireland, three Nationalists have been returned unopposed. Several Irish magistrates of unblemished character have, within the past few years, at a few days' notice, been dismissed for offending the Government, and in some cases without opportunity being given for explanation. Lately two Irish magistrates, adherents of the Government, were proved guilty of flagrantly immoral conduct. The circumstances had to be dragged before Parliament more than once, and not till after weeks of subsequent inquiry were these men deprived of their commissions. Within two months an Irish Crown prosecutor attacked a man with a sword for accidentally breaking a pane of glass, and acknowledged on oath that he would have "murdered him" had he resisted being taken to the police-office. The case was brought before the House by the Irish members, but nothing has yet been done regarding it. As compared to English municipalities, the Dublin corporation labors under many disabilities. Its rates are collected by a Government official not responsible to it. Sanitation, the erection of buildings, etc., are not within its full control. A remedial bill was prepared and unanimously approved by the corporation, composed of Catholics and Protestants, Nationalists and anti-Nationalists (in it nothing so wild is suggested as that it should have the management of its own police). It passed a meeting of citizens by an overwhelming majority. The opposition of the ascendancy clique in Dublin, who resist any extension of rights and powers to representative bodies in Ireland, has just led to a long and expensive inquiry before a committee of the House of Commons. Even that large Committee, upon which there was but one Irish Nationalist, and which comprised a majority of opposite politics, reported unanimously in favor of the main clauses of the bill. Foiled by the corporation, the citizens' meeting, and the Parliamentary Committee, the minority brought their influence to bear on Government through the Castle. Accordingly Government has announced that it will oppose the chief and most desired clauses at every stage. Under ordinary circumstances a bill unanimously approved in committee passes rapidly and surely into law. This bill will probably not survive the session.

A veil woven of false principles, long ago set aside by Great Britain in her dealings with other English-speaking countries, alone separates Ireland and England. Until it is rent asunder, this Westminster Parliament cannot be the Parliament of a united people, and Irish Nationalists cannot tread without bitter feelings the streets of this beautiful and marvellous metropolis. D. B.

P. S.—Since these lines were written and posted, the action of a body of opponents in Dublin, impugning the manner in which the bill has been passed through committee, has been brought before the House on a question of privilege. This has led to such a complete vindication by the Chairman and other members of the Committee regarding the exhaustiveness of the inquiry and the unanimity that prevailed, that it is difficult to believe the threatened Government opposition will be persevered in.

THE SOURCE OF WASHINGTON'S "RULES OF CIVILITY" DISCOVERED.

LONDON, May 16, 1890.

IN my biographical introduction to the Long Island Historical Society's volume, 'George Washington and Mount Vernon,' I mention a resemblance of some of Washington's "Rules" to those of an old work in Latin and French, entitled 'Communis Vitæ inter homines scita urbanitas.' Your reviewer spoke of this as hazarding a new guess, but it was rather more, and has led to an interesting discovery.

The "Rules of Civility," found in Washington's boyish writing, are dated 1745. There is reason to believe that he was then attending a school in Fredericksburg superintended, and probably taught, by the parish clergyman, the Rev. James Marye, a Huguenot who had taken orders in London. Mr. Marye was an accomplished gentleman and scholar, who founded the eminent family that gave its name to "Marye's Heights," and is still well represented by ex-Lieut.-Gov. John L. Marye and others. From what I had gathered from the old vestry-books of St. George's Church, Fredericksburg, it occurred to me that this learned French clergyman might have taught these "Rules of Civility," and that they might be in some French work. I mentioned this conjecture in a letter to my friend Richard Garnett of the British Museum Library, who presently wrote me that several of the "Rules" resembled others in the Latin-French book mentioned above. His library, however, at that time contained only Stoddard's inexact edition of about half the "Rules." I could not find the Latin-French book in America, so I could only make the allusion to it in my introduction, and postpone a thorough investigation until I could get hold of the volume. I have now carefully compared Dr. J. M. Toner's literal transcript of Washington's "Rules" with the Latin-French work, and find that of the 110 "Rules" 103 are contained in that old book of 'Maximes.'

From Backer's Jesuit Bibliography it appears that the "pensionnaires" of the College of La Flèche sent to those of the College at Pont-à-Mousson (1595) a treatise entitled: 'Bienséance de la Conversation entre les Hommes.' The great Mussipontane father was Léonard Périn (born in Lorraine 1567), who had been a Professor of the Humanities in Paris. By order of Nicolas François, Bishop of Toul, Périn translated the La Flèche (French) "Maximes" into Latin, adding a chapter on behavior at table. The book, dedicated to the said Bishop, was published in 1617. It passed through several editions and was translated into Spanish, German, and Bohemian, but never into English. The copy in the British Museum was printed in Paris in 1663. Its title is: 'Les Maximes de la Gentillesse et de l'Honnestete en la Conversation entre les Hommes. Communis Vitae inter homines scita urbanitas. Par un Père de la Compagnie de Jesus.' The first chapter consists of twelve maxims relating to religious observances, prayer, attending mass, etc. These are entirely omitted from Washington's "Rules," as indeed are others of a religious character occurring elsewhere in the book, even including one advising attention to grace before meat. (It is known that grace was never said at Washington's table.) The subjoined quotations from the "Rules" and the "Maximes," limited by consideration for your space, fairly represent the correspondence prevailing throughout. The same consideration leads me to omit the Latin, and also a literal translation of the French—which, indeed, is sufficiently translated by Washington's "Rules," even where abridged. I follow the old spelling in both books. The omissions indicated in the French text are of sentences not found in Washington's "Rules"; those in the latter represent defects of the original, as indicated in Dr. Toner's transcript. The figure preceding each "Maxime" and "Rule" here quoted indicates its number in the original.

MAXIMES (chap. ii.).	RULES.
(1.) Que toutes actions qui se font publiquement fassent voir son sentiment respectueux à toute la compagnie.	(1.) Every action done in company ought to be with some sign of respect to those that are present.
(3.) Gardez-vous bien de toucher de la main aucune partie de vostre corps, de celles qui ne sont point en veuë, en la presence d'aucune autre personne. . . .	(2.) When in company, put not your hands to any part of the body not usually discovered.
(4.) Ne faites pas voir a vostre compagnon, ce qui luy pourroit faire mal au coeur.	(3.) Show nothing to your friend that may affright him.
(5.) Ne vous amusez pas à chanter en vous mesme, si vous ne vous rencontrez si fort a l'ecart qu'aucun autre ne vous puisse entendre, non plus qu'à contrefaire le son du tambour par l'agitation des pieds ou des mains.	(4.) In the presence of others, sing not to yourself with a humming noise, nor drum with your fingers or feet.
(8.) Quand vous toussez ou quand vous esternez, si vous pouvez estre le maistre de ces efforts de nature, n'éclatez pas si hautement & si fort. Ne poussez soûpirs si aigres que les autres les puissent entendre.	(5.) If you cough, sneeze, sigh, or yawn, do it not loud but privately. [It will be noticed that maxims 8 and 9 are both neatly summed in this Rule 5,]
(9.) Ne soufflez pas si asprement, faisant des hurlements en baaillant. Et s'il vous est possible, empeschez vous absoluмẽt de baailler; mais ayez en un bien plus soin quand vous entretenez avec quelqu'un, ou dans quelque conversation. . . . Si vous ne pouvez pas empescher de bailler, du moins gardez vous bien de parler en cet instant mesme, & d'ouvrir extraordinairemẽt la bouche; mais pressez la sagement, ou en detournant tant soit peu du face de la cõpagnie.	
(11.) C'est une incivilité & une impertinence de dormir, pendant que la cõpagnie s'entretient de discours; de se tenir assis lors que tout le monde est debout, de se promener lors que personne ne branle, & de parler quãd il est temps de se taire ou d'écouter. . . .	(6.) Sleep not when others speak, sit not when others stand, speak not when you should hold your peace, walk not when others stop.
(12.) Il n'est pas seant d'avoir son lict en mauvais ordre dans sa chambre, non plus que de s'habiller en la presence des autres, ou de s'y dépoüiller, ou de sortir de sa mesme chambre à demy habillé. . . .	(7.) Put not off your cloths in the presence of others, nor go out of your chamber half-drest.
(15.) Il est mal-seant, dans le jeu, ou aupres du feu, de faire attendre trop long-temps ceux qui viennent à s'y presenter.	(8.) At play and at fire its good manners to give place to the last commer, & affect not to speak louder than ordinary. [This last clause of 8 is imported from a phrase in maxim 13.]
(17.) C'est une action peu hõneste de cracher dans la cheminée, d'approcher ses mains trop près de la flãme pour les échauffer, & de les mettre même dedans, de se baisser devãt le feu, comme si l'on estoit assis à terre & s'y tenir courbé. S'il arrive qu'il y ait quelque chose devant le feu, a cuire, prenez bien garde d'estendre le pied pardessus le feu. Dans une honneste compagnie n'y tournez jamais le dos. . . .	(9.) Spit not in the fire, nor stoop low before it, neither put your hands into the flames to warm them, nor set your feet upon the fire, especially if there be meat before it. [(14.) Turn not your back to others, especially in speaking.]
(18.) Pour l'ordre que l'on doit tenir étant assis, c'est de placer bien ses pieds a terre en egale distance que les cuisses, non pas de croiser une cuisse ou un pied sur l'autre.	(10.) When you sit down keep your feet firm and even, without putting one on the other or crossing them.
(19.) Il ne faut jamais rogner ses ongles dans le public, & bien moins les prendre a belles dents.	(11.) Shift not yourself in the sight of others, nor gnaw your nails.
(21.) Vous ne hocherez la teste, vous ne remuerez point les jambes, ny ne roüillerez les yeux, ne froncerez point les sourcils, ou tordrez la bouche. Vous vous garderez de laisser aller avec vos paroles de la saline, ou de crachat aux visages de ceux avec qui vous conversez. Pour obvier à cet accident, vous ne vous en approcherez point se prez; mais vous les entretiendrez dans une distãce raisonable.	(12.) Shake not the head, feet, or legs, rowl not the eyes, lift not one eyebrow higher than the other, wry not the mouth, and bedew no man's face with your spittle, by appr . . . r him . . . you speak.
(22.) Gardez vous biẽ de vous arrester à tuër une puce, ou quelque sale bestiole de cette espece, en presence de qui que a puisse estre. Que si quelque chose d'immõde vient à vous offenser la veuë, en regardant la terre, comme quelque crachat infect, ou quelque autre chose semblable, mettez le pied dessus. . . . S'il en attache quelqu'une aux habits de celui à qui vous parlez, ou voltige dessus, gardez vouz bien de la luy monstrer, ou à quelqu' autre personne; mais travaillez autant que vous pourrez à l'oster adroitement. Et s'il arrive que quelqu' un vous défaire de quelque chose de semblable, faites luy paroistre vostre reconnoissance.	(13.) Kill no Vermin or Fleas, lice ticks, etc., in the sight of others, if you see any filth or thick spittle put your foot dexterously upon it if it be upon the cloths of your companions, put it off privately, and if it be upon your own cloths return thanks to him who puts it off.

The above passages are sufficient to establish the substantial identity of the "Rules" and the "Maximes." The seven exceptions mentioned

above are of much interest. The "Rules" of Washington which I cannot find among the "Maximes" are these:

"(48.) Wherein you reprove another be unblameable yourself; for example is more prevalent than Precepts.

"(49.) Use no reproachfull language against any one, neither curse or revile.

"(50.) Be not hasty to believe flying reports to the disparagement of any.

"(89.) Speak not evil of the absent, for it is unjust.

"(108.) When you speak of God or his attributes let it be seriously & . . . Reverence. Honour and obey your natural parents altho they be poor.

"(109.) Let your recreations be manfull not sinfull.

"(110.) Labour to keep alive in your breast that little spark of Celestial fire called Conscience."

These last three "Rules" are in amusing contrast with the concluding part of the French book, whose final chapter is occupied with rather epicurean notes on table service, ending with a brief ascription to the Virgin. A notable addition to one of the French "Maximes" occurs in the following rule, the italics representing that addition:

"(105.) Be not angry at Table whatever happens & if you have reason to be so shew it not but on a chearful countenance, especially if there be Strangers *for good Humour makes one Dish of Meat a Feast.*"

The illegible parts of Washington's "Rules" hardly prevent the sense from being perceived. The meaning of Rule 75, however, has never been made out. It is the abbreviation of a "Maxime," which enables me to substitute for Dr. Toner's dots certain (bracketed) words which make it clear:

"(75.) In the midst of Discourse ask [not what was said before your arrival;] but if you perceive any Stop because of [your entrance, rather beg the speaker] to proceed. If a person of quality comes in while your conversing it's handsome to repeat what was said before."

Though my theory, that the Rev. James Marye taught Washington these "Rules," has done good service in leading to the discovery of their origin, it cannot be verified, unless the clergyman's descendants have preserved papers in which they can be traced. There was, however, no other man in the early history of Fredericksburg who would be likely to have the French book. There is evidence that Washington, in after life, was unacquainted with French, and, even if he had studied it with Mr. Marye, he could hardly be competent in his fourteenth year (1745 N. S.) for such artistic rendering and selection from the antique language. The boyish spelling, contrasting with the mature expressions, suggests that he was taking down oral instructions. Although one may regret that Washington, precocious as he was, can no longer be credited with the authorship of these generally wise "Rules"—the work of several hands—there is left us the satisfaction that he did not originate those among them that are rather snobbish. And indeed it is due to the English translator to say, that, while adding seven of the best maxims, he considerably toned down the extreme deference to "persons of quality" advised by the pensionnaires of La Flèche and Pont-à-Mousson.

MONCURE D. CONWAY.

A CORRESPONDENT OF TALLEYRAND'S.

PARIS, May 15, 1890.

THE Comtesse de Mirabeau publishes, in a small duodecimo volume, the letters written by Mme. Adelaide, the sister of King Louis Philippe, to Prince Talleyrand, between the end of 1833 and the end of 1834. She found these letters among the papers of her uncle, M. de Bacourt, who was the confidential friend of Talleyrand, and received from him the manuscript of the famous "Memoirs" which are not yet published. M. de Bacourt left them to M. Andral, and M. Andral, who died last year, left them to the present Duc de Broglie. The "Memoirs" cannot yet, for reasons which are not very precisely known, be published. Talleyrand's family objects also to the publication of any of his letters. I have myself seen copies of the letters which Talleyrand wrote very regularly to Mme. Adelaide, when he was sent to London as Ambassador, at the time of the conference which settled the fate of Belgium. The history of these letters is a curious one. Talleyrand had great prestige in the diplomatic circles of Europe; it was highly important that he should represent France at the conference, since he was able to give the King the surest information and the best advice. He was himself very anxious to serve the interests of the July Government. But this was a constitutional government, not yet very firmly established; the cabinets changed frequently, and the Ministers of Foreign Affairs were very jealous of their rights and of the preponderance of Prince Talleyrand. Talleyrand had therefore an official correspondence, and did not correspond directly with the King. At the same time, when he thought it necessary to give to the King information which had not strictly an official character, he wrote to Mme. Adelaide. He did not even send his letters directly to her; they were sent through the Princesse de Vaudemont, who was the last Princess of Lorraine, an old friend of Talleyrand and also of Mme. Adelaide, who always treated her like a princess. This correspondence was found and seized at the Tuileries, at the time of the Revolution of February, 1848; it was sold by the workman who got it to an engineer, and the latter allowed two or three copies to be taken by his friends.

The correspondence which Mme. de Mirabeau gives us has not the same interest as the unpublished letters of Talleyrand to Mme. Adelaide. It is clear that the latter had more to learn than she had to say; still, her letters form an interesting chapter in the confused history of the first years of the July Government. Everybody knows that she was a very clever, sensible woman, the most useful and confidential adviser of her brother; that he had no secrets from her; that she was a great Liberal, though in many respects she was quite a princess of the "ancien régime." She had a very masculine mind, disdained all the softer graces of her sex, and lived but for politics, for the advancement of her family, which in her eyes was identical with the progress and prosperity of France.

Mme. de Mirabeau gives amusing details concerning the life of Talleyrand. When her uncle, M. de Bacourt, was sent as secretary to the London Embassy, he received orders to present himself at the Prince's house at a certain hour. He found Talleyrand at his toilet table, and was cross-examined by him while he was finishing his toilet, given some report to write, and told to come every morning to receive his instructions. Talleyrand was very well satisfied with the work of M. de Bacourt, having found in him that rare type, the laborious diplomat, a "commis" of the old school, perfectly versed in the elaborate diplomatic language, in its attenuations, its delicacies, its intentional vagueness or intentional precision. Bacourt was the ideal man for Talleyrand, who was himself lazy, in a sense, as he did not like the material work of writing, but who was always able to give the clearest oral instructions. Bacourt had the invaluable virtue of absolute secrecy, and Talleyrand showed how much he appreciated him when he confided to him his "Memoirs."

At the time we are speaking of, after 1830, there was a person who played a great part near Talleyrand, namely, the Duchess of Dino. She was born a Princess of Courland, and at the age of thirteen had been married to Count Edmond of Périgord, who became successively Duke of Dino and Duke of Talleyrand. She was, in 1830, thirty-seven years old, and was still extremely handsome. She was the favorite niece of Talleyrand, lived with him, and did the honors of his house. Talleyrand took her side against his own nephew, who did not live well with his wife, and finally resided in Florence. The Duchess of Dino inherited, in the latter part of her life, the principality of Sagan, in Prussian Silesia. She died in 1862.

Mme. de Mirabeau gives in her preface some extracts from the notes which her uncle, M. de Bacourt, used to make, often on what he had heard during the day. A note of the 23d of March, 1844, shows the perspicacity of King Louis Philippe in all matters concerning foreign affairs. M. de Bacourt was sent to Sweden in March, 1844, to congratulate King Oscar I. on his accession to the throne.

"Your mission," said Louis Philippe to him, "is not merely complimentary; you must study the new King and his surroundings, and learn if he will be more or less Russian than his father. Try to make the King understand the dangers of his position between the democratic ideas of Norway, the progressive ideas of Sweden, and the domination of Russia, which is felt in Finland as well as in Denmark. A great agitation prevails in the Duchies of Holstein and Schleswig, and the King of Prussia wishes to detach these duchies from the north and make them enter the Zollverein. Prussia would probably be willing to abandon the Danish islands to Russia if Russia abandoned to her the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein. Prussia will pretend that these duchies once belonged to the German empire; she is anxious to take them for herself, or, if she cannot obtain them, to make them members of the Zollverein. Her ambition is to have a navy and ports on the North Sea as well as on the Baltic."

Remember that these instructions were given in 1844, and you will certainly admire the foresight and the diplomatic knowledge of the King. Mme. de Mirabeau detaches from the papers of M. de Bacourt some other notes, which show us the King in his youth, long before he had become a Ulysses and Nestor among the sovereigns.

The following story, told by M. de Bacourt, I have heard from the lips of one of Louis Philippe's sons:

"I had," said the King one day to M. de Bacourt, "a singular interview with Danton in 1793. After the battle of Jemmapes, I received an order to leave the army of Kellermann, with which I then was, and go to Strasbourg, where I was to be made commander. I arrived in Paris, wishing to protest against this decision, and I was in the room of the Minister Servan when Danton entered. In an interval of the conversation he made me a sign, and, taking me in a corner, said:

"'Why do you solicit this fool of a Servan? Come to-morrow to see me and tell me what you want.'

"I went to see him the day after; it was at the Chancery Hôtel, Place Vendôme (Danton was at that time Minister of Justice).

"As soon as I came in, Danton said to me:

"'Well, well, young man, you don't want to go to Strasbourg?'

"'No, I prefer to remain in Kellermann's army, where I know nearly everybody, and where everybody knows me; I should like to remain with my comrades.'

"'And this is just why we wish to send you somewhere else. Your influence in that army does not suit us, especially now; we know that

you talk on the subject of the Government and of its measures.'

"'I have not talked in that way; I have only blamed the massacres of the 2d of September, and I am not afraid to say so to you. This event fills me with horror.'

"'Bah! bah! don't get hot on that subject. I ordered these massacres. I don't regret it, and you ought to thank me for it. In exterminating all those noblemen, all those aristocrats who were in the prisons, I burned the ships of those defending our frontiers; for them, there is now no resource but to conquer or die. As for yourself, remember that those who perished were your enemies, the enemies of your father and of all your race. This hatred went back to the Regency. Remember that you have nothing to hope from them, nothing to hope from the league of the Kings; their hatred and their vengeance will follow you wherever you go. If you are wise, you will keep quiet and prepare yourself for the part which the future has in store for you.'

"'Thank you for your recommendation; all I want is to defend my country and to die for it, if I find a favorable occasion, for all I see fills me with disgust.'

"Danton laughed, and then dismissed me with these words: 'Be reasonable, or else, beware.'

"I never saw him again, and I joined the army of Dumouriez instead of going to Strasbourg."

This version is identical with the one I have heard, with this difference only: Danton went so far as to say to Louis Philippe, "You will some day be King of France." Speaking of the September massacres, he said, "I have placed a river of blood between France and the émigrés."

These extracts from M. de Bacourt have detained me too long; let us return to the correspondence of Mme. Adelaide. It begins immediately after the marriage of King Leopold with Princess Louise, a daughter of Louis Philippe, and is of a very confidential character, as is proved by such passages as this: "I have burned your letter, as you desired. I ask you to do the same with this, and to tell me that it is done." Letters which are to be burned in this way are invariably kept. There was good reason why Louis Philippe should want to receive private information from Talleyrand, for we read in one of Mme. Adelaide's letters: "I quite agree with you that it is essential that all the despatches should be placed before the eyes of the King. Long ago we felt this desire, but we can only make wishes, you and I." In England the sovereign receives communication of all the diplomatic despatches, but in France the jealousy of the Chambers always tried to curtail the prerogative of the King.

The tone of the whole correspondence, which dwells at length on the Ministerial difficulties and changes of Cabinet in various countries, seems to indicate that the King was at the back of his sister when she wrote these letters. "A thing which shocks me is that many English papers attribute to other causes, and to others than to the King and to you, the union of France and England, and of their alliance, while, as our dear King says, he is the real father of it, and you are the godfather. You must claim this honor for him and for you, and if you can have something said on the subject in an English paper, it will be well." The "cordial understanding" of France and England was the corner-stone of the policy of Louis Philippe; it was his defence against the reactionary courts of Europe, who looked upon him as a usurper, as a representative of the French Revolution. It was natural that Talleyrand should adopt this policy; he represented it in London with much dignity and intelligence.

It is difficult, it is almost impossible, to analyze a correspondence like that of Mme. Adelaide. You will find in it few anecdotes; its interest is entirely in its general tone, in the light which it throws on the difficulties of the July Government, and in the relations of Louis Philippe and his family with the men whom the Revolution had brought to the front. Mme. Adelaide appears in it as a Liberal, as a friend of England, as a devoted sister, as a cautious and prudent adviser. There are also in the volume a few letters from Talleyrand himself, chiefly on private and domestic affairs.

Correspondence.

BURR AND STREET.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your number of May 8, 1890, in reviewing Adams's 'Second Administration of Jefferson,' there is a reference to the testimony of Wood and Street, editors of the *Western World*, of Frankfort, Ky., in the trial of Aaron Burr, in which the two latter men are made to appear in a rather ridiculous light. That is, to any one acquainted with the facts of Street's vehement denunciations of Burr, and the risks of life that he ran for the same, it seems a lame and impotent conclusion for him to have testified that he had no knowledge of facts to cause him either to fight or write.

Jefferson Davis, who was stationed at Fort Crawford, Wis., when Street was Indian Agent there, and who knew something of Street's history from old Kentuckians also, told me that Street had so many challenges to fight duels that he had to make it a rule "first come first *fought*"; in other words, the challengers had to file their missives and take their turns. The incident touched on in Marshall's History of Kentucky, the attempt to eject Street from the room when the ball was given after Burr's trial and release, was given me by my father, in detail, he being Street's son-in-law. A big burly ruffian was employed by Burr's friends to put Street out of the ball-room to humiliate him. Coming up behind, he seized Street around the body as his arms were hanging down, thus pinioning them to his side, and walked towards the door. Street kept quiet, but made up his mind what to do. When they reached the door, he threw up his feet and pushed backward against the doorway so hard as to throw his captor over and break his hold. As they rolled over together, Street got out his trusty knife or dirk and aimed a blow with all his might at the heart of his antagonist. He described his satisfaction in seeing the knife descend on its supposed sure mission. But the other man made a superhuman effort, and twisted himself to one side, so that the knife just missed him and stuck in the floor so deep that Street could not pull it out. Burr's friends crowded him then, as he was disarmed, back to the end of the room, and would have made mincemeat of him but for his faithful body servant, a mulatto man, who raised the window and seized Street and pulled him out.

In another encounter—a duel, I believe—Street was shot in the chest, and the bullet, in going through his suspender, carried in with it some of the fine coils of brass wire then used as we now use rubber. He was engaged to be married to the daughter of Gen. Thomas Posey, once Lieutenant-Governor of Kentucky and second Governor of Indiana, an old Revolutionary officer. She was very young—some say thirteen, others sixteen—and at school in Lexington, Ky. But, for the purpose of nursing him and wearing mourning for him, they were married at once. However, she was so good a nurse and his constitution so strong that he recovered. But there was a dent or hole in his chest when he got well, "big enough to put the baby's fist in."

These details are given to show that a man who would do as he did without any reason would be regarded as abnormal. But was it the duty of good citizens and lovers of the Union to say and do nothing but by knowledge of overt acts of Burr's? My patriotic and brave grandfather seems not to have thought so. By general report and by Burr's failure in denial, he felt justified in throwing himself with all his ardor into the defence of the Union. He came from John Street of Bristol, England, a ship captain who migrated to Virginia a century or two before, about as sturdy a stock as exists. He would have lain indefinitely in jail for want of bail at Frankfort as the consequence of an assault on him and its repulse by him (by a man named Adams), but for the friendly stand of Humphrey Marshall. But though he knew what he was about, he doubtless on the stand answered, as any truthful man must, that he had no knowledge except hearsay.

I have been profoundly astonished and moved at the disposition of later writers to belittle the early heroes of this republic, living when patriotism did not wear the dollar-mark. Even Sumner, in his Life of Jackson, is guilty of it. Having in my veins no drop of blood except of defenders of the colonies or the Union for two and a half centuries, it may be that I cannot feel as do the children of burners of "Blue Lights."

Respectfully, George Wilson.

Lexington, Mo., May 27, 1890.

ENGLISH WHIGS AND HARRISON REPUBLICANS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In reviewing Mr. Lecky's 'England in the XVIIIth Century,' I find a passage which is well worth commending to Republican Congressional leaders:

"The conduct of the Whig Ministers in the years that immediately followed their great reform bill is well deserving the study of all political thinkers. Sir Robert Peel, who led the Opposition, at once accepted it. There were not wanting those behind the Whig Ministers who urged them passionately to meet this policy by the obvious party device of a further movement for organic change, and, availing themselves of a tide of public feeling, to attack the House of Lords, and to effect a complete transformation of the Constitution. Nothing in the whole course of English Parliamentary history is more deserving of admiration, nothing is more characteristic of the best traditions of English public life, than the firmness and patriotism with which the Whig leaders resisted the temptation, repressed the revolutionary tendency among their followers, and applied themselves to calming passions which were becoming dangerous to the historic framework of English government" (vi, 227).

No sooner does the Republican party obtain control of the legislative and executive branches of the Government than its leaders seek to perpetuate their power by measures which are decidedly opposed to the historic framework of our Government. The arbitrary House rules, the hasty admission of new States, the Federal Election Law, and similar measures of the present session, indicate that the Republican party can no longer maintain its boasted claim to the succession of Anglo-Saxon conservatism. If there are those who are still true to the old faith, I commend to them the words of Mr. Lecky.

Coles Van Vechten Veeder.

No. 510 Monroe Street, Chicago, May 27, 1890.

MALMSEY WINE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your review of Tozer's 'Islands of the Ægean,' in your last issue, you suggest "a blunder of an historical character in attributing the origin of Malmsey wine to the district of Monemvasia in the Morea, the fact being that it came from Malevisia, in Crete." I take the liberty, therefore, to call attention to the following citation given in the last instalment of the Century Dictionary, s. v. *Malmsey* (which name the editor derives from *Malvasia* or Napoli di *Malvasia*—Monembasia in the Morea):

"Upon that hyll is a cite called Malvasia, where first grew Malmasye, and yet doth; howbeit it groweth now [1506] more plenteously in Candia [*i. e.*, I suppose, Candia, or Crete] and Modena, and no where ellys." (Sir R. Guylforde, Pylgrymage, p. 12.)

Brockhaus, I see, asserts the same transference.—Very respectfully yours, J.

May 24, 1890.

Notes.

Stanley's rediscovery of the pigmies has prompted Du Chaillu to condense and rewrite his two early books of travel, making one volume, entitled 'Adventures in the Great Forest of Equatorial Africa and the Country of the Dwarfs,' which the Messrs. Harper will publish directly. They announce also a work on the French Revolution, in two volumes, by Justin H. McCarthy.

'The Royal House of Stuart' and 'Scottish National Memorials' are sumptuous illustrated volumes in preparation by Macmillan & Co.

The Religious Tract Society, London, announce for immediate publication, through their American agent, Mr. Fleming H. Revell of New York and Chicago, the following works: 'London Pictures,' in the "Pen and Pencil" Series; 'Modern Ideas of Evolution as Related to Revelation and Science,' by Sir J. William Dawson; and 'Home Handicraft,' by Charles Peters.

Scribner & Welford will be the American publishers of the Contemporary Science Series which Walter Scott of London is issuing. The next volume on the list is 'Sanity and Insanity,' by Dr. Charles Mercier, with numerous illustrations.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. will continue the translations of Julius Wolff's novels, begun with 'The Salt-Master of Lüneburg.' This will be followed by the historical tale of 'The Robber Count,' a very popular work in Germany.

Frederic Edward McKay and eleven associates of both sexes have put each a representative short story together under the title of 'A Round Dozen.' De Wolfe, Fiske & Co. will publish the collection in July.

Harper & Bros. have become the publishers of the Rev. James M. Ludlow's 'Captain of the Janizaries,' a story of the fall of Constantinople.

A year ago we praised the execution of Mr. W. H. Goodyear's 'History of Art for Classes, Art Students, and Tourists in Europe,' but could not include the poor and ill-printed process illustrations in our commendation. A. S. Barnes & Co. have just brought out a second edition, in which this defect has been very successfully overcome: to better plates, better paper and presswork have been given, and even particolored inks have been employed with a gala effect. The volume is now altogether clear, legible, and attractive.

The third edition of Mr. Griswold's 'Directory of Writers for the Literary Press, particularly in the United States' (Bangor, Me.: W. M. Griswold), reverts to the original title, qualified by the adverb *particularly;* for Mr. Andrew Lang, Mr. Rider Haggard, Prof. Bryce, Prof. Max Müller, Prof. Freeman, and many another British writer of note is to be found in the one alphabet. Mr. Griswold has abandoned the double columns for one broad one, and has introduced a great number of non-personal titles, such as the leading colleges (English and American), the leading periodicals, authors' clubs and societies, etc. Condensed information as to nativity, age, education, special attainments, and pursuits is given in Mr. Griswold's way, often with a reference to the first edition, which is fuller in bibliographical details. Finally, an abbreviated list of authors recently deceased enhances the value of this convenient book of reference.

Ginn & Co., Boston, issue an educational book under the title of the 'Best Elizabethan Plays,' edited by William Roscoe Thayer. The plays included are "The Jew of Malta," "The Alchemist," "Philaster," "The Two Noble Kinsmen," and "The Duchess of Malfi." The editor has expurgated the grosser passages and added foot-notes explanatory of the text—not many, but sufficient; and he also furnishes in an introduction brief sketches of the dramatists represented. The book is valuable as a means of making accessible specimens of the voluminous dramatists in a shape adapted for school classes as collateral reading.

Mr. Francis C. Sessions has taken advantage of a trip to Spain and Northern Africa to publish his impressions of the various places visited and their inhabitants in a little volume with the title 'In Western Levant' (Welch, Fracker Co.). Like his 'On the Wing through Europe,' which we lately noticed, it is disfigured by many errors. But if we cannot commend the contents, we can praise the attractive make-up of this book. It is charmingly illustrated by Henry W. Hall, and in general appearance compares very favorably with some recent productions of the French press.

Mrs. R. D. Douglass's 'A Romance at the Antipodes' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) disguises itself by its title. The "romance" is clearly put on, and the substance of the rather florid narrative is the description of a voyage from England to Australia, and the author's personal experiences in and about Adelaide, Melbourne, and Sydney. The ship's company is sketched with force and cleverness, and the incidents at sea—familiar enough, to be sure—are well told. Much may be learned also from this travelled American woman's impressions of the civilization so often brought up for comparison with our own; and if her observations are chiefly social and scenic (the color of Australian skies in particular taxing her powers of admiration and expression), she not infrequently sets down an economic fact worth knowing, though of a kind with which her sex seldom concerns itself.

The care bestowed by Mr. Louis Heilprin on his 'Reformed Primer and First Reader' (New York: *Babyhood* Publishing Co.) will not be apparent at first glance; nor will the distinction between his method and the common ones. For this reason we call the attention of teachers to his primer, being certain that they will at least be struck with the intellectual stamp of the one-syllable reading exercises. In this respect Mr. Heilprin has solved the problem of how to be intelligible (and, we believe, interesting) to infants without being babyish. He has also boldly discarded the allurements of pictures, thereby saving both expense and the trial of the eyes with glazed paper. The book is beautifully printed.

Part i. of volume ii. of the Final Report of the State Geologist of New Jersey has just appeared, cataloguing the minerals and plants of the small but rich area. This was the work on which the late Prof. George H. Cook was engaged at the time of his sudden death, and his letter submitting the report to the Governor, here printed, bears date of July 29, 1889, barely two months before he passed away. Mr. Frederick A. Canfield prepared the list of minerals, of which he says "the great number of species and varieties, the rare chemical combinations, the beauty, and the wonderful crystalline development" have made the localities where they abound world-famous. Mr. N. L. Britton, speaking for the flora, shows its divisibility, through topographic and geologic conditions, into a marked southern and northern, mingling at the terminal moraine of the great ice-sheet, as well as into a marine and coast group, and a fourth in the Delaware River valley. He makes no allusion to Prof. Cook's aim to procure for the report photographic representations of the finest trees in the State. The distribution of the plants catalogued is attested by the names of observers.

M. Ernest Legouvé, the French dramatist, is now living in the house in the Rue St. Marc, Paris, in which he was born eighty-three years ago; and perhaps the most interesting chapter of a little book of reminiscences which he has just published, 'Fleurs d'hiver—Fruits d'hiver: Histoire de ma maison' (Paris: Ollendorff; New York: F. W. Christern), is his account of this old house, built two hundred years ago, and now occupied by three generations of the same family. To those who are inclined to judge French family life and French character by a survey of current Paris fiction, often as false as it is foul, no better advice can be given than to read this pleasant little volume of chat, from which they can catch a glimpse of the qualities that have made France what she is and keep her sound at heart. Among the other entertaining passages is a description of Labiche and of his clever conduct during the war. Worth quoting is his response to a bluestocking who asked for his opinion of Shakspere: "Est-ce pour un mariage?" he returned.

By a curious coincidence there have just been published in Paris two books covering almost exactly the same field: one is 'Les Évolutions de la Critique Française' (Paris: Perrin; New York: Christern), by M. Ernest Tissot, and 'Les Princes de la Jeune Critique' (Paris: *La Nouvelle Revue;* New York: Christern), by M. Georges Renard. In each book five or six of the leading French critics are themselves criticised. M. Jules Lemaitre, M. Ferdinand Brunetière, M. Paul Bourget are considered in both books. M. Tissot, who is apparently a youthful recruit from Geneva, and who is more abundant in scientific phrases than the more Parisian M. Renard, considers also the critical work of the late Barbey d'Aurevilly, the late Émile Hennequin, and the late Edmond Schérer (who would have been more surprised than pleased to find himself in such company). M. Renard takes up the less arid writings of M. Anatole France and of M. Louis Ganderax. M. Tissot is obviously juvenile in his judgments, but he gives promise of developing a critical faculty worthy of serious attention. M. Renard is more mature and lighter in touch; his paper on M. Jules Lemaitre is a pleasant sketch to set beside that recently published by M. Anatole France in the second series of his 'Vie Littéraire.'

Parts 6 and 7 of the 'Handwörterbuch der Staatswissenschaften' (Jena: G. Fischer; New York: Westermann) contain the completion of

vol. i., numbering 1,060 pages, and closing the letter A, and the beginning of vol. ii., which starts the letter B. The publisher still promises that the work will be finished in five or six volumes, but from present appearances his prospectus will form no exception to the rule or the proverb. The alphabetical list of articles appended to the first volume once more calls attention to the liberal scale on which the work is laid out, as evidenced by the great number of lengthy treatises, contributed by no less a number of specialists. Although several of these were mentioned in our notices of previous instalments, it may not be amiss to enumerate briefly the most important titles of volume i., as follows: Joint-Stock Companies, 90 pages, by six writers; twenty-two titles, more or less closely connected with the labor question, are treated in 412 consecutive pages by more than thirty writers of various nationalities; Poor-laws, 130 pages, six writers; Emigration, 46 pages; Insurance against Old Age and Invalidation, 34 pages. The second volume will apparently not lag behind the first in this respect, for at the very outset it has an article on Banks and Banking of over 150 pages, by Nasse and several other writers. There are a number of brief biographical notices, among which the recent ones are of Edward Atkinson, Walter Bagehot, Michael Bakunin, and Ludwig Bamberger.

We have received the fifth number of Prof. Willard Fiske's modestly named 'Bibliographical Notices' (Florence). Together with the first and fourth, it forms a substantial supplement for the years 1578-1844 to Thomas W. Lidderdale's 'Catalogue of Books Printed in Iceland, 1578-1880, in the Library of the British Museum.' Notable in this instalment is the list on p. 23 of printed editions of rímur, those rhymed romances which have, since the Reformation, superseded both the saga and the skaldic lay in the affections of the less educated readers of Iceland. It is the only list yet compiled. There is another, on p. 11, of útfaraminningar, curious funeral memorials, frequently containing lives and eulogies of the deceased in addition to the sermon. To be remarked, too, are the full historical note, under title 84, on the so-called Jörgensen Revolution of 1809; and the titles (122-145) of the published records of the Althing, complementary to those entered in Nos. I. and IV. Prof. Fiske takes occasion, in a preface, to give a general description of his remarkable Icelandic collection, the basis of these supplements. He has three other 'Bibliographical Notices' in preparation, viz.: 'Studies in Icelandic Booklore,' and (turning from the Pine to the Palm side of his library) 'A Bibliographical Record of Lorenzo da Ponte of Ceneda,' and 'Works by Francis Petrarch printed in the Fifteenth Century: Texts and Translations.'

A Bibliography of Beaumont and Fletcher, by Alfred Claghorn Potter, distinguishes the Harvard University *Bulletin* for May.

In the Proceedings of the Trustees of the Newberry Library, Chicago, for the year ending January 5, 1890, there are intimations of a desire to come to an understanding with the circulating Public Library and the embryonic John Crerar Library as to the lines of expenditure and development, with a view to avoiding unnecessary expense in duplicate purchases. The experiment deserves to be made, and the conditions in Chicago are perhaps as favorable as they will ever be anywhere.

The Bureau of Education has just issued English-Eskimo and Eskimo-English vocabularies compiled by Ensign Roger Wells, jr., U. S. N., and Interpreter John W. Kelley, and the latter prefixes some ethnographical memoranda which show the deplorable moral condition of this barbarous people.

The *Pall Mall Gazette* sends us its shilling extra, an illustrated catalogue of the 'Pictures of 1890,' viz., of the three exhibitions now open in London. The process cuts vary a good deal in quality, but the convenience of having memorada of the Royal Academy, the Grosvenor, and the New Gallery in one volume will make the buyer of this pamphlet lenient.

In August, 1888, two English travellers, Messrs. Donkin and Fox, with two Swiss guides, were lost while endeavoring to climb one of the higher peaks of the Caucasus. No traces of them could be discovered by the search parties sent out by the personal orders of the Czar, and, the Russian officials being convinced that they had been murdered by the natives, it seemed likely that retributive measures would be taken by the Government. The President of the Alpine Club, Mr. C. Dent, and the Secretary of the Royal Geographical Society, Mr. D. W. Freshfield, were confident that the natives were innocent, and, in order to prevent any unjust punishment from being inflicted, these gentlemen with several companions made another search last summer for the lost mountaineers. An account of the expedition is given by Mr. Freshfield in the May Proceedings of his Society. For their guidance they fortunately had Mr. Fox's diary, the last entry of which gave the plans for the ascent of Dychtau. Mr. Freshfield's first step on reaching the Caucasus was to carefully survey this peak from a neighboring height, with a view of determining the route which the lost party would probably have taken. As the result, he led his party through a previously unexplored region, over glaciers, up the face of a precipitous cliff to the very ledge where the travellers had made their last bivouac. Here were their knapsacks, sleeping-bags, a revolver, and some of their instruments embedded in the snow and ice. There is a striking picture of this place, it may be added, in the *Alpine Journal* for February. With a few of these relics, "sufficient to satisfy friends, and to prove to the natives and officials what we had discovered," they returned, having accomplished a feat which is almost without a parallel. Mr. Freshfield's simple but graphic account is easily followed on the map which accompanies the paper, and is well illustrated by various views of the mountain and the network of glaciers which encircle it.

—In a note in No. 1274 of the *Nation* regarding John Connolly were corrected certain errors in Appletons' 'Dictionary of American Biography.' The mistakes regarding the career of that troublesome Tory betrayed neglect of original authorities on the part of the compiler. A similar negligence is palpable in the account of another Revolutionary John, John Glover. It is there stated that "Col. Glover was with Washington at Valley Forge." The truth is, that Glover never was at Valley Forge at all, and the compiler would have known that he never was had he ever read Upham's memoir of Glover, which he himself cites as the authority for his article. Washington was at Valley Forge at the utmost from December 19, 1777, to June 18, 1778. Where was Glover meantime? He was in Boston (where his statue now is), or thereabouts, fifteen days' journey by express from Washington's winter quarters. His brigade, or a part of it, was with Washington, but Glover himself had been detached on a special service, namely, holding in custody the captured army of Burgoyne, and he was detained on this business longer than was anticipated, even till summer in 1778. Washington wanted him at Valley Forge. Upham had the original of Washington's letter to Glover, dated January 8, 1778, saying: "I must desire that you will join your brigade as soon as possible." He needed him because Glover was the best disciplinarian in the Continental Army—an American Steuben. (The German martinet had not yet appeared.) Glover answered, January 24, that he could not come. He made him the same answer on March 29, April 10, and May 15. In the last letter Glover says that "when he entered the service in 1775, he had as good a constitution as any man of his age, but that it was now broken and shattered to pieces." (He was a martyr to insomnia.) But he adds: "I propose to set off for camp on the 1st of June, if I find myself strong enough to undertake the journey." He set out, but on the 28th of that month, ten days after Washington's departure from Valley Forge, was no nearer him than West Point, and remained there till ordered elsewhere on the 23d of the following month. Proof of alibi is seldom more conclusive than this.

—The useful applications of photography to astronomical research are by no means all made. Offering at first aid merely pictorial, the introduction latterly of very sensitive dry plates has greatly widened the outlook, so that now many of the most critical problems in astronomy of precision promise the happiest solution through the intervention of photography. Even such delicate work as stellar parallaxes may in the future be done by photographic means better, not to say more easily, than with the heliometer even. Excellent results have, indeed, already been reached. But the highly sensitized plates are especially hopeful in view of the possibility that the trails of the less bright stars may record themselves with even the small glasses ordinarily employed in transit instruments. Stellar transits could then be taken by photography, and the effect of that very annoying element in such observations, known as personal equation, would be practically wholly eliminated. Experiments in this line have been going on many months in both Europe and America, at first with no result but very complex instruments and disappointment. The Repsolds of Hamburg, foremost among the instrument-makers of the world, were the main experimenters in this direction abroad; but their first device, while capable of doing work apparently good, was in effect two instruments instead of one, and could not therefore be regarded as a practicable form. In our own country, Professor Pickering of Harvard, in conjunction with Professor Bigelow, has attained results which are very hopeful, and with an apparatus of exceedingly simple form. The ordinary reticle of the transit was first replaced by a small sensitized plate attached to a metallic frame which is capable of sliding up and down a very small fraction of an inch by the attraction of an electro-magnet. A bright star trailing across this plate would then record a broken trail if the circuit were so manipulated automatically by the clock as to make the plate move either up or down at the beginning of each second of time. Furthermore, every time a star crossed a transit thread, the broken line on the plate would be interrupted. On developing the plate and subjecting it to microscopic examination, it was found that the beginning and end of each second, and the breaks occasioned by the transit threads, were sharply defined and capable of precise measurement. But before this was done, it was necessary to fix the lines themselves on the

plate, and this was very cleverly done by holding an artificial light in front of the objective a few seconds, until the fogging effect should be just sufficient to bring them out. A few transits actually observed in this way with preliminary apparatus afforded results quite comparable with good chronographic work. The experiments need, however, to be repeated under better conditions, particularly with lenses specially figured for the actinic rays, and of focal length sufficient to give the greatest practicable length to the seconds-mark on the plate. Meanwhile, the Repsolds have greatly improved their own methods, also, and there is already encouraging reason for the hope that the sensible differences in stellar coordinates now existing in the work of standard observatories, and so perplexing to the practical astronomer, may become a thing of the past.

—The report of the Minister of Education in Japan comes to our table this year, not as a bulky volume in Japanese print, but in English, as a pamphlet of one hundred and sixty-one pages. It is for the year 1887. Unfortunately, in the copy sent us, the binder has dropped out a folio, so that we have only one-half of the conspectus of the totals of statistics. From this, however, we see that there are now in the public schools of the empire 62,372 teachers, of whom 56,836 are in the elementary schools. There are enrolled in all the institutions of learning 2,828,633 persons, of whom 2,713,391 are children in the elementary schools. In the other schools the numbers are: Middle, 11,835; Normal, 4,899; in all the others, universities, special schools, kindergartens, etc., 98,538. The empire is divided into 10,862 school districts, the total population being 39,701,594, and the children of school age numbering 6,740,929. Among the teachers are nearly two hundred Europeans and Americans. The fifty pages of carefully compiled statistics are of great interest, particularly as showing the solidity of the foundation of the educational system, its sound financial basis, thorough distribution of burden, and the vital hold it has upon the people. The Japanese reformers who in 1868 overturned the old state of things, which was noted chiefly for its repression of mental activity and its determination to keep the masses in ignorance, took as their motto, "Education is the basis of all progress." The whole report makes suggestive reading to those Americans who, between 1868 and 1874, wrought with the native authorities at the beginnings of the organization of this national system of education. We note the fact that the curriculum in the general common schools approaches very closely that of Western nations. In addition to the staples of reading, writing, and arithmetic, singing (according to the European scale of musical notes), sewing, gymnastics, as well as natural and political history, physics, and chemistry are taught in the middle schools. A sea-side laboratory near the point on Yedo Bay past which Commodore Perry "sailed into Japanese history," has been established for the study of marine life. The courses in the law schools are now three, in German, French, and English. Besides advanced courses of the arts and sciences useful in war or peace, in the university, there are commercial schools of high grade, schools of fine arts, music, and for the deaf and dumb, the blind, etc. The libraries and educational museums are surprisingly numerous and well-equipped, considering that these, as at present constituted, are the growth of but twenty years.

—Text-books are constructed on the Western models, and some of these are of a high order of merit. It is pleasant to see so numerously the names of young men who, having given a good account of themselves in the native schools of two decades ago, studied in or graduated from American schools or colleges. These have been steadily and patiently at work in the education department, joining experience to aptness and ability. They have acted as compilers, critics, inspectors, or judges of text-books and educational apparatus. The general excellence of the Japanese exhibit at the various international expositions, and the school equipment in actual working, is thus explained. In some cases it has been found best to call out spontaneous private talent and to stimulate native experts, by offering prizes of from one to three thousand dollars for manuscripts of text-books on history. It will be of high interest to foreign critical students of what in their national lore the Japanese accept as history, to see how far the spirit of inquiry will be allowed or suppressed. It is not yet safe to print in the vernacular anything which challenges the ancient fables or mythology, though a Japanese is free to do so in English. The imperial throne still rests on the tortoise of mythology and not on the solid earth of fact. Only a few weeks ago an editor was imprisoned for "speaking disrespectfully of Jimmu Tenno"; or, in other words, criticising the dragon-born hero who was canonized centuries after his supposed achievement. Even the date of his "ascension to the throne" and "the beginning of Japanese history" was fixed and promulgated no further back than A. D. 1872. In regard to the popularity of the various courses in the Imperial University of Tokio, the splendid crown of the national school system, that of law comes naturally first. This is the first year of Japan's new national life as shown in representative government, and the procedure of business and justice has been approaching the spirit and methods of Western countries during the past fifteen years. The School of Medicine comes next in favor, and after that the College of Engineering. "The importance of the study of literature seems as yet to be hardly felt by the public at large," and the same may be said of science, despite the ample and varied facilities of instruction. The total number of students in the University is 864. Its faculties include 47 native professors, 24 assistant professors, 31 provisional teachers, and 21 foreign professors. Somewhat after the model and with the general aim of the French Academy is the organization of twenty-seven eminent native scholars of Tokio, who publish a magazine, give lectures, and are compiling an encyclopædia of antiquities. At the end of the year under review, 19 students were sent abroad to study at Government expense, 12 of whom went to Germany. In a word, it may be said that this report shows that the educational transition in Japan keeps healthful pace with the industrial and political movements, and in so far augurs well for the future of the nation.

THE NEW ENGLISH DICTIONARY.

A New English Dictionary on historical principles; founded mainly on the materials collected by the Philological Society. Edited by James A. H. Murray, sometime President of the Philological Society, with the assistance of many scholars and men of science. Part V. Cast—Clivy. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1889.

PART V. of the new Historical Dictionary begins with the most voluminous specimen of word history yet written, the history of *cast*. One hundred and eighty-three meanings of the verb are given, and their history traced through more than eight hundred quotations. For noun and verb together there are some twelve hundred quotations. It is not a word of the old English family, and seems never to have been thoroughly domesticated. It appears in English books at the beginning of the third century. Some figurative uses are among the earliest and have lasted longest: "1225, To kesten kang eien upon yunge wummenen," "1816, You have cast your eyes upon Miss Wardour." *Casting the head, caput cassare*, is as old, but we *toss* it now. "To cast light," "cast love" are early. *Cast* in the sense of 'fortune,' 'chance,' 'lot,' is very old, reminding one of Latin *casus*, as other meanings do of *casso*, *quasso*. It is a Danish word, however. The very earliest find seems to be in a Homily of 1200—"casteth ut that water," pours or drains out the water. Most of the meanings are older than Shakspere, Biblical or bookish, or technical—hunting, hawking, fishing, and war. Sixty-three are obsolete. The noun occurs twice in "Hamlet" and twice in the other plays of Shakspere, once in Milton, thrice in Tennyson. Ten of the quotations in Tennyson for the verb *cast* are casting of eyes and glances. There are fifty-two in all. This article is a booklet by itself. It is headed with a sort of table of contents.

There are other articles approaching this in bulk and surpassing it in interest and importance, and in the difficulty of the discussions involved. That on *church*, for example, has every kind of interest known to linguistic study, and if its compounds be taken with it, the whole article is longer than that on *cast*. It is traced back in quotations to the earliest Anglo-Saxon, and then by argument to the Greek of the New Testament. Many difficulties, linguistic and historical, lie in the way—difficulties that have staggered the greatest etymologists. Grimm himself thought it came from *circus*, a place of assembly. A survey is required of many languages and many peoples through many centuries. Nowhere is the greatness of this greatest of dictionaries more eminent. Its all-pervading researches, its command of the laws of language, the exactness and clearness and fulness of its statements, both of fact and argument, are here shown at their best. The difficulties had arisen in the attempt to explain how missionaries or other spread of Christianity should have carried the word to the Germanic tribes at the dates and in the forms in which we find it. The solution is found in the discovery, to which the laws of phonetic change lead, that the Germanic tribes were in possession of the word at an earlier date than the introduction of Christianity among them. Careful historic research has gathered abundant proof that the phonetic deduction is correct. The Germans were familiar with these buildings as objects of pillage centuries before they had any of their own, and they called them by the name used in the Greek provinces.

The classification and exposition of the different meanings of the word *church* in the English language, from the earliest Anglo-Saxon to the latest American, with the collections of authoritative quotations from authors of all periods, are admirable. Dr. Murray presents his thanks to many scholars, etymologists, and ecclesiologists who have interested themselves in this article and have contributed to it by examination of the original data, by communication of fresh references, or by important criticism and advice. No doubt each of these scholars and a thousand other etymologists and

ecclesiologists will desire to thank Dr. Murray for the perfected article.

These articles are good specimens of the whole number, fair specimens in regard to learning, and acuteness, and scientific thoroughness. There are 8,371 words treated in the 456 pages, beginning with *cast* and ending with *clivy*. There are 5,966 main words, heads of articles. Hardly one of these is without novel facts for the student of language. The article on *cat* rivals that on *church* in variety of facts and skill in presentation. There are more cats than churches, and the original is more obscure. Many a big book has been made with a hundredth part of the research which is embodied in this article. The other great historical dictionaries—Grimm, Littré—do not rival it. Grimm, however, has some interesting paragraphs of an encyclopedic kind giving other names for the cat: *roller*, *niez*, *rammler*, *mull*, *bizi*, *minz*, *maudi*, etc., etc., and proper names in fables and beast epics and mythology: *Tibert* (*Tybalt*), *Peter*, *Tom*, *Kunz*, *Heinz*, and the like. Dr. Murray follows the word *cat* in all sorts of applications to persons and things; but, most likely, does not think it in his beat to follow the animal through its namings. He might, perhaps, have thought of some philological category under which he could bring in the cat names—synonyms, for example? The list of Grimm might easily be lengthened: *puss*, *tab*, *tib*, *gyb*, with their diminutives, are not mentioned in it.

New facts about *catkin* are here, and *cattle*, *chicken*, *Charles's Wain*, *cayenne*, *claret*, *cherub*, all about *cherubin*, *cherubims*, and all the forms. This number, indeed, including all words beginning with *ch*, is eminently learned with classic learning. The words are largely the familiar words of common scholarship, derived from Latin or Greek, and thrice-handled by etymologists. A considerable number of persons will be able to appreciate it; they will recognize it as the high-water mark of dictionary work as yet.

Opening Bartlett's 'Dictionary of Americanisms' in the region of *cast*, to compare it with Dr. Murray, we find that *castoria*, a preparation of castor-oil, is not taken; *castorial*, a "nonce-word" from J. R. Lowell, takes its place as a recognition of America: "A graduated arc, by which he meted out to each his rightful share of castorial consideration." What relations *castor*-oil may have had with Mr. Lowell's *castor*, Dr. Murray leaves uncertain. He does not think the Webster derivation of *castor*-oil from *agnus castus* worthy of mention.

Catawampous and its tribe are naturalized in England as slang, it seems. *Catechise*, a New England vulgarism for *catechism* in Bartlett, appears in Murray in a series of quotations from 1552, all right to De Foe's time. *Caucus* has a full history. It is a lively word in England with a host of descendants little known in America—*caucusdom*, *caucuseer*, *caucusified*, and the like. It is traced back by quotations to 1763 (John Adams's Diary) and by inference to 1624 (John Smith's Hist. Virginia), when "*caw-cawaasoughes*" are mentioned as elders of a tribe of Indians. This Dr. Trumbull recognizes as an Algonkin word, *cau'-cau-ass'u*, councillor, and the probable original of *caucus*. Dr. Murray does not quote the intermediate forms *cau'carouse*, used also by Smith, and *cockarouse*, 1705 (in Beverly's Hist. of Virginia), mentioned by Dr. Trumbull in the Transactions of the American Philological Association for 1872. *A caution*, a matter of astonishment, is well known to Dr. Murray: "His wife was what the Yankees call a 'caution';" so also *cavort*, *cayman* with a venerable pedigree; *cent*, *centennial* (with American uses), *Centennial State* (Colorado); *centreboard* (with no mention of prizes won); *certain*, *certainly* (quotations back to 1330, *certain sothe*, *certain sure*, 1500); *chained lightning*; *a long chalk*; *chaparral*; to *chaw up*. *Chaw* was current in polite use from 1530 to 1734. "It is now esteemed vulgar, and is used of coarse or vulgar actions, as 'chawing' tobacco." *Chebacco* boat, thought by Bartlett to be named from Chebacco Parish, Ipswich, Mass., is thought by Dr. Murray to be another form of *Chebec*, *Xebec*, Portuguese *Xabeco*, pronounced *Shabeco* (quotations to 1762). Here is *checkerberry*; *passing in one's checks*; *cheek*; *cheese*: "If greenbacks ain't not just the *cheese*" (Lowell), in Murray, Anglo-Indian slang, with no American associations. They do not seem to have heard in England of Dr. Mary Walker's *chemiloon*, nor of *chicken-fixings*. But *chigoo*, 1691; *this child*, meaning *me* or *I*; *chincapin*, *chipmunk*, *chowder*, and *chowder-beer*, are all here; so *clam-chowder*, *clam-bake*, *clam-shell*, "shut your *clam-shell*." *As close as a clam* is called a New England phrase of contempt. Dr. Murray does not know the clam as the type of happiness, its most cherished aspect to the overworked New Englander. The readers have overlooked Saxe's sonnet, "Dum tacent *clamant*":

> "Albeit men mock thee with their similes,
> And prate of being 'happy as a clam.'"
> *Duyck. Cyc. Am. Lit. ii, 630.*

Clever and its derivatives are in full force, with many quotations, one as far back as 1220. A very large number of American uses of words not in Bartlett are specified and illustrated. It is evidently the purpose of the editor to give thorough study to the usages of the United States, and a full exposition of the English language in America.

MR. HOWELLS'S LATEST NOVEL.

A Hazard of New Fortunes. By William Dean Howells. Harper & Brothers.

'A Hazard of New Fortunes' differs essentially from those novels by Mr. Howells which might be arranged in a series appropriately entitled 'Boston Under the Scalpel,' or 'Boston Torn to Tatters,' or 'The True Inwardness of Boston.' The difference is not in motive, for, from the beginning, he has adhered uncompromisingly to the only motive which he considers worthy, that of depicting life as he sees it, as it appears to his outward and inward vision; it is shown in a wider outlook, a deeper insight, an expansion of sympathy, and especially in a sensitiveness to emotional tragedy the actuality of which he has hitherto almost denied. The novel is perhaps no cleverer than 'Silas Lapham' or 'A Modern Instance,' but it is greater in just the same way that Mr. James's 'Princess Casamassima' is greater than his sharpest satire of Boston society or wittiest international episode. Both novels are the expression of observation of the multiform life of great cities, and of sufficient self-identification with it to produce a faithful and vivid picture. In London Mr. James heard and understood the cry of humanity for something better than it has or knows—a cry that gathers volume from age to age, and tones from the four winds of heaven. Mr. Howells has heard the same cry in New York; he has caught its shrill notes, its weak notes, its false notes, and has recognized the unbroken undertone of tragedy and sorrow. Seeing how lucidly and kindly he can translate the meaning of some of its innumerable vibrations, one regrets that he has devoted so much time to the inconsequent prattle and finished irony of ladies and gentlemen from Boston, despite the amusement which they have afforded.

The action of the novel centres about the office of the magazine *Every Other Week*, and almost all the characters have an artistic, literary, or financial interest in that publication. There is, first of all, Fulkerson the "organizer," the life and soul of the enterprise, and the life, though not the soul, of the story. Comment upon him could only wrong him. In almost every chapter he describes himself, and here, if ever, the style is the man. The people whom, in his own phrase, he "ropes in" for the service, form a group which could be brought together naturally in no city except New York. All are, for several reasons, worth describing, and with the description there is absolutely no fault to be found, excepting the uncouth sounds the Virginia girl utters when she is supposed to be talking English, or at least English as it is spoken in Virginia. The author's weakness in dialect may yet stir up contention about his right to be called an American novelist.

He has not by any means cut away from the Bostonians, for two of them, our old acquaintances, Mr. and Mrs. March, are the people who take the 'Hazard of New Fortunes' by transplanting themselves in New York, he to edit *Every Other Week*, and she to exercise conjugal censorship over a being who, possessing a flexible intelligence without the prop of rigid principle, could not long withstand alone the pressure of the wicked world. Mrs. March is not improved by a change of base. It is doubtful whether translation to Paradise could improve that sort of woman when once she had reached her prime. What she was born and "raised," she is immutably—illogical, opinionated, impervious to chaff, affectionate and generous only when selfish and cold impulses are corrected by perceptions trained to distinguish between the disagreeable and the admirable; most uncomfortable to live with and irritating to read about. In spite of her guardianship Mr. March does change. He has the advantage of spending his days away from her, in the office of *Every Other Week*, under the tutelage of Mr. Fulkerson, who is capable of demoralizing Virtue herself should he determine that the process would advertise any "little spec." in which he had immersed his buoyant soul. It is March who sees the picturesqueness of the city streets, and likes them notwithstanding their frequent filth and ash barrels, their heterogeneous architecture, and their intermittent hideousness. It is he who feels his blood flow faster as he brushes the restless crowd, so diversified in character that it appears characterless. It is he who makes use of an incomparable opportunity to estimate the worthlessness of wealth in hands incompetent to use it, offered by old Dryfoos, the "natural gas" potentate and Fulkerson's "backer." It is he whose imagination is warmed by acquaintance with Conrad Dryfoos, "a man well on towards thirty, in whose heart there had never been left the stain of a base thought." Nothing remarkable in the external life of New York, from the Battery to Harlem, escapes March, and his generalizations about its complex social organization are on the whole keen and just. Many of his reflections are worth quoting and remembering. What he says about the much-vexed question of the good-society basis in America is especially so. He is coming home from a party to which the hostess, in a spasm of social benevolence, has invited the Dryfoos girls. Mrs. March is, as usual, censorious.

"Such people as the Dryfooses," says March, "are the raw material of good society.

It isn't made up of refined or meritorious people—professors and littérateurs, ministers, musicians, and their families. All the fashionable people there to-night were like the Dryfooses a generation or two ago. I dare say the material works up faster now, and in a season or two you won't know the Dryfooses from the other plutocrats. *They* will—a little better than they do now; they'll see a difference, but nothing radical, nothing painful. . . . And that's the kind of people that form our nobility; there's no use pretending that we haven't a nobility; we might as well pretend that we haven't first-class cars in the presence of a vestibuled Pullman. . . . And you may be sure that if the plutocracy that now owns the country ever sees fit to take on the outward signs of an aristocracy—titles and arms and ancestors—it won't falter from any inherent question of its worth. Money prizes and honors itself, and if there is anything it hasn't got, it believes it can buy it."

Altogether Mr. March is much improved by his New York experiences. He discards slowly the cultivated habit of shirking unpleasant facts, but the seriousness and passion of life force themselves upon him, and he bids fair ultimately to despise the comfortable years spent in Boston largely devoted to polishing cynical epigrams which embody a vast and perverse ignorance of matters unattractive to persons of nerves and taste.

Through March's reflections and Fulkerson's sallies it is easy to see that the contrasted wealth and poverty of New York open Mr. Howells's ears to the voice of the Socialist, and that he vaguely dreams of a day when, as Fulkerson says, all will be working for the common good, instead of splitting up into as many cut-throats as there are able-bodied citizens. He, however, suggests no specific for wrongs or grievances. Probably the question is too appalling, and he can see no speedy relief for miseries that must endure until "that smooth-faced gentleman, tickling Commodity," departs into limbo, and the fair earth is peopled by regenerate man.

SMITH'S RELIGION OF THE SEMITES.—I.

Lectures on the Religion of the Semites. First Series: The Fundamental Institutions. By W. Robertson Smith, M.A., LL.D., Fellow of Christ's College, and Professor of Arabic in the University of Cambridge. D. Appleton & Co. 1889. 8vo, pp. xii, 488.

Prof. Smith's work marks an important turn in the method of treating the Semitic, and especially the Hebrew, religion. Up to a few years ago, no heathen Semitic religious system, not excepting the Phœnician (which Movers discussed at great length), had received satisfactory attention. Selden's great learning had collected the classic notices of the gods of Syria, and Sale, in the Prolegomena to his translation of the Koran, had gathered much of what Arabic authors say of the old Arabian religion; but Selden, Sale, and Movers were hampered by the double lack of sufficient data and of a scientific method. The first of these lacks has been partly supplied within the last half century by the discovery of the Babylonian-Assyrian literature, and of numerous Phœnician, Aramaic, Arabic, and Sabean inscriptions, and by exacter researches in all Semitic material. The results obtained from these recent acquisitions are found in the works of Renan, Lane, Tiele, Baudissin, Bäthgen, Wellhausen, Sayce, Rawlinson, A. Müller, Pietschmann, Goldziher, and others. By all these writers, also, the historical comparative method of inquiry has been more or less employed. A new direction has been given to the treatment of the history of religions by the application of the doctrine of evolution, in the works of Tylor, McLennan, and others, to the life of primitive human societies. The point which has been distinctly brought out by these writers is, that the origin of social and religious ideas and customs is to be sought, not in the developed systems of comparatively late civilizations, but in the crude conceptions of savage life.

Prof. Smith has undertaken to apply this method of inquiry in the Semitic field. His work on 'Kinship and Marriage in Early Arabia' has already been noticed in these columns; he now proposes to make a full investigation of the religious ideas of the Semitic peoples as far as the materials permit. The occasion of the present work was the invitation of the Trustees of the Burnett Fund to deliver three courses of lectures at Aberdeen, in the three years from October, 1888, to October, 1891, on "The primitive religions of the Semitic peoples, viewed in relation to other ancient religions and to the spiritual religion of the Old Testament and of Christianity." It may be taken as a refreshing sign of progress in Scotland that the man who, not many years ago, was tried in the courts of the Free Church on the charge of applying the principles of historical research to the Old Testament, is now invited to expound these principles, in a perfectly free and unhampered manner, in the same field of investigation. The present volume, containing the first course of lectures, deals with the fundamental institutions of the Semitic religion, under the general heads of the nature of the early religious community, the relation of the gods to their worshippers and to holy places and things, and the origin and development of sacrifice. The succeeding volumes will discuss the nature and origin of Semitic deities and myths, and the part which Semitic religion has played in universal history.

The reasons which Prof. Smith gives for beginning his investigation with institutions rather than dogmas appear to be sound. Strictly speaking, indeed, dogma or creed underlies all institutions and ceremonies, for even the most primitive savage community bases its religious procedures on some belief respecting the supernatural or extra-human constitution and government of the world. But this belief was in early times, and even down to a comparatively late period, fluid, unorganized, unformulated, not enforced by the authority of a settled dogmatic system; the essential thing in early religion was the due observance of rites and customs, obedience to which was regarded as constituting piety, and was believed to secure the favor of the gods. A man might interpret the ceremonies as he pleased, holding his own opinions concerning the nature of the deity and the origin of things; and it is from the ritual that we have to learn the dogma, since primitive communities produced no works on systematic theology. It is important to bear in mind the possibility and probability of diversity of dogmatic views in connection with unity of ritual, in order, for example, to understand the variety of theological opinions held by the early Israelites. The plan pursued in these lectures seems, therefore, to be not only reasonable, but, in a sense, necessary.

The propriety of the assumption of "a Semitic religion" will not be called in question. The racial unity of the Semites is fairly established by linguistic and other considerations, and the religious unity, made probable, though not absolutely certain, by the race relations, comes out more and more clearly from a comparison of the customs and ideas of the various Semitic peoples. We may therefore reasonably expect to find the usages of one section of the Semitic world illustrated by those of all other sections. The degree of culture must of course always be taken into consideration; like strata of development must be compared together. For the primitive history of religion, recourse must be had to primitive memorials of custom and belief. These are not necessarily to be found in what we commonly call the most ancient civilizations and literatures, since it is not always in them that we find the expression of the simplest social condition (it being assumed that religious crudeness and undeveloped social life belong together). Some readers may be surprised that Mr. Smith has not gone to Babylonian sources for the history of early Semitic institutions, the Babylonian literary monuments being the most ancient records of Semitic life, and indeed in the whole world rivalled in antiquity only by the Egyptian. But it must be remembered that even these earliest records present a comparatively developed phase of society and religion. They exhibit an established monarchical form of government and an organized pantheon; this is a very great advance beyond the primitive nomadic life, and presupposes a long period of social and religious growth. It is otherwise with the Arabs of the desert, who seem never to have reached a settled and organized social life. We read, indeed, in the Assyrian annals of a king of the Arabians conquered by Assurbanipal in the seventh century before the beginning of our era; but such a kingdom, situated in the north of the peninsula, need not have affected the civilization of the desert tribes; these, when they first appear in the native literature, in the sixth century of our era, show no traces of a monarchical constitution; the kingdom of Saba in the south had its separate history and religion, and is to be carefully distinguished from the wandering communities of the interior. It is among these last that the most primitive Semitic religious customs seem to have been preserved. Our author is therefore fairly warranted in seeking his material in the Arabian desert rather than in Babylonia. He by no means, however, confines himself to this source, but finds his illustrations wherever primitive ideas seem to have maintained themselves, even in much later stages of civilization. While looking especially to the Semitic field, he cites also a number of Greek and Roman religious customs and ideas, and thus makes his work a contribution to the general history of religion; he follows out, in fact, only in more detail in a narrower area, the lines of investigation laid down by Tylor, McLennan, and Lang.

Mr. Smith accepts and applies, but does not undertake to demonstrate, the theory of the history of social life advanced by these writers. It may be substantially summed up in the terms "totemism" and "tabu." The primary religious fact is the blood relationship between the god and his worshippers. Each tribe or clan had its own deity who was its kinsman, interested, in friendly and human fashion, in all its affairs, its protector against enemies, and sharer in all its fortunes. The special phase of relationship varied with the social organization—the god was father or mother or brother, chief or king. This relationship was expressed in proper names of men, such as *Abibaal*, *Abiel*, "Baal, El is my father"; *Ahimelek*, *Ahijah*, "Melek, Jah [that is, Yahwe] is my brother," and many others. In more advanced social states the worshipper was the servant or the client of the god, whence the names, *Ebedmelek*, *Obadiah*, *Gerastart*, *Gerelos*, etc. Prof. Smith has made an admirable study of the name Baal, in which he shows (Lect. iii.) that the Baals are agricultural deities, connected with land that does not require irrigation, land watered by underground springs; they are thus the fertilizers of

the ground, the owners of its products, and as such entitled to offerings of its natural gifts. Each district might have its Baal; that this title was given by the old Hebrews to their national deity is shown by proper names (as those of Saul's son and grandson, *Ishbaal* and *Meribbaal*, I. Chron., ix., 39, 40), and by the discourse of the prophet Hosea (Hos. ii.) in which the corn, wine, and oil ascribed by the Israelites to the Baals, are said to have been given by Yahwe.

Another point of interest brought out in these lectures is the difference between gods and demons. The probability is that no such distinction between classes of supernatural beings existed in the earliest times. All objects of nature alike, animal, vegetable, and mineral, were at first conceived of as living and powerful for good or for evil, according to circumstances; all were alike revered and worshipped; no ethical or other distinctions were made among them. Even in later times deities were often harmful and hostile. The Hebrews for a long time ascribed bodily and mental plagues to spiritual emissaries of their national deity. The difference between god and demon was not that between helpfulness and hurtfulness—it was a matter of clan-relationship. Those extra-human beings with which, for whatever reasons, the clan formed relations and came to feel kinship, grew in process of time to be its deities, its familiar friends among the supernatural powers; while those which stood aloof from the life of the community were looked on as strangers and enemies. The aloofness of such beings might arise from the fact that they dwelt in noxious or otherwise unfriendly regions, or from their identification with other communities, or from other causes; in any case, the essential consideration was that they were not kinsmen. One of these points of view is illustrated by the Old Testament application to foreign deities of a term (*shed*) which is intended to express hostility. Another is found in the Arabian *jinn* (genii), which Mr. Smith plausibly considers as originally the deities of unfrequented places, and to be identified eventually with various sorts of wild animals. However, the *jinn* are not to be regarded as without exception malignant, as our author seems to say (p. 122): he himself mentions the Arab view that medicinal waters were inhabited by them (p. 153), and the later Arabic folk-lore recognized a class of *jinn* who were good Moslems, having given in their adhesion under the prophet Solomon—a form of representation that is intended to account for helpful members of this category of beings.

The author has collected much valuable material respecting the abodes of the gods, sanctuaries, natural and artificial, and holy waters, trees, caves, and stones. In the beliefs connected with these he finds evidence that all such natural objects were regarded as instinct with life, and the anthropomorphic legends he looks on as productions of a later time of reflection. If Atargatis plunges into the sacred pool at Ascalon, or Astarte descends into the river at Aphaca in the form of a fiery star, these stories mean only that the waters in question were believed to be endowed with life, in explanation of which the presence of the goddesses was invoked by a later generation. The bearing of this view on the theory of astral myths is obvious. Mr. Lang has gone over the same ground, and Professor Tiele of Leiden has replied (in the *Revue de l'Histoire des Religions*) in defence of the solar-myth hypothesis. In so obscure a subject reserve is becoming. It has come to be widely felt that Professor Max Müller and his pupil, Sir George Cox, and others have often passed the bounds of discretion in their application of the astral theory, and the divergent and contradictory explanations of the same legend given by different writers have tended to bring the method into discredit. Whether this other hypothesis will account satisfactorily for the facts remains to be seen; meantime it furnishes a simple explanation suitable to the stadium of social development at which the legends appear to have originated. Mr. Smith brings a number of his illustrations in this part of the subject from the Hebrew Scriptures.

Harvard Graduates whom I have Known. By Andrew Preston Peabody, D.D., LL.D. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890.

Dr. Peabody has sketched in this volume the lives and characters of several representatives of the men of the "elder day" in New England in whom the public spirit, the moral worth, and the Christian conscience of the community were more or less illustrated and effective in practical life, though few upon his list achieved any lasting fame among the great men of the country. He confines his record to those who were either benefactors of Harvard College or members of one at least of its governing boards. He begins with two men whom he knew in his boyhood at Beverly, both of whom founded professorships that became illustrious; Dr. Fisher being the source of that held by Prof. Asa Gray, and the Hon. Nathan Dane of that held by Judge Story. The repute of these men was local, but the record of their careers is perhaps the more valuable on that account, because they are complete examples of the ordinary "leading man" in the New England communities of a century ago. After these we find a long list of clergymen and scholars and men of practical affairs: John Pierce, the Brookline minister, who attended sixty-three out of sixty-four successive commencements, and was ambitious, if at all, to be the oldest living graduate; John Pickering, the editor of the first dictionary of Americanisms and of the first Greek-English lexicon in America, founder of the Oriental Society, and altogether a foremost scholar as well as an able lawyer; William Wells, the first publisher of an American Cicero and other classics; William Jenks, the first city-missionary of Boston; Judge White, the reformer of the Probate-Court system; Dr. Lowell, the father of the poet, whose work among the poor negroes of Boston is specially mentioned; Dr. Nichols, the Portland divine, whose letters and fragmentary remains suggest in what haven the men of poetic feeling found refuge in those unpoetical days; Presidents Walker and Sparks, Mayor Eliot, George B. Emerson, the teacher, Senator Silsbee, Dr. Palfrey, and others—a long and honorable roll. Indeed, it would be hard to find a volume in which such a group of able workers could be matched in respect to the results of life still existing and operative as the fruit of their charitable, executive, and scholarly labors; and their now fading memories have a fervent eulogist in the author, who admires in them the ideal which he has illustrated in himself as well.

Among the biographical and other matter is scattered much personal reminiscence, including details of their appearance, anecdotes, and curious items of information in respect to the life and manners of the times, particularly in the College. The volume concludes with sketches of the first two presidents, in an appendix, their lives having been omitted from Sibley's 'Harvard Graduates' because they were educated in England. Though the interest of the volume is mainly for Harvard men and for the local annals of eastern Massachusetts, it is a valuable memorial of the public zeal which is the main element in the New England tradition now so widely spread over the land. If we miss anything, it is what Dr. Peabody's 'Harvard Reminiscences' occasionally failed to supply—a firm moral judgment of public actions. This would, indeed, have disturbed the preacher's uniform tone of post-mortem eulogy, but would have shown the limitations of Christian profession and philanthropy in the period commemorated.

The Promotion of General Happiness: A Utilitarian Essay. By Michael Macmillan. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co. 1890.

This book opens with a blunder. It is a misleading statement of the utilitarian position to say that "virtue itself would not be desirable unless it promoted the happiness of the world." As the author himself elsewhere observes, virtuous action means action productive of happiness; and the proposition that action productive of happiness would not be desirable unless it produced happiness, is, to say the least of it, an awkward statement. The confusion of thought seems to be like that of the New England divines who regarded a willingness to be damned for the glory of God as necessary to salvation. Explanation may remove the confusion in both cases, but the need of explanation is itself objectionable. But it is not very probable that utilitarians will ever be understood by their opponents until they consent to adopt Paulsen's suggestion, and substitute the word teleological for utilitarian.

The aim of this author, however, is not to discuss the theory of morals, but to determine the conduct which utilitarianism prescribes upon particular occasions. In this aim he seems to us in the main unsuccessful. The difficulties of the task which he has set himself are not only far greater than he supposes, but are to a considerable extent insuperable. The conditions of human existence are so fluctuating that conduct which seems right to-day may be proved wrong to-morrow; and while the great issue between the pessimists and the optimists is undecided, the solution of a great many minor problems must be postponed. Again, the assumption that one human being is to count for as much as another, while necessary for theoretical purposes, is so far from the truth that no particular act can be justified by it. Every case must be decided by itself, and only omniscience could lay down general rules of practice that would not be subject to exceptions.

As to the special cases examined by the author, we find our own conclusions in almost every instance opposed to his. We cannot admit that the inventions of printing and of the steam-engine have not resulted in a balance of happiness, or that English laborers are not so well off now as in the days of Henry VIII., or that the progress of medical science has not been a benefit to the race. We regard as worthless the statistics by which the author claims to prove that "the average of human life is no higher now than it was in the days of ancient Greece and Rome and in the middle ages." And we flatly deny that "the utilitarian is bound by his principles to promote the cause of total abstinence by all possible means, and especially by becoming himself a total abstainer, as that is the most effective way of promoting the cause." Some of the arguments used in support of these conclusions are valid, and some are not; but in every instance arguments are omitted without which no positive conclusions are attainable. Regarded as an

exercise in casuistry, the book is not without interest and value, but as a guide to right conduct we cannot recommend it. It is often suggestive, but it is not satisfying.

A Primer of Phonetics. By Henry Sweet, M.A. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1890.

THIS Primer is, according to its author, "intended to supply the double want of a new edition of his 'Handbook of Phonetics' and of a concise introduction to phonetics." In both of these capacities it will meet with an eager welcome from phoneticians.

Considered as a revised 'Handbook,' it shows, on the whole, rather the promise of progress than any great actual improvement. Mr. Sweet retains the Bell vowel-system, but he declares in his preface that in so doing he "by no means pledges himself to rigid conservatism." While "narrow" and "wide" are defined almost exactly as before, the statement is added that the "distinction between narrow and wide is not so clear in the back vowels." The movements of the soft palate are, unfortunately, still left out of account; in fact, the function of closing the nasal passage is ascribed, on pages 8 and 19, to the *uvula*. Rounding is somewhat inadequately treated; on the subject of "inner rounding" the author expresses himself more cautiously than in the 'Handbook.' The definition of "mixed vowels," on page 13, is misleading. Some American-English and Irish-English varieties of pronunciation appear in this 'Primer.' If the name "American" is given to peculiarities that are limited to a few States, the fault lies rather with our philologists than with Mr. Sweet. On page 15 occurs the expression, "the Irish and American pronunciation of *but*." Now, at least three entirely distinct pronunciations of *but* are to be heard in the United States, and there is certainly one Irish *but* that is different from them all. The Bell pigeon-holing system is probably to blame for the statement, on page 73, that "in American-English" the vowels in *bird* and *come* are identical. In treating of the "New York" pronunciation of words like *earth* and *bird*, Mr. Sweet has overlooked the important fact that the vowel is rounded. On page 76 one variety of American *o* in *not*, the "low-back-wide-unrounded," is not mentioned.

An examination of the 'Primer,' with regard to its merits as a "concise introduction to phonetics," shows that it is probably the best text-book available for English-speaking beginners. It contains a new and valuable introduction, and is shorter and clearer than the 'Handbook'; the chapter on the "Place of Consonants" is now about the only one that is hopelessly complicated. The most striking innovations are the introduction of the modified "Visible Speech" alphabet used in Sweet's 'History of English Sounds,' and the substitution of Latin and Greek 'Specimens' for Dutch, Icelandic, Swedish, and Danish. The Latin and Greek pronunciations given here will do for school purposes, but (excepting, perhaps, the description of Latin *m*) they have no great scientific value. In the selection from Cicero, on page 105, *abutere* is improperly accented. Of the two modern foreign languages discussed, the French receives better treatment than the German. The German diphthongs, particularly *ei*, are analyzed in a very peculiar way. The pronunciations of *tag* are given, on page 98, as *tāch* and *tāk*, instead of *tăch* and *tăk*. Here, again, the inadequacy of the Bell scheme shows itself: the German *a* claimed by most German phoneticians is not mentioned at all, and French *a* in *patte* is put into the same box as English *a* in *father*. If *bague* were pronounced according to the spelling on page 89, it would sound like *bâgue*. In the "Romic" version on page 92 the representation of nasality by the *ng* sign is unfortunate. As for the "Visible Speech" notation, it is, in spite of the confusion caused at the outset by the use of the consonant symbols before they have been explained, a great deal more intelligible than the letters used in the 'Handbook'; but throughout the 'Primer' altogether too much space is devoted to an attempt to make this alphabet perform, with the aid of countless perplexing "modifiers," something that it can never properly do—namely, express all the delicate shades of pronunciation in all languages. As a rough universal alphabet, or as a phonetic notation for one language at a time, the "Visible Speech" signs may, with some modifications, do excellent service; but, for the perfectly accurate representation of all sounds, nothing but an analphabetic system similar to that devised by Jespersen can suffice.

Essays and Studies, Educational and Literary. By Basil Lanneau Gildersleeve. Baltimore: N. Murray. 1890.

PROF. GILDERSLEEVE has collected in this handsome, if somewhat unwieldy, volume the more important of his contributions to periodicals during several years. The subjects are divided between education and the special studies of a classical scholar. Education itself is discussed only with regard to the place held in it by classical literature and the ideal which the professors of that literature should seek to develop. This pervading classicism gives individuality to the book. The endless controversy between the ancients and the moderns, the humanists and the naturalists, seems to be now at a lull, and we shall not take the occasion for fresh agitation. Those who are in search of arguments upon the conservative side will find a good array of them in these essays, but the more important matter in the educational portion deals rather with the ways and means of American scholars in philology, and the relation between grammar and the æsthetic interpretation of the classical authors. This last topic is novel, but we doubt whether the combination of the grammatical interest with the poetic insight is common enough to repay examination of the results which might follow such a union in the person of a philologist. Nevertheless, these educational essays are many-sided in interest and not without originality in the point of view, and the method of observation betokens a self-active mind.

The more attractive essays are upon some out-of-the-way topics in the survey of a well-read scholar. There is a paper, of the lighter sort, which represents the playfulness of the antiquarian littérateur, upon the probable character of Xantippe and the domestic relations of the Socratic household. Learning is not light of touch or agile in motion, but the fun in this paper is preëminently fun for the learned, and the author accomplishes what he set out to do. Much more to our taste are the essays upon Julian—one of the most brilliant subjects in the later Roman cycle—and upon Apollonius of Tyana, who is described as a Cagliostro of antiquity, and very severely snubbed and exposed—with a hand so heavy, indeed, as rather to excite our pity for the impostor than to arouse the scorn and reprobation which the author feels welling within him. Quite the best of all in the volume is the excellent résumé of the works of Lucian, the so-called Voltaire of the East, who originated so much in the way of comedy which later writers of all nations have profited by, and who was as fertile in matter as fresh in manner. There is in him that foreshadowing of the modern spirit which is so engaging to the mind, and at the same time puzzling through its unexpectedness and its incongruity with our ordinary conception of the ancient mind and morals; and this quality is especially brought out by Prof. Gildersleeve. We must mention also the essay upon Platen, the German poet, best known at present, we fancy, through Heine's diatribes, to whom the author seems attracted by the imitation of Aristophanes which Platen attempted. An Aristophanic Teuton is to the mind a monstrous engendering of the infinitely clever with the infinitely heavy, but the author does the best he can for his neglected client by translation and eulogy. The character and career of the Emperor Maximilian, together with some baccalaureate advice in the shape of the "occasional address," concludes a book which is so solitary an example of the literary recreation and critical faculty of classical scholarship in America.

The Elements of Astronomy. A Text-Book for the use of High Schools and Academies, with a Uranography. By C. A. Young. Boston: Ginn & Co.

THIS work, following close upon Prof. Young's 'General Astronomy,' will, we doubt not, be received with equal favor. Much of the material in the larger work has of course been used, but not to make a mere abridgment. We have a new book written from the point of view announced on its title-page. Although, after careful perusing, we are inclined to regard it as the best book for private study with which we are acquainted, yet there are many indications that the author did not have this object specially in view. It is written for pupils studying under a teacher. He assumes that those who use the book know enough algebra to understand simple formulæ and are acquainted with elementary geometry. The text requires no knowledge of trigonometry or any higher branch of mathematics. Occasionally, in a note or in the appendix, a trigonometrical formula is given for the benefit of that not inconsiderable number of high-school pupils who can understand it. By far the greater part of the book will be interesting and instructive to all persons who have any curiosity about the universe around us, even though their mathematical knowledge does not go beyond the limits of arithmetic.

The general arrangement of the work is: (1) the text-book proper of 344 pages; (2) an appendix of 70 pages, in which are treated a few points not previously considered, but which is mostly occupied in giving more detailed information on matters already treated generally; (3) four pages of "Suggestive Questions," not like the questions usually found in text-books, and to which direct answers can be given by committing to memory portions of the text, but ingeniously devised on a plan which we have no space to explain; (4) a very good index of twelve pages, for which the author deserves thanks; (5) a short treatise, with separate title-page and paging (42 pages), on what is usually, though absurdly, called the "Geography of the Heavens"; it is also published separately, and can be used equally well in connection with any other text-book of astronomy. Its title contains all that need be said of it: "Uranography: a Brief Description of the Constellations Visible in the United States, with Star-Maps and Lists of Objects Observable with a Small Telescope."

We are decidedly of the opinion that the study of uranography might be prosecuted by children three or four years before the age at which it would be advisable to commence the study of astronomy proper, and that the knowledge thus acquired would be a source of pleasure to them through life even if they never studied astronomy at all. We also think that it would have been better if Prof. Young had incorporated his appendix in the body of his work, either printing its sections in smaller type, or prefixing to them some mark to indicate that, where time did not allow the study of the whole work, they might be omitted.

In §95, p. 58, there is a somewhat important and very gross error which is not a "printer's error." The formula for calculating the area of the earth's surface is correctly given. Stated in words in the form of a rule, it is: Multiply the earth's mean radius by itself; then multiply this product by the ratio of the circumference of a circle to its diameter; lastly, multiply this product by four. In doing this the author forgot to multiply by the factor 4, and hence his result (in round numbers), 49,243,000 square miles, is only one-fourth what it ought to be. The true amount, *not* in round numbers and *not* neglecting decimals in the calculation, but true within a unit, is, 196,944,329 square miles. The calculation is based on the assumptions that the earth's mean radius is 3,958.83 miles as given in the section cited, and the ratio of circumference to diameter is 3.141592. We have checked several other calculations in the course of the work, but have invariably found them correct. On the whole, if there is any other elementary treatise on astronomy at once so scientific, so comprehensible, and so charming, it is one of those which we have not read.

The Adventures of a Younger Son. By Edward John Trelawny. Macmillan & Co.

WITH this novel, Macmillan & Co. open their new Adventure Series, which will revive several most desirable works of travel. Trelawny, through his connection with Byron and Shelley, is an historical name in our literature, and his own adventures and roving character interest us in himself on his own account. His life will, perhaps, never be written, but Dr. Garnett furnishes an excellent sketch of him, making some use of the new materials brought forward by Mrs. Marshall in her late 'Life of Mary Shelley,' and drawing also from Trelawny's autobiographical narratives. It is doubtful to what extent the 'Adventures of a Younger Son' represents the real facts of Trelawny's early career, though it is granted that it is in part a memoir, and Trelawny so stated the matter. Dr. Garnett suggests that the earlier portion is most near to fact, and that the element of fiction grew larger as the book grew longer. The story itself is one of riot and blood, but reflects the privateering life of the East Indies in the Napoleonic wars, and is full of a spirit and a hard reality in parts which is beyond the reach of fiction. It is often brutal in its matter, but if the tale requires a strong stomach in the reader, it is also relieved by descriptions of scenery and tropical loveliness in abundance. These are pervaded with poetical feeling, and, in comparison with Kingsley's work in 'Westward Ho,' are as the real to the imagined, and so impress the mind.

The story itself is not without a considerable degree of art also. It is well constructed; the figure of the hero, De Ruyter, is strongly drawn, his death is a fine scene, and the conclusion, which leaves Trelawny himself with the fisherman on a solitary rock in the English Channel, could not have been better conceived. This element of reality on the one hand and the artistic handling on the other convince us of the truthfulness of much of the volume, and of its subjection in part to the moulding of imagination. It is, at least, a unique work, strongly marked by the revolutionary time-spirit, full of hatred of the tyrant, of sympathy for the oppressed—whether by an English naval officer, or an East India company, or the French colony, whose conduct toward the slaves in the Isle of France is terribly delineated. Throughout, too, one observes the admiration for an ideal American—from the schooner which exceeds all others in beauty and speed to the hero Washington, who, De Ruyter says, was the only man he ever "served." In the writer one discerns great daring, and many crudely noble impulses in combination with a wayward, irresponsible, passionate, and thoroughly insubordinate spirit, except in presence of men whom he felt to be really superior to himself in nature and genius; and, it must be added, the man is always a melodramatic poser in his own imagination, with not a little of the mien and temperament of "Lara," whose real and imagined self perhaps were most nearly at one when he held the Cave of Odysseus with such resolute pluck in the Greek war. The friendship of such a man for Shelley is one of those marvellous encounters of the unlike which do the highest honor to both.

The Wine-Ghosts of Bremen. By Wilhelm Hauff. Illustrated by Frank M. Gregory. White & Allen. 1889.

HAUFF'S whimsical 'Phantasien im Bremer Rathskeller,' here for the first time presented in English dress, appears under favorable auspices as an æsthetic book printed by De Vinne in a limited edition of 500 copies. The translators are two Englishmen, Messrs. Sadler and Fletcher, who in a lengthy preface commend their original as "Hauff's acknowledged masterpiece," and as "a good German story about *strong drink*." They deprecate being thought of as "a pair of ultra-Pickwickian topers," they are "quite aware that there are to be no more cakes and ale"; but they are "a little sorry for it, that is all." We should think, however, that the *best* recommendation of a good German story upon the æsthetics of wine-bibbing would have been to make a good translation of it. This, we regret to say, has not been done. The translation is a jaunty paraphrase of the original; words, phrases, and even sentences being freely omitted or inserted at the caprice of the translators. The local color of the German is ruthlessly destroyed, or Anglicized into something worse than destruction. The result is a book which goes under Hauff's name, but does not sound like Hauff, and is not Hauff's except in a kind of conventional sense.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Japanese Boy. By Himself. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Atherton, Gertrude T. Los Cerritos: A Tale of the Modern Time. John W. Lovell Co.
Bates, Katherine L. Ballad Book. Boston: Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.
Böhm-Bawerk, Prof. E. Capital and Interest. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Darnell, H. F. The Craze of Christian Engelhart. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
Ellis, H. The Criminal. Scribner & Welford. $1.25.
Gregg, L. The Prophet of Palmyra: Mormonism Reviewed. John B. Alden. $1.
Logan, A. S. Messalina: A Tragedy in Five Acts. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.

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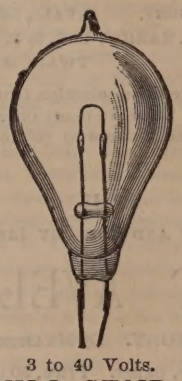

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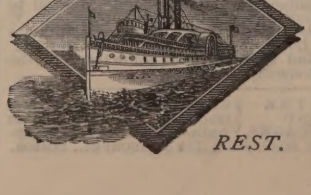

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 12, 1890.

The Week.

THE Silver Bill which was forced through the House on Saturday calls for an appropriation of $54,000,000 per annum from the Treasury as a starting point. How much of the resulting currency (Treasury notes and silver dollars) the public may buy and permanently use, we cannot know beforehand. Whatever amount is thus bought the Treasury will be reimbursed for. The balance will be an expenditure and a drain upon the Secretary's gold balance. The bill is very crooked in its details, but it comes to this, that if the Secretary can arrange with somebody, or some bank, to present the new Treasury notes at the Treasury and demand bullion for them, he can keep down his expenditure for bullion, but if he cannot do this, the notes will be tendered for taxes and duties. The revenue of the Government will be composed in a larger and larger degree of silver. The Secretary will continue to pay out gold or gold value as long as possible. As long as his revenues exceed his expenditures of all kinds, including his expenditures for silver bullion, he can maintain gold payments. Whenever the balance turns the other way, he will be obliged to pay silver. Then we shall be on the silver standard, and every man's money will be worth something less that it was before. There is evidently an expectation that the Secretary will be able to guard his gold balance by means of the clause authorizing him to turn over the bullion he has bought to the holders of the Treasury notes, but it is doubtful if he can do so.

Since the new rules were adopted in the House, the caucus, the lash, and the gag have been substituted for debate and deliberation to a rather alarming extent. If things go on as they are now going, there will soon be no House of Representatives left, but merely a Speaker, a caucus, and a few chairmen of committees. All bills will be passed by "counting a quorum," the minority sitting speechless and voteless. The good understanding which goes so far to make representative institutions workable, will be gone—if indeed it is not already gone. It is best, we think, that Speaker Reed's system should be carried out, so that all parties may know what of good or evil there is in it. The next measure to come before the caucus will be the Federal Election Law, and the next after that will be perhaps the Pacific Railroad Funding Bill. Each time that the lash and the gag are applied there will be a residuum of discontent in the ranks of the majority. When this residuum becomes sufficiently large and sufficiently exasperated, the caucus yoke will be thrown off, or the people may at the coming election throw out the lashers and gaggers at one bounce. This is the result most likely to follow.

One of the saddest spectacles at Washington, we are told, is that of Congressman Farquhar bewailing the tax on barley in the McKinley Tariff Bill. About ten million bushels of barley are imported from Canada yearly, principally through the ports of Buffalo and Oswego, at a duty of ten cents per bushel. A large and varied industry in malting, warehousing, and brewing has grown up, of which Canadian barley is the raw material. The McKinley bill raises the duty to 30 cents per bushel, and will, if adopted, annihilate those industries, so the people engaged in the handling of Canadian barley say. Very likely Congressman Farquhar would be annihilated by the same blow. He has been a cantankerous supporter of high tariffs. No duty was ever too heavy for him to swallow until barley was reached. In the last Congress he signalized himself by supporting a duty of 2 1-10 cents per pound on tin plate. We do not see why he should be cast down now, seeing that he has got what he wanted on tin plate, even if he has got a little more than he wanted on barley.

A letter from Philadelphia to the *Dry Goods Economist* a few days ago mentioned the fact that the price of pearl buttons had already advanced, in anticipation of the passage of the McKinley bill, from 40 cents to 60 cents per gross. It added that "the cheapest pearl button now costs, landed, 17 cents per gross, whereas the duty alone which these will have to pay will be 36 cents per gross. In the higher grades the advance will be proportionately less, but in lower qualities it is most serious and is already showing its effects here in demoralizing trade." Some further information was contributed by Mr. G. Blumenthal to the Senate Finance Committee the other day. He showed, by exhibiting a shell, the various grades of pearl buttons made from one and the same shell, the very finest of which would pay at the new proposed rate 106 per cent. for a twenty-line button, and in the cheapest grade 500 per cent., or an average for the six grades as now imported, made from the same shell, of 250 per cent. for a twenty-line button; but as there are a great many more imported of the three cheaper than of the three better grades, the average on importations as they take place to-day would amount to over 350 per cent. Besides this, there are cheaper grades of shell, and he showed samples whereof a button that is imported by the thousands of gross every week would pay an ad-valorem duty from eighteen to twenty-four line of 640 per cent. In reply to a question by Senator Voorhees, he said that the cheapest grades are principally used by the large manufacturers of shirts, underwear, etc., and he showed the Committee a sample of a button which is used by the tens of thousands of gross by shirt-manufacturers, and which would pay at the new rate an ad-valorem duty of 571 per cent. In conclusion he created quite a stir among the Senators by giving the facts as to a small invoice of pearl and other buttons which arrived by steamship *Eider*, June 3, and which were entered at the New York Custom-house on the following day. This invoice, showing a market value of $1,600.80, paid a duty at 25 per cent. of $400.20. At the new rate of duty as proposed in the McKinley bill this same invoice would pay $5,187.60.

Mr. Whitman's Wool-Manufacturers' Association had a hasty meeting in Boston on Thursday, and passed a resolution urgently recommending to the Finance Committee of the Senate an amendment to the McKinley bill so as to make all yarns and cloths of woollen or worsted dutiable at a uniform rate, and of course at the highest rate—the bill as passed by the House having fixed one rate for goods valued at thirty cents per pound or less, and another and higher rate for those valued at a higher figure. The Boston *Journal of Commerce* says that there was "a tacit understanding" between the Committee of Ways and Means that there should be no dividing line, but that all kinds of goods should be taxed at the same rate without regard to value, but that "some not very creditable work was done on these sections of the bill by the Committee on Ways and Means, through the influence of the New England member of it, much to his reproach." This is rough on Gov. Dingley, but the *Journal* makes it even rougher by adding that the dividing line was inserted, "*somewhat clandestinely*," for the presumed purpose of reconciling the minority of the Committee to the general tenor of the tariff on these classes of wool manufacture. "Attempts were made to rectify these errors, though but partially, when the bill was up before the House, but they signally failed, much to the condemnation of the influence that occasioned their introduction." This reveals the meaning of the two votes in the House on the woollen schedule in which the Committee of Ways and Means were beaten. They had made a concession to the poorer classes of the community by putting a lower rate of duty on the cheaper goods, and they tried to withdraw their concession, but the House would not let them do so. Hence the hasty meeting and action of Mr. Whitman's Association.

The circular of the Wool-Consumers' Association asking the coöperation of all manufacturers and dealers in wool in a suitable protest against any increase in the present duties on wool, and in favor of a reduction of the same, is signed by eighteen large manufacturing companies and firms in New England. The objects of the Association are much broader, however, than any consideration of the McKinley bill. They go beyond the present Congress altogether, and look to the eventual

abolition of all duties on raw materials. The signers of the circular know, of course, what this means. It means the eventual abolition of protective duties on woollen goods also, and for this they are prepared. They do not say that they are ready to enter into competition with the manufacturers of all nations, but this is what they have in mind. They have counted the cost, and arrived at the conclusion that there is more solid prosperity for them in a tariff for revenue only than in any tariff for protection that they can ever expect to see enacted and maintained in this country. The formation of the Wool-Consumers' Association splits the Wool-Manufacturers' Association, of which Mr. William Whitman is President, into two parts, and weakens the latter by so much.

The organ of the American Protective Tariff League, in its issue of May 30, advances a queer argument for a duty on imported hides. It is that such a duty "would directly and immediately benefit the farmer and stock-raiser throughout the nation," and *also* that it would give the State Department at Washington something to trade on in the way of reciprocity with South America. In other words, it would be a good thing to put the duty on for the benefit of the farmer, and then to take it off for the benefit of somebody else. This clever device is accompanied by the following statement:

> "Semi-officially we can state that Secretary Blaine has now taken this position and recommends an import duty on hides."

It is not stated that Secretary Blaine has taken both positions—the farmer position and the something-to-trade-on position—but in his younger days, when he was doing business with Warren Fisher, jr., his agility would have been equal to both.

Retaliation against the McKinley bill has found a voice in France in the adoption of prohibitory duties on Indian corn, and now a report comes from Mexico that an export duty will be levied on silver-lead ore in order to supplement the effect of the Treasury regulations which have interfered with that growing and profitable traffic along our southern border. The more we have of this mutual crippling of trade the better. There is a wide scope for usefulness in the McKinley bill. It would be a good thing if Canada, in retaliation for the trebling of our duty on barley, would treble her own duty on corn, of which we sell her 8,000,000 to 10,000,000 bushels annually, or about the same quantity as the barley we buy from her. The eyes of a good many people would be opened by this process of getting rich by taxation and mutual scarcity. We should not wonder if Senator Hiscock as well as Congressman Farquhar might learn something eventually by means of the tax on barley.

The action of the Farmers' Alliance Convention at Huron, South Dakota, last week, deserves the attention of the country as a sign of the drift of sentiment among the agricultural population at the West. Although no mention of politics was made in the call for the meeting, it was decided, by a vote of 413 to 83, to organize a new party, and a convention to nominate a full ticket for the fall campaign was called to meet early in July. The organization is to be called the Independent party, and one of its principles is that "our tariff laws should be so changed as to reduce the present rate, taxing luxuries the highest, putting on the free list all articles of prime necessity and raw materials which enter into manufactures, raising only sufficient revenue for the needs of economic government."

The Indiana Service-Pension Association held a largely attended meeting on June 2, and passed resolutions insisting upon the immediate passage of a service-pension law, and declaring that no one should receive the support of soldiers for any office who is opposed to "*our just demands.*" This is the depth to which the patriotism of 1861 has sunk in 1890—a "*demand*" for a pension to every one who entered the army—good, bad, or indifferent; volunteer, drafted, or bounty-jumper; well or ill; rich or poor; the broken-down and penniless veteran now just turning seventy, who served four years at the front, or the millionaire business man in the prime of middle life, who spent 100 days in a recruiting camp during the last months of the war. And this insolent "*demand*" is coupled with a threat of vengeance against any aspirant for office who has the manhood to resist it. It is a melancholy spectacle.

John Dean was mustered into the service of the United States February 25, 1863, but never got any nearer the seat of war than Staten Island. While in camp there he contracted a shameful disease, on account of which he went to the hospital and never rejoined his regiment. On the 7th of April, 1864, he was discharged from the service for disability, the surgeon of volunteers in charge of the hospital certifying that he had lost his eyesight through this disease, and taking the precaution to add to his official record, "Not a case for pension." In 1877 this rascal had the impudence to apply for a pension, on the pretence that his misfortune was due to disease contracted in the service, but the Board of Surgeons who examined him in June, 1878, made short work of his case. Ten years more having passed, and his impudence having grown with his years, he applied to Congress for the special mark of honor implied in the passage of a private pension bill for his especial benefit, and such a bill was rushed through both houses. President Cleveland, however, interfered with his veto, and saved the honorable men on the pension roll from the shame of having such a person in their company. A few months later a new President came in, the bill was again passed, and the *Congressional Record* of June 3 announced that Benjamin Harrison, who was evidently familiar with all the facts in this history, had allowed the bill granting a pension to John Dean to become a law without his signature!

The Brooklyn Post-office is the most important Federal office in the third city of the country. Until four years ago it had been conducted as a part of the political Machine. During the latter portion of the period the eleemosynary principle was also recognized in filling the place, the office being given to a man who did not possess the first qualification for it, on the ground that he was a wounded soldier and poor. Having waited more than a year after his inauguration for the term of the incumbent to expire, Mr. Cleveland, in the summer of 1886, appointed as his successor Joseph C. Hendrix, a man of newspaper training and executive capacity. Mr. Hendrix was a Democrat in politics, but no resident of Brooklyn would ever have had any intimation as to his political views from anything in his administration. He simply put the office upon a business basis, and kept it there. All his energies were devoted to the effort to give Brooklyn the best possible postal service which the facilities at his command would permit. Three months had not passed before the whole community recognized the effects of the change, and each year has made the citizens more grateful for the good fortune of Mr. Hendrix's selection. Mr. Wanamaker has repeatedly alluded to him as "the model Postmaster of the United States."

Yet this "model Postmaster" has just been discharged by his employer. Worse still, the place has been given to a man who knows absolutely nothing about the postal service, a stonecutter by trade, who has built up a business which takes all his time. Worst of all, the place is given to this man, not because anything in his record indicates that he will make a good Postmaster, but solely because he is a prominent Republican politician, who has been twice defeated for Mayor, and who therefore ought to be "recognized." Except for his prominence in politics, nobody would ever have thought of picking him out as the man to keep the Brooklyn Post-office in its present condition as the best in the country. In other words, "the essential and discriminating test" in his selection has been "party service," as distinguished from "fitness," in the pledge given by Benjamin Harrison to the people of Brooklyn two years ago, when he promised them that "in appointments to every grade and department fitness, and not party service, should be the essential and discriminating test."

President Harrison deserves and will receive the commendation of independent-minded men for his veto of the bill providing for the erection of a public building at Hudson, N. Y., a city of only about 10,000 people, with gross postal receipts of less than $15,000 a year, which show but a slight increase during the past decade, on the ground that it is "very clear that the public needs do not suggest nor justify such an expenditure as is contemplated by this bill." Inde-

pendent-minded men commended President Cleveland for similar use of the veto power. A good many Republican organs then condemned it as "picayunish business." Doubtless they will see the matter in a different light now.

It is most unfortunate that suspicion should be cast upon the census in the South by the very methods adopted for taking it, but such is the case. Here are two illustrations of the methods adopted: W. E. Webb was appointed one of the Supervisors in North Carolina, after having signed this agreement: "This is to certify that if I am appointed a Supervisor of the Eleventh Census for the Fourth District of North Carolina, the Republicans of each county in my district shall have the control of the patronage, and that I will lend my influence to that party." The agreement is in the possession of the editor of a negro paper, who publishes it to show that Webb "has gone back on his pledges," inasmuch as he has not confined his appointments of enumerators to Republicans. Lafourche Parish, in Louisiana, had 11,282 whites to 7,806 blacks by the last census, and twelve enumerators were appointed to take the census this year. If they were to be divided between the two races in proportion to their numbers, seven would be whites and five blacks. In point of fact, only three whites were appointed out of the whole twelve, and, to make matters worse, the reputation of some of the nine negroes is represented to be bad. This is not the way in which a man who wanted simply to get an accurate census would go to work.

One of the best features of the Lake Mohonk Conference on the negro question has been the frank confession by Northern speakers that the prejudice against the negro is still very strong at the North. President McGill of Swarthmore College, for example, pointed out that in Philadelphia a negro is allowed to carry mortar up a ladder, but is not allowed to lay bricks; while if he should undertake to drive a horse-car, he would be mobbed. Another speaker told how a young colored man, who had a genius for mechanics, once came to him from the South, and he endeavord in vain to get him a place in a machine-shop, either in Pennsylvania or Massachusetts. The negro in question, he added, is now living in France, and not unnaturally hates the United States as the devil hates holy water. And yet people in Massachusetts and Pennsylvania profess to wonder that the whites in Southern States object to the appointment of negroes as postmasters!

The result of the Oregon election is a splendid tribute to the personal popularity of Sylvester Pennoyer, the present Governor and Democratic candidate for reëlection, who has a majority of about 3,500, although the Republicans swept the State on national issues, and Binger Hermann, the present Congressman, and Republican candidate for reëlection, has about 9,000 majority. It is very rarely the case that so remarkable a divergence is shown in the totals for two offices filled at the same time. On national issues Oregon appears to be safely Republican, the growth of population during the past ten years having helped that party, which in 1880 gave Garfield only 764 more votes than Hancock received.

Republican organs in Western Prohibition States, where "original-package" saloons have been started, talk about the restoration of liquor-selling "by the order of Chief-Justice Fuller." But Chief-Justice Fuller and the other two Democrats on the bench of the Supreme Court could not issue an order which would have any effect. The Supreme Court has nine members, of whom six are Republicans. The "solid Democratic vote" is therefore two short of a majority. What gave effect to the opinion held by Fuller, Field, and Lamar was the fact that it was shared by more than enough of their Republican associates to make a majority on that side. The "original-package" saloons in Iowa and Kansas are running by the order of Justices Miller, Bradley, and Blatchford just as much as by the order of Chief-Justice Fuller and Justices Field and Lamar.

France and England have got into a little trouble over fishing rights on the coast of Newfoundland, reserved, or rather defined anew, by the treaty of 1783, for they were originally reserved by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713. The former treaty gave the French exclusive fishing rights on the western and northern side of the island, and they have ever since exercised them. These rights to fish include the right to land and dry the fish, "without interruption by the competition of the British." The immediate effect of this has, of course, been to exclude about seven hundred miles of coast from settlement by the native population and by immigrants, and the practical result of this prohibition has been to cut off a large portion of the interior from settlement also, because people will not settle in the interior when they have no access to the coast. This is the first grievance of the Newfoundlanders. The second is like unto it. They say that as a matter of fact the French have for a long time past been caring less and less for these shore fisheries, and have had fewer ships and men engaged in them, having been drawn off from them by the fisheries on the Banks, which are much more profitable; and that instead of fishing for cod, which is what the treaty meant them to do, they have established lobster-canning factories along the shore, carried on by speculators who have no connection with fish, beyond buying the lobsters caught by the natives. The Newfoundlanders maintain that the treaty gives no right to set up an industry of this sort, and they demand of the home Government that, as this lobster-canning is illegal, and as the fishery rights are now almost worthless to the French, all their rights under the treaty shall be bought, and the full possession of the island be restored to the colony.

The attention of France has been called to the few bits of territory which she still retains in the New World more within the last twenty years than ever before since the loss of Canada. The humiliation of the war of 1870, the new-born desire for colonies, the rapid multiplication of the French Canadians and their growing hostility to the British connection, have combined to rouse in France a strong interest in the Newfoundland question and a strong desire to "make capital out of it." The British Government is much worried by it. The colonists in Newfoundland of both parties are urging them to do something about it, but Lord Salisbury clearly shrinks from any vigorous attempt to deal with it, because he foresees that any concessions France may be willing to make would have to be purchased at a very high price. It is fully expected that part of this price would be the British evacuation of Egypt, or the cession of Gambia on the African coast, neither of which a Tory Ministry, with so much Jingo feeling behind it, would venture to make. British investments in Egyptian stocks and bonds are now so heavy that he would be a bold Minister who should venture to talk to the moneyed men in the city of the withdrawal of the British troops from Egypt. And yet there is hardly a doubt that the French Ministry will not venture to face their public with a surrender of French rights beyond the Atlantic without getting something handsome in return—that is, something that will gratify the national pride.

President Carnot has done a very sensible thing in releasing the young Duc d'Orléans from confinement and sending him across the frontier. This is what ought to have been done with him in the first instance. He never was, and can hardly ever become, a danger to the republic. The hereditary principle is as dead in France as the divine right of kings. It is so dead that it is the unanimous testimony of competent observers that very few of the rural population know who the Duc d'Orléans, or his father, the Comte de Paris, is, or why he claims the throne. What has taken the place of the hereditary tradition, in so far as its place has been taken by anything, in the French popular mind, is the Cæsarist tradition, started by the first Napoleon. The danger to the Republic lies now in the readiness of the French people in times of trouble for a military dictator—that is, for the rule of the successful soldier—and it does not care in the least whose son he is. Boulanger's career showed clearly what the Republic has to fear in the matter of competitors. The heir to the old French throne is just now, perhaps, more harmless than ever, owing to the great mistake of the Comte de Paris in allying himself with Boulanger. As far as its effect on the minds of the more intelligent Republicans goes, it was a mistake hardly less calamitous to the Royalist cause than the service of the émigrés in 1792 in the invading army of the Duke of Brunswick.

SENATOR SHERMAN'S SPEECH.

SENATOR SHERMAN'S speech on the silver question on Thursday last contained a great deal of truth very strongly put, and no more error than was deemed necessary to float the whole. It was in large part a reply to Senator Stewart's charge that the dropping of the silver dollar from the coinage, in the Act of 1873, was procured by stealth and fraud, in which Senator Sherman, as Chairman of the Finance Committee, had borne a large part. The facts having been repeatedly published in our columns, we need not now recall them. But there were two facts brought out by Mr. Sherman that have considerable personal interest, and which we had never heard of before. One is that Mr. Sherman himself voted *against* the Coinage Act of 1873, and the other is that Mr. Stewart of Nevada, and every other Pacific Coast Senator, both Republican and Democratic, voted *for* it. The reason why Mr. Sherman voted against it had no reference to or bearing upon the silver dollar, for as to that particular question all members in both branches of Congress were agreed. He voted against it because an amendment had been inserted abolishing all mint charges for assaying and coining, *i. e.*, making the Government work for nothing for the benefit of the gold-miners of the whole world. This he considered such a deviation from custom, precedent, and right principle that he thought the benefits of the other parts of the bill were more than offset by this bad feature.

The result of the personal bout was that Stewart was dragged around the Senate Chamber at the tail of Sherman's chariot several times, and finally left there, a bruised and mangled corse. With his last gasp he tried to show that there had been a mistake made at the clerk's desk while the bill of 1873 was under consideration, but here also Mr. Sherman proved that he was in error by producing the original copy, with the clerk's marks on it in his own handwriting. Every point sought to be made by Stewart on this branch of the subject was answered by Mr. Sherman with overwhelming proofs, except one. That one was the stale falsehood repeated by Stewart, that the late Ernest Seyd came to this country in 1873 or thereabouts to work in the interest of the "gold-bugs" of Europe to get the United States to demonetize silver—the fact being that Mr. Seyd was an industrious writer and advocate of bimetallism. He was what we should now call a strong silver-man. He wrote frequently for the newspapers on that side of the question, and never on the other side. He left a brochure of 112 pages, entitled 'The Fall in the Price of Silver, Its Causes, Its Consequences, and Their Possible Avoidance,' published in 1876, *i. e.*, two years before our present Silver Coinage Law was passed. If he had any influence at all on our legislation, it must have been in favor of silver and not against it. Yet every time the silver question comes up for debate some ignoramus or falsifier trots out Ernest Seyd as a monometallist sneak from Europe, sent over here to disparage silver and get it demonetized.

Aside from his controversy with Stewart, Mr. Sherman's argument consisted of two parts, one showing that the increase of the circulating medium in this country during the past twelve years (1878 to 1889 inclusive) had been more rapid than the increase of population; the other showing "how to increase, if possible, the market value of silver in its legal ratio to gold." The former proposition was established to the satisfaction of every lover of truth. It was proved by official statistics that the circulating medium of all kinds in 1878 was $805,793,807, and that in 1889 it was $1,405,018,000, an increase of upwards of $600,000,000, all of it at par with gold, and all of it consequently at the highest state of efficiency for commercial purposes. Not only so, but the banking facilities by which the wholesale business of the country and a large share of the retail business in cities is transacted, have been increasing in equal measure. Nobody can prove, or give plausible grounds for supposing, that any kind of business has suffered for the want of currency, or that any more could have been used advantageously. Mr. Sherman did not say that if more could have been used advantageously, we should have drawn it from the world's stock of gold, just as other countries do under like circumstances. Perhaps he thought that this was more than the public would swallow at present; and in fact it would not have fitted in very well with some things that he said when he came to the second head of his discourse.

His second proposition was that something more ought to be done to keep the circulation expanding, and at the same time to "boost" silver if practicable. Upon the latter point he said:

> "Now, sir, I am willing to do all I can with safety, even to taking great risks, to increase the value of silver to gold at the old ratio, and to supply paper substitutes for both for circulation; but there is one immutable, unchangeable, ever-existing condition, that the paper substitute must always have the same purchasing power as gold and silver coin, maintained at their legal ratio with each other. I feel a conviction, as strong as the human mind can have, that the free coinage of silver now by the United States will be a grave mistake and a misfortune to all classes and conditions of our fellow-citizens. I also have a hope and belief, but far from a certainty, that the measure proposed for the purchase of silver bullion to a limited amount, and the issue of Treasury notes for it, will bring silver and gold to the old ratio, and will lead to an agreement with other commercial nations to maintain the free coinage of both metals.
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> "And now, sir, I want to state in conclusion, without any purpose to bind myself to detail, that I will vote for any measure that will, in my judgment, secure a genuine bimetallic standard—one that will not demonetize gold or cause it to be hoarded or exported, but will establish both silver and gold as common standards and maintain them at a fixed ratio, not only in the United States, but among all the nations of the world."

He went on to say that he would receive into the Treasury all the gold and silver produced in the United States at its market value, and would issue Treasury notes for these metals to an amount not exceeding their cost, and confer upon such Treasury notes all the qualities and attributes that are within the constitutional power of Congress. He would also "support and maintain them as money by coining the silver and gold as needed upon the present legal ratios, and by a pledge of all the revenues of the Government and all the wealth and credit of the United States." There is a good deal of confusion in this statement, but it is not a confusion in the Senator's own mind. He knows perfectly well that there is no market value for gold, since that is the index of market value for everything else. He knows, also, that our Treasury does now receive all the gold that anybody chooses to offer, whether produced in this country or not. Therefore, when he made this offer respecting the gold and silver produced in this country, he intended to give an impression of extreme liberality and impartiality. What he said on this point should be read as referring to silver only. Pledging all the revenues and wealth and credit of the United States to support and maintain gold and silver coin means nothing as to gold, because gold redeems itself; but it means much as to silver. It means that Mr. Sherman would pledge the Government to redeem all its silver coin in gold at the legal ratio. This is a pledge which the Government has never yet made, although it has, up to this time, performed the duty without making the pledge.

In spite of these Shermanesque drawbacks, the speech is by much the best that has been delivered in either branch of Congress on the subject.

HIGH LICENSE IN MASSACHUSETTS.

MASSACHUSETTS has now tried its High-License Law for a year, and instead of finding in it a solution of the "temperance question," is even deeper in the mire of intemperance. The operation of the new law has been attended by such an increase in the arrests for drunkenness that the party of moral ideas which was responsible for its enactment has been at its wits' end to know how to appease the increasing clamor of its temperance members, and at the same time retain the allegiance of its new allies, the liquor-dealers. A year ago the Republican managers were rubbing their hands at their successful management. Their reputation for favoring morality was to be maintained by an increase of the minimum of the license fee to $1,000, the small liquor-dealers and their political "influence" (generally Democratic) were to be cut off by the law limiting the number of licensed places to one for each thousand of the population, and the more influential men were to be managed for the good of the party. The Prohibitionists were supposed to be silenced by the vote on the constitutional amendment. The people were duly impressed with the efforts of their legislators, and, at the annual elections under the Local-Option Law, eighteen of the twenty-five cities voted in favor of license by large majorities.

The licensing boards fixed the fee in many cases far above the statutory minimum. In Boston the law allowed one licensed place to each 500 people, but, even so, the number of places was reduced from 1,588 to 780, paying fees ranging from $1,000 to $1,500. In Lowell, where the large population of

foreign-born mill-operatives makes the liquor question one of peculiar difficulty, the number was reduced from 198 to 64, while the fee was increased from $500 to $1,300. In Fall River, the rival of Lowell as a mill city, 260 licensed places gave way to 56, and the license fee, formerly $400, ranged from $1,300 to $1,800, nearly one-third of the saloons paying the latter fee. In general, throughout the State, the license fees were increased from two to four times their former amount, while the number of saloons was about one-third of the number licensed the previous year.

With this great blow at the liquor traffic, the people of the commonwealth settled themselves for an era of quiet and sobriety. As soon, however, as the new system was fairly inaugurated, the arrests for drunkenness and disturbance began to increase. In Boston the month of June showed 2,239 arrests for drunkenness, as against 1,680 in the same month the previous year, and the whole summer showed an increase of nearly a thousand arrests over the previous year, with a marked increase also in disturbance. In Fall River, June showed a jump from 90 to 125 in the arrests for drunkenness over 1888. In Lowell the effect was more immediate, and in May the arrests for this cause were 315, as against 246 in the year before. This carnival of drunkenness went on in other cities also, and the report of the Prison Commission for the year, five months of which had been under high license, showed an increase of arrests for drunkenness throughout the State of 5,005, 90 per cent. of which was in the cities. No statistics, however, were needed to bring this state of things to the attention of order-loving citizens; it was too apparent, and the voters expressed their views at the next annual vote on the license question. Lowell, which the year before had given a majority of 2,600 in favor of license, voted against license for the first time in its history by the decisive majority of 700; and finds in May of this year 172 arrests for drunkenness, as against 315 under high license. Fall River changed its majority of 1,800 for license in 1888 into a majority of 1,400 for prohibition in 1889. Worcester also added itself to the list of cities declaring in favor of prohibition, so that this year twelve cities have declared in favor of it, and the remaining thirteen have retained the license system by largely reduced majorities. The cities thus newly converted to prohibition gave heavy majorities against the prohibitory amendment to the Constitution some six months previously, and are generally so removed from any neighboring basis of supply as virtually to declare for prohibition in preference to the kind of high license provided by the Republican Legislature.

The responsibility for this failure of a system that has produced such good results elsewhere lies largely with the Republican politicians. Accustomed for years to tickling the moral ideas of the party by annually "tinkering the liquor law" in a few minor particulars, they were finally forced by public sentiment to the important step of adopting high license. Instead, however, of studying the laws of other States and drawing a comprehensive and consistent act, they continued the tinkering process by adding to the existing patchwork of statutes two acts of a few lines each, one limiting the number of licenses and the other increasing the license fee. They took no steps towards taking the licensing power from boards open to political influences; they made no change in the character of the bonds given by liquor-dealers or the old practice of allowing wholesale dealers to become bondsmen for hundreds of their creatures; in short, they did nothing to indicate that they had in any way changed their policy of "more law and less enforcement." The liquor-dealers, who had long and openly defied the restrictive features of the law with impunity, reasoned that if the new law forced them to pay more for their privileges, they should be entitled to take every advantage of the monopoly granted them to recompense themselves. They therefore seemed to feel that it was a business necessity to ply each customer with liquor to the extent of his purse, regardless of his condition. The bartenders thrown out of employment by the decrease in the number of saloons were soon found behind the new bars in the lucky places kept crowded to the doors. In Lynn, the City Marshal, in his annual report, frankly states that liquor-dealers have constantly violated the law against the sale of liquor to intoxicated persons, and naïvely expresses his hearty contempt for such persons. In Fall River it was openly charged that four wholesale dealers controlled the licensing body, and not only parcelled out the licenses among their creatures, but caused licenses to be issued in excess of the statutory limit. Ninety-one applications for licenses in Lynn were said to come from the creatures of two brewers.

The Republican politicians had won their game, however. In Boston the control of the police had been taken from the city and given to a commission appointed by the Governor. These commissioners, men noted for their political shrewdness, saw their opportunity, and made, it is alleged, a judicious distribution of the licenses for the good of the party, and allowed such latitude to the saloons that the arrests for drunkenness increased by two thousand during the year. The fortunate licensees were not slow to see the value of this sort of monopoly, and promptly made their bid for its continuance. The party of moral ideas woke up to find that its candidate for Governor, who was greatly distasteful to the temperance wing of the party, had been elected by a small majority, and that majority made up largely of liquor-dealers and their followings. The opponents of the saloon then took another tack, and, abandoning the hope of reform from high license, made a move in Boston to secure the enforcement of a law against public bars that had lain unenforced on the statute-books since its enactment fifteen years ago. The movement was too strong to be ignored, and the Police Commission in reply promptly appealed to the Legislature for the repeal of the law. This was refused a few weeks ago in a show of virtue, but the Republican leaders were discomfited by the passage of a resolution through both houses at the instance of the Democratic minority calling for a strict enforcement of the law. The Commissioners, however, were equal to the occasion, and construed the law to mean that the licensee must substitute tables for his bar, quietly ignoring the intent of the statute, which, as had been carefully explained by the Governor in his inaugural address, limits the sale of liquor to persons ordering meals at restaurants or hotels. Matters are thus left much as they were before, and the politicians have again outgeneralled the reformers, having declared loudly for temperance and yet left a large loophole for "deals" next fall.

AN INSIDE VIEW OF COMMERCIAL JOURNALISM.

A FEW weeks ago the *Voice*, the well-known Prohibition newspaper of this city, hit upon an ingenious scheme for testing the market value of the principles of the press of Nebraska. It sent to the publisher of every newspaper in the State the following circular letter, purporting to come from an advertising agent in Louisville, Kentucky:

"Please give me price per inch of inserting matter similar to the enclosed clippings, *first in ordinary news column, in news type, without any advertising marks, and secondly on editorial page as editorial matter without advertising marks.* If you make an attractive price on this business it is probable that I could close contract at once for as much as 100 inches, space to be used in one month, cash to accompany order."

The clippings enclosed were a collection of alleged statistics showing that the "prohibition States actually have more liquor-dealers than most of the non-prohibition States," and were so obviously designed to help the cause of liquor-dealers that the most careless reader could not fail to attribute their origin to liquor-dealing sources. The circular was sent out early in May, and the *Voice* has received over fifty responses, many of which it has published, and all of which are more or less astonishing. Not a newspaper in the State, from the best to the poorest, has declined to print the clippings as "reading notices" at varying prices per line, and only a very few have declined to print them as editorial matter.

No more instructive view of the inside of purely commercial journalism has been furnished for a long time than these letters from Nebraska publishers afford. One of the frankest of the collection is the following:

THE BEACON.
W. H. CARSON, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.
GIBBON, Neb., May 12, 1890.

Charles Turner, Louisville, Ky.:

DEAR SIR: In reply to yours of 5th inst. will say that I can give you news matter for 50 cents per inch. Editorial matter (copy to be furnished by you) for 75 cents per inch. *The Beacon is at the present writing the only paper who has not taken a start on the question, and is not going to do much unless there is something in it. We run our paper for revenue. Personally we are for high-license and against prohibition;* are publishing a paper in a prohibition city surrounded by a prohib. community, and *do not propose to cut our throat for nothing.*

Yours for Business,
W. H. CARSON.

This is one of the highest-priced editors in the list, but seventy-five cents per inch for "editorial matter (copy to be furnished by you)" does not seem to be too high for what Mr. Carson is willing to put forth as his "views" in a community so likely to cut his throat for uttering them. The publishers of the Tecumseh *Republican* are less reasonable, but, as the following extract from their letter shows, they have the "largest circulation in the county," and a slightly more sympathetic constituency :

"Your proposition for advertising matter received. In reply would say that we will give you 100 inches for $1 per inch each insertion, with the understanding that we are to have 400 inches more at the same rate between now and the election on the Prohibition Amendment.

"The price given may seem a little high, but when it is considered that we have the largest circulation of any paper in the county, it will not seem so.

"Another fact that must not be overlooked is, that we are sure to lose a large number of subscribers, and everyone counts $1.50 off of our exchequer.

"We can refer you to James Devenney or R. M. Frost as to the standing of our paper. *They are both saloon-keepers, and vitally interested in the defeat of the Prohibition amendment.*

"*The price mentioned is for the matter to be set in ordinary type in news columns without any advertising marks whatever. We will tend to the editorial part of it and agree not to support the Prohibition amendment.* What we say, and it will be no small amount, will be done free and separate from the proposition mentioned."

This remarkable reference to liquor-dealers as suitable persons to vouch for the "standing of our paper" appears in more than one instance. The editor of the South Sioux City *Sun*, W. C. Fairbrother, who says, "We claim to be the largest and most influential paper in northeast Nebraska, and to have the largest circulation," refers to several liquor-dealers "by permission," two of whom have been implicated in a murder case. Mr. Fairbrother says his prices are 10 cents per line for local columns and 20 cents for editorial, and advises quick acceptance of them as he has offered his columns on the same terms to the Prohibition League, and is expecting to hear from the latter at any moment. "We would prefer," he says, "to close a deal with you instead of the opposition," and, "should we make a deal with you, we will guarantee to give you good service for the money, and will help you in the fight in every way we can, both by pen and outside influences." There is evidently no high moral nonsense about Mr. Fairbrother. For twenty cents a line what he offers is surely dirt cheap.

Mr. W. E. Duncan, editor and proprietor of the *Madison County Reporter*, with the "confidence of the people of this county, and double the circulation of any other paper in this county, as well as a rapid increase daily," makes the extremely handsome offer to sell out for the minimum price of $100. He says he has been very conservative on the question, and it might injure his business to come out against prohibition, adding :

"I would not like to open up for less than a hundred dollars' worth of business or more. I will ad one hundred inches of my own production in addition to what is recd. from you. While you may furnish Statistical matter I might be able to ad other arguments in other matters pertaining to this Question which will be quite necessary. The prohibitionest are now organizing camp-meeting orginizations for almost every township in the State, and will camp on the ground and are pressing every county paper for recognition. If 200 inches for 100.00 is sadesfactory let me know at once, or if you have a more liberal proposition let me know I will furnish 100 inches of my own production on the same subject."

We should say that "100 inches of my own production" at a dollar an inch, thrown in gratis, was all that any reasonable man could ask for. Few of the other editors addressed offer as much, many of them sending plain, cold business statements of their prices. Thus, the editor and proprietor of the *Nonpareil-Democrat*, of Hartington, says his editorial-page price is 15 cents per inch for single column, and 10 cents per inch for 100 or more inches, "cash accompanying the order." The editor of the Geneva *Democrat* says: "You can have my news columns at 50 cents per inch and editorials at 70 cents per inch. These are my regular prices to everybody. Circulation much greater than given in the directories." There are no words wasted in that reply. The editor of the Atkinson *Graphic* is even more terse, as well as cheaper, saying in tabulated form that he is for sale as follows:

"As news matter	15c
As Editorial	25c

Without advertising marks Cash with order."

What a revelation these letters make of the condition of the press of Nebraska! Every newspaper heard from in the State for sale, either in whole or in part! Of the press of how many other States is the same thing true? How many newspapers are there in the whole country which refuse to print "reading notices" in their news columns? The fact is, that the step from selling the news columns to that of selling the editorial columns is a very short one, and, as the Nebraska revelations show, it is very easily taken in a great majority of cases. The two sales differ only in degree. In both a fraud on the reader is attempted, and in both the paper exacts a price above ordinary advertising rates, because it lends its character and influence to give color to the fraud.

JOURNALISM IN FRANCE.

THE condition of the newspaper press is exciting just as much attention in France as it excites here. The invasions of private life by French journals are not nearly so gross as ours, nor are the assaults on public men so personal as those of some of our worst papers, but they make a more disagreeable impression on the French public than our sensational journals make on our public, because Frenchmen are much more sensitive than Americans to anything that can be considered an "insult." Epithets and abuse which Americans receive with contempt or indifference drive Frenchmen nearly wild, and in seventy-five cases out of a hundred lead to duels. The public expects a man not to submit to them without fighting, and accordingly he fights. But constant exposure to the necessity of fighting is not pleasant, and, for some time past, French Conservatives have been busy devising some mode of repressing press abuse and intrusion which would be speedy enough and decisive enough to atone for insults without a "rencontre." What was finally decided on was the bestowal on the police courts of summary jurisdiction over a large class of press offences—that is, their withdrawal from the jurisdiction of juries. The bill, we believe, originated in the Senate, and was distinctly a reactionary product, and had never much chance of passing, but it led to a great deal of discussion, and has been finally defeated.

In this discussion M. Jules Simon has borne a prominent part. He is an old statesman as well as an old journalist, who has made his mark in both French politics and literature. He is now playing the rôle of a newspaper sage; that is, he writes every few days what he calls "Mon Petit Journal," being a short article, in the nature of either comment or reminiscence or both, on any topic of the day which happens to interest him, in the columns of the *Temps*. What he says in a recent number about the condition of French journalism is in substance this: He supports Messrs. Paul Deschanel and Camille Pelletan, who have been opposing the bill, and defends their attitude in the discussion, and says that if they are not old enough to remember what French journalism used to be when M. Simon was a young man, they must have read of it or heard of it in their families. Sixty years ago French journals represented opinions, or "doctrines," as he calls them. They were founded to champion opinions, and for no other reason. Their offices were centres at which all the forces of a political party converged. They had traditions. They listened respectfully to the older men. They obeyed leaders. They cultivated solidarity. The Bohemian life of which so many tales were told was followed only by the novelist and the feuilletonist. The political journalist had both solidity and enthusiasm. He studied questions seriously. He was always ready for one of three things —controversy, battle, or imprisonment. It was not everybody who could be a journalist. No one became a journalist except by some striking piece of work (*un coup d'éclat*) or a long apprenticeship. Journalists were severe on each other. All transgressions of the laws of honor received their natural punishment, namely, dishonor. There was a disciplinary tribunal, which was never organized, and never met, but was always trying cases. Its judgments were prompt and infallible. People used not to say at that time that the press was the fourth estate; but they knew it and saw it. It was for this kind of press that Armand Carrel died.

The condition of French journalism since then, M. Simon says, has been profoundly changed, first, by the appearance of the cheap penny paper; secondly, by the disappearance of the subscription list, and the substitution of the sales at the stands and over the counter. Instead of 100,000, or 150,000 readers which the journals of that day had, those of to-day have 4,000,000. The new public which reads the newspapers now cares nothing about opinions or doctrinal discussions. In the matter of opinions all it asks for is a banner,

and can get along, in case of need, even without this. For its daily journalistic food all it cares for is the gossip of the lobbies and the theatres, personalities, defamation, and calumny. The pen has fallen from the hands of philosophers to be taken up by newsmongers. Party politicians withdrew when the establishment of a newspaper, instead of being an effort in behalf of an idea, became a mere commercial venture. The press has passed in succession under three yokes—that of despotism under the Empire, that of the demagogues, and now of the money power, which has hooked the newspapers and uses them for its own purposes. "Where are you, Carrel," he exclaims in a burst of bitterness, "who used to defend the editorial authority? And you, Guilloutet, who used to defend the sanctity of domestic life?" Every day about ten journals are started, and one hundred journalists appear on the scene. The writing talent is not wanting—far from it; but there is no longer any question of thoughtfulness or self-sacrifice. Chateaubriand has been replaced by Timothy Trimm, and Timothy Trimm by the anonymous and venomous reporter.

Some of this talk we used to hear from Horace Greeley in his day; the rest, we cannot help thinking, we should hear from him if he were alive now.

THE BEETHOVEN FESTIVAL IN BONN.

Bonn, May 20, 1890.

The Beethoven Festival has of course awakened much local enthusiasm in Bonn, besides being the chief musical event in Germany at the present time. Apart from the universal significance of Beethoven's name in the musical world, this celebration is of particular interest to Americans from the fact that the history of the great composer's life in Bonn was only brought completely to light in the masterly biography by Mr. Alexander Wheelock Thayer, formerly American Consul in Trieste, whose name has had a most prominent place in all the utterances of the hour. Bonn has been before this the place of large musical celebrations in honor of her best-known son, particularly in 1845, at the inauguration of the monument in the Münsterplatz, and in 1871. Up to the present time, however, the small house where Beethoven was born has not been accessible to the public, and has been given up to mercantile purposes in such a way as to completely obscure all its associations with the past. There has been until lately, moreover, the absurd contest between the houses in the Bonngasse and the Rheingasse, each bearing its tablet with the explicit declaration that there was the composer's birthplace. Now, at last, the testimony has become conclusive, the Bonn Common Council has officially declared in favor of the first-mentioned house, and during the last year it was bought by an association of Bonn citizens under the honorary presidency of Joachim of Berlin. For some months it has been undergoing complete renovation, and, as far as may be, restoration to its condition in the Electoral period.

This Association has further the intention of founding in the house a museum to contain all of Beethoven's works and everything that can be collected relating to his personal history and musical activity. To this end the festival which has just closed was held. Twenty-five leading musicians of Germany and from abroad contributed their assistance in bringing out what has perhaps never been attempted before—a series of five consecutive concerts devoted entirely to the most important of Beethoven's works in the field of chamber music. This selection was made both because the compositions of this class cover a wider space of the composer's life than any other, and because they embrace a range of works less known and appreciated by the general public, to which this series was to serve as an introduction to a better acquaintance with Beethoven's most personal compositions.

Local pride and financial ends were influences at work, but the spirit of the season has been throughout that of reverence and genuine enthusiasm. The hearty response of those who had been invited to assist was a spontaneous tribute to the genius of Beethoven and the sway which he exercises to-day in the musical world. The audience included many of the best-known representatives of music in Germany, and the success of the enterprise was secured from the first. There was some doubt expressed as to whether the receptive faculties of any audience would be equal to the strain of five days' consecutive attendance upon a series of concerts devoted to one field of one author, especially as these included some of his most difficult and obscure works; but on the contrary the feeling of keen interest in Beethoven and the phases of his development was cumulative from the first. There is great variety and breadth in Beethoven's chamber music, and each of the three periods of his work was well represented. In general a chronological order was followed in each day's programme, and twenty-one numbers in all were given, including the years 1798–1826.

Naturally the quartets occupied a most prominent place; they were given for the most part by Joachim, Ahna, Wirth, and Hausmann, and the whole of the fourth day's concert consisted of the quartets 59, 95, and 130. The noticeable feature of their marvellous playing was not so much the technical perfection of each performer as the entire subordination of the *virtuoso* to the unity of the composition, and the broad, masterful spirit in which the work was approached. The last of these, which was written by the master in complete isolation, under much suffering of body and mind, contains the cavatina which was to Beethoven himself his dearest production, the very expression of his heart's sorrow which tinges so strongly the correspondence and journals of his later life. It was played with touching pathos and reverence, and marked the highest point of the whole festival. The trio op. 70, 1, was played very impressively by Profs. Seiss, Hermann, and Schröder. The gloom and melancholy of the largo in D minor in the second part (the "Bat" or "Ghost"-trio) was strangely heightened by the breaking out of a violent thunder-storm, a veritable elemental accompaniment. The last number on the third day (op. 70, 2) was played with great perfection by the veterans Reinecke of Leipsic, Joachim, and Piatti of London. The fifth and last programme was the most popular, and exhibited the greatest variety. The difficult piano-sonata in B major (op. 106) was performed by Director Buths of Düsseldorf upon a superb American Steinway piano, which seemed the favorite instrument among the pianists who appeared. The song-cycle "An die ferne Geliebte," was given by Carl Mayer of the Cologne opera; he is a popular idol in Bonn, and sang in his usually triumphant manner. His enunciation is the clearest and most agreeable I have heard in Germany. The last number was the beautiful septet, most purely melodious of Beethoven's compositions, and especially agreeable to the Bonn audience on account of its introduction of the Rhine song, "Ach Schiffer, lieber Schiffer."

There was great enthusiasm and much mutual congratulation among the audience at the close. Soon after, a special train carried about two hundred persons to Godesberg, where a banquet was held, at which the best of good feeling prevailed. Joachim toasted the artists who had contributed so unselfishly to the success of the concerts, and Reinecke responded on behalf of the guests. Consul Thayer, who was present, was saluted as "the best biographer of Beethoven," and made a short address.

There remains but little space in which to speak of the Beethoven Exposition, which was so satisfactory a part of the celebration. It was the most complete assembly of memorials of the composer which has yet been brought together, and comprises almost everything which has been preserved of documents, portraits, and objects connected with his history. The real interest of the articles shown was worthy of note, for the committee escaped the error made in the Goethe Museum at Weimar, where so prominent a place is given to articles which had nothing to do with the real mental life of the poet. There was exhibited for the first time a portrait of the youth Beethoven at the age of about twenty, a beautiful miniature, probably by his friend Gerhard von Kügelgen of Bonn. The picture has always been regarded as a likeness of Beethoven, and came by well-authenticated descent into the hands of George Henschel in London. The coloring is very fresh and well-preserved. The hair hangs over the broad forehead, and the large dreamy eyes and passionate mouth agree very well with the ideal youthful court musician. There was also shown for the first time a portrait of Beethoven's mother, with a refined, sad face, corresponding exactly with the description of her appearance in the Fischer manuscripts. Most valuable for comparative purposes is the large number of portraits and busts, especially the life and death-masks, and the paintings of Mähler, Schimon, and Stieler. From them is yet to be constructed a satisfactory likeness, though Dake's great etching is the best which has appeared. The drawing by Kloeber, and the widely circulated late likeness by Jager, are much weaker in character than the stern, earnest face which meets us in most of the other portraits. Beethoven's piano, his quartet of stringed instruments, the ear-trumpets constructed to assist his failing hearing, and many of the original scores of his works were also on exhibition.

The house in the Bonngasse is that of a well-to-do citizen in the latter part of the last century. In the hallway is a flight of stairs with a fine wrought-iron balustrade which goes back to the time mentioned. The parents of the composer only occupied the back part of the house, which is ascended by a narrow staircase. The birth-chamber is a very small room under the mansard roof, whose low ceiling is supported by clumsy beams. One little window admits a scanty light, and the boards of the floor are much worn and disfigured by age. At present the chamber contains nothing but Cauer's bust of Beethoven. The house is not yet ready for general exhibition, but the chamber was specially shown to visitors during the festival.

James Taft Hatfield.

ASCENSION.

En Route to Barbados, April 15.

The peaks of Ascension, as I first saw them

in the early morning light of March 16, exhibited most strange and beautiful colors. A rich crimson-brown was shot through by a cool purple, with an undertone of warm yellow, and distance added a tint of hazy blue, the combination making a lovely whole. As we neared the island the colors due to distance disappeared, but the strong crimson-brown and yellow remained, for these are the real colors of the hills. The rock of the highest peak, Green Mountain, 2,850 feet high, is of a light color, overlaid by what appears from a distance as a thin varnish of greenish-gray vegetation. The ultimate peak itself, on the day of our landing, was hidden in a cloud, and during our stay this seemed to be its normal condition. The moist, southeast trade wind sweeps up the side of the mountain, and, reaching a certain elevation, its moisture becomes visible in the shape of a driving cloud, which pours over the top and down the leeward side for six or eight hundred feet, where it vanishes, and below that point all is clear. Except at Green Mountain, the island appears at first sight to be utterly barren. A close examination, however, will detect some faint beginnings of vegetation. A prickly gray-green poppy, with a delicate flower of a bright yellow, spots some localities with little dots of color; and here and there may be seen a low bush of acacia, with its feathery foliage of tender green lighted up by fluffy spheres of yellow blossoms, and hung with pendant seed-pods of polished brown. Near the foot of one of the brown hills of ash and tufa is a lonely palm tree, fighting for its life in the midst of the arid desolation. This tree might well stand as the original of that made immortal in song by Heine's poem, "The Pine and the Palm." At any rate, his "burning ledge of rock" was not half so burning as the fire-and-sun-scorched hill on which this poor tree struggles for existence with a courage which seems so human as to be pathetic. Year after year it has stood there, its crown of frond-like leaves pushed out of all symmetry by the steady pressure of the trade wind, and only at long intervals refreshed by the blessed baptism of a pouring shower. Environment is an important factor in palm, as well as human, life.

Most of the peaks on the island are quite regular in outline. Some are perfectly pyramidal in form; many have smoothly rounded tops, and others again have such shape and appearance as would result from the bursting of a huge bubble of mud, lava, and cinder when puffed up to the limit of expansion, the wind driving all the lighter material to the leeward, leaving the windward side of the crater much lower than the other. Green Mountain is the one place on Ascension where there is an obvious possibility for vegetable life; all the rest of the island looks as if no drop of rain had cooled the fervid cinder for a hundred years.

The landing-place, called "Tartar Stairs," is at a flight of steep stone steps, alongside of which hang a couple of ropes suspended from iron bars projecting overhead. In landing, the boat is brought as near the stairs as the breakers will permit, one of the ropes is swung out and caught, and when the wave lifts the boat to the proper level, a spring is made for the steps, and quite frequently a landing is effected with dry, or partially dry, feet. Near the landing are several substantial stone buildings, used for storing naval supplies, and for various other naval purposes; for Ascension is not only an island, it is a ship as well, being borne on her Majesty's Naval Register as the "*Penelope* tender"; and therefore naval discipline rules the island: lights out at ten o'clock; no smoking except at certain times and places; in fact, man-of-war rules are supposed to govern Ascension. I think these rules have been much relaxed of late years.

Georgetown, or "Garrison," as it is always called, consists of a street having one side only. The Captain's office is a two-story building, then come long, one-story cottages with broad verandas, used for officers' quarters; beyond these a large, airy, comfortable hospital, then two or three more cottages and another, smaller hospital, and still further along a cemetery. Every cottage has a little garden in front, separated from the street and each other by pieces of lava, and the space within is covered with glittering white beach sand, shaped into geometrical figures by a broom or scraper. Flowers there are none; but a few broad-leaved plants, such as will best bear the scorching heat of Ascension, are cultivated in tubs and kept alive with difficulty by sedulous watering. The street is sand, the gardens are sand, and when the wind blows, which it always does, the atmosphere is a mixture of air and sand. The superlative of desolation is reached at the cemetery. The graves are dug through ashes, scoriæ, lava, and pumice stone; the mounds, defined by a border of lava blocks, are covered with sand; but no rose, no shrub, nor even the humble grass softens with tender ministry the dark rigidity of the terrible lava. All that loving hands can do is done, but at best it is burying the dead in the slag of a furnace. The road to heaven is, doubtless, as short and direct from the Ascension cemetery as from Greenwood, Mount Auburn, or Forest Hill, but for myself I desire to avoid the horror of a grave scooped in lava and heaped with volcanic cinder.

Captain Napier, the officer in charge of Ascension, gave us every facility in his power for prosecuting the scientific work for which we had called at the island. Buildings in which to swing the pendulum and make magnetic observations were assigned and placed absolutely under the control of the scientific staff; transportation was furnished for the instruments, and also for members of the expedition and officers of the *Pensacola* whenever they wished to explore the island, and permission was also given for capturing as many green turtles as might be needed for use on the ship. Indeed, the ready hospitality shown to us will always be gratefully remembered. One afternoon Captain Napier took Professor Todd and myself to "Wide Awake Fair." This is a place where the Sooty Tern (called Wide Awake by the inhabitants) breeds by thousands. It is an extensive plain, about a mile and a half west of Green Mountain, thinly covered by a vine (*Ipomœa maritima*) which grows to an enormous length. I measured two of them by pacing; one was fifty and the other sixty-two feet long. It is said to bear a purple flower shaped like a morning-glory, but it was not in blossom when we were there. The breeding season was nearly over, yet hundreds of birds, belated in nesting, were sitting. The female lays but one egg, directly on the ground, making no nest at all. Either they are such devoted parents as to brave death in defence of egg or young, or they have little or no fear; for the mother bird remained on her egg until I was within arm's length of her, and then reluctantly flew away, screaming a discordant protest against my intrusion. Young birds in all stages of growth, from little pinches of black, fluffy down, just hatched, to birds sufficiently developed for awkward flight, filled the air or covered the ground. Looking upward, the sky was darkened by a dust of birds; and all the while the ears were deafened by a multitudinous scream in which there were no flashes of grateful silence. Professor Todd caught a young bird which, not heeding the penalties provided for bribery and corruption, offered its most valuable possession for liberty, viz., two small fishes about three inches long, evidently just swallowed. The Professor refused the bribe, but magnanimously restored the bird to freedom.

The contrast between Green Mountain and the other parts of the island is astonishing. The plains and lower peaks look as if they had been dried and burned by centuries of drought, and practically they support no vegetation; but on Green Mountain the growth is luxuriant and vigorous, resembling a rich, tropical jungle. This is due to the cloud of which I have spoken, bringing a dense mist nearly every day, and frequent showers, which do not reach the other parts of the island. Water being the great want here, every effort has been made to collect and store as much as possible of the rainfall. A system of pipes and tanks conveys the precious fluid from the mountain to "Garrison." At the time of our visit the tanks contained a six months' supply for the island.

One experiment by which it was attempted to increase the amount of water was so original as to deserve mention. Some genius, deeming a cloud to be a reservoir of water, a kind of floating pond as it were, imagined that to make it rain at any time nothing more was necessary than to break a hole in the bottom of this reservoir, and the rain would come. He may have had in his mind a dim recollection of some one in America who tried a somewhat similar experiment, to bring electricity from the clouds by means of a kite. Be that as it may, his plan was this: To raise into the cloud a kite with a chain attached, then the electricity in the cloud would run down the chain, making, as it flashed downward, a hole through the bottom of the cloud-reservoir, and this lightning-rent orifice would afford a channel or sluice-way for any amount of water. Q. E. D. The chain which was actually procured for this purpose is still on the mountain. The links are about two and a half inches long made of half-inch iron, and it would probably weigh fifteen pounds to the yard. It is said that the experiment was considered so dangerous that permission would not be given for a trial. Whether the fear was of water or lightning, I did not learn.

We found a very interesting character in the trapper who acted as our guide to Crystal Bay. He is a Scotchman by birth, and bears the name of Robert Burns, the poet, and claims to be of the same family. It was a pleasant experience to hear him repeat Burns's poetry with the real Scotch accent. He is employed at Ascension as a trapper of vermin, and he gave me the prices which he is paid for destroying the different kinds. For each rat he gets a half-penny; for one hundred crabs one shilling and sixpence; for one cat one shilling and sixpence. He brings in the rat's tail, the two large claws of the crab, and the scalp of the cat with the two ears attached, as proof of their destruction. The cats are the ordinary domestic cat run wild. On our walk to Crystal Bay he carried our lunch in a little pouch slung over his shoulder, and when we sat down to eat it, in taking out the lunch he brought out at the same dip a handful of rats' tails which he had collected from his traps, and was taking in to the office for the bounty. But an eight-mile walk over lava and cinder tends to remove any squeamishness which might be felt under other circumstances by such a mixing of

lunch and rats' tails, and any foreign flavor which our sandwiches may have contracted was not heeded.

Our work at Ascension being completed, the *Pensacola* weighed anchor at half-past one on Tuesday, April 8, and turned her bow towards far-away Barbados. E. J. Loomis.

THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

London, May, 1890.

I have already explained that this year the Grosvenor is the best of the three great London art exhibitions. Between the Royal Academy and the New Gallery there is but little choice to be made. Both contain some really good work and much honest effort, but each is hopelessly uninteresting as a whole. The good work does not stand out with any great prominence—it does not assert itself; you have to look for it. No note of originality is struck; no new man comes to the fore. The general average at the Academy is perhaps somewhat higher than it has been for the last few years, but there are not so many pictures of importance as even in last spring's very poor show. The New Gallery seems to be fast losing the little character it had in the beginning of its short career. An offshoot from the Grosvenor, it at first promised to inherit the traditions of the æsthetic, Neo-Tuscan, or whatever it may be called, school which gave the old Grosvenor its fame. But in the present exhibition spurious mediævalism occupies but limited space, and Mr. Burne-Jones, its chief exponent, sends only sketches and studies for important pictures exhibited elsewhere. In both galleries, as at the Grosvenor, the best work is to be found among the landscapes. Indeed, nothing is more striking and significant in the art world this year than the unusually good showing made by the landscape-painters.

At the Royal Academy, however, there is one redeeming feature, of which the New Gallery cannot boast, though it must also be admitted that to the Academy there is always one serious drawback which other exhibitions are spared. But this drawback, the monopoly of the best places on the wall by Academicians and Associates, no matter how atrocious their work, is no new thing, and of late the evil has perhaps been less than in the past, owing to the strenuous outcry raised against it. But it necessarily detracts from the general effect of the show when such childish and obsolete compositions as those of Mr. Faed, such pretentious incompetencies as the productions of Mr. Sant, such showy and vulgar performances as the canvases of Mr. Fildes or Mr. Woods (to mention no others), are hung on the line, while infinitely better things are skied out of sight.

However, it is pleasanter to dwell upon what is good, and the commonplaceness of the painting is in a measure redeemed by the excellence of the sculpture. The vast stride in advance which English sculptors have been making since the days when Alfred Stevens, neglected and unappreciated as he was, first sought to raise the art from the abyss of mediocrity into which it had sunk in England, is very marked. It is shown, in the first place, in the decidedly high average reached in the two rooms devoted to sculpture. The old characterless conventionalities that linger, as if to point the difference, seem quite out of place, whereas at one time it was the good work that was the exception. In almost all the portrait busts there is vigor and individuality, in expression of character as well as in the means employed to obtain it. It is evident that sculptors at least are endeavoring to use their own eyes, and to preserve their own individuality in one of the most conventional of the arts.

This progress is to be seen not merely in the higher general average attained, but in the excellence of single works. Most conspicuous among these is Mr. Onslow Ford's statue of Gordon on his camel. It is enormous, quite life-size; the pose is natural in its quiet dignity, the modelling is vigorous, and the great mass of detail, in Gordon's uniform and the saddle and trappings of the camel, are rendered with almost photographic accuracy. Indeed, one at first is inclined to question such close and minute attention to details; but a little study shows how right the artist was, and how, without the hanging tassels and paraphernalia, the height and gawkiness of the animal would have been unpleasantly accentuated. This is the statue which has been erected in bronze at Chatham by the Corps of Royal Engineers, and upon which Mr. Ford has been at work for the last two or three years. A little, carefully modelled, study for the camel, which he made at the Zoo, is now in the New Gallery. In addition to this stupendous piece of work, he also shows two charming figures in bronze, destined, I believe, for some Indian potentate—one of "Music," a female figure almost nude, with winged head and the lyre in her hand; the other of "Peace," also nude, the lines of the figure delightfully graceful, the pose unaffected, as she holds in one uplifted hand one of her emblems, the dove, in the other, the palm.

Mr. Alfred Gilbert, unfortunately, is not represented. Mr. Thornycroft has nothing of much importance, though his "Mirror," a relief in marble, is interesting as his diploma work, henceforth to be seen in the permanent gallery at the Royal Academy, which so few people ever visit, and his two medallion portraits are characterized by his usual refinement and exquisite but vigorous modelling.

Of outsiders, Mr. Harry Bates is the most prominent. He has a very beautiful Pandora, kneeling with head bent over the casket in her hands. The statue is delightfully thought out; the pose altogether charming, showing as it does the lovely curve of her rounded back. There is great restraint and artistic feeling in his treatment of the face and its expression, and the detail on the casket is studied with the greatest care. The subject could scarcely be rendered more satisfactorily. But perhaps Mr. Bates is even happier in a large relief for a London church, a dead Christ with an angel at his head and another at his feet. There is no one to-day who understands better the decorative treatment of figures, the value of long, flowing lines, and the graceful filling of a required space. The draperies of the Christ stretch in beautiful lines between the two angels, who lean devoutly over him so that their wings naturally curve as gracefully as the back of Pandora, and fit, without the least violence of composition, into the two ends of the long panel. Mr. Bates's mastery as a decorator is also shown in his "Story of Psyche" at the New Gallery, in which the same beauty of line and unaffectedness of arrangement are found. Mr. John Donoghue has sent to the Royal Academy his "Young Sophocles," about which so much has been already said in America that it would be more than useless to describe it again. Mr. George G. Frampton has one or two bas-reliefs in which there is something of the feeling of the Cinquecento Florentines, and a large "Angel of Death"; but it is impossible to speak at length of all the good work in these two galleries.

In the other rooms, while there is really not one picture that stands out with any marked distinction, several cannot be passed over in silence. For example, one always turns with interest to the contributions of Sir Frederick Leighton; for though his color and composition and atmospheric effects are like nothing in nature, though his draperies always hang in the same conventional folds, and he does not even attempt to express different textures, his draughtsmanship is scholarly, his painting has style, and, accepted frankly as decoration, has more good points than the work of almost any one of his fellow-Academicians. Of his three pictures this year, the finest unquestionably is the "Bath of Psyche," a study of the nude. The well-drawn, graceful Psyche stands on the marble floor just at the edge of the bath, her fair white body in strong relief against a purple curtain, above which one sees a stretch of deep blue sky and long white cloud-rifts. The color is rich, and the decorative effect of the whole is heightened—legitimately, I think—by the frame which encloses the picture between two pillars of the same architectural construction as those painted in it. This has been bought by the trustees of the Chantrey Bequest, and hereafter will hang at South Kensington in that collection which will probably form the neucleus of the English Luxembourg, of which Sir Frederick proved himself a strong advocate by his speech at the Royal Academy banquet. Mr. Alma-Tadema has no large picture. His most important at the Royal Academy is the "Frigidarium," with a Roman lady of the time of Hadrian, in a marvellously embroidered robe, marvellously painted, making her toilet by the help of a slave in her chlamys. Beyond, one looks to the usual Tademesque marble halls and stretch of blue sky. But prettier than this is a little "Eloquent Silence" at the New Gallery, in which, to the well-known marble seat and figures and sunny landscape for background, is added a new beauty in a great purple clematis which scatters its petals over the seated man and woman, and makes a rich mass of color in the centre of the composition. It seems, however, that the new beauty is an archæological blemish. For it is said—with how much truth I am not botanist enough to know—that the flower which really gives the picture its charm is the *Clematis Jackmanni*, a cross between the wild English variety and the white-flowered plant of China, and only introduced to the world within the last quarter of a century. For my part, I do not regret the mistake; Mr. Tadema has seldom produced a finer piece of color. But when all is said, there is a tiresome monotony in his pictures of a life he does not know; and his tiny portrait of Miss McWhirter, with its exquisite suggestion of detail, at the New Gallery, and his head of Mr. Waterlow, strong in character, even if the modelling is somewhat flat, at the Royal Academy, make one wish he would concern himself oftener with the things and people he does see and know.

Of other Academicians and Associates, none show anything notable except Mr. Hook, whose work this year is unusually good. Of Sir John Millais the less said nowadays the better. Mr. Watts is seen at his worst in both galleries. Mr. Burne-Jones has nothing in the Royal Academy, being contented with an exhibition all to himself on Bond Street. Mr. Frank Dicksee occupies the chief place of honor with a "Redemption of Tannhäuser," the merits of which are literary rather than artistic.

Of the men for whom one looks in the Academy, but who have not yet been elected to its membership, Mr. Sargent still holds his own, though he has painted better portraits. One is

fine chiefly for its rich color, and it is instructive to compare his strong yet refined and restrained treatment of the lilac gown of his sitter with the brutal rendering of very much the same subject by Mr. Luke Fildes in a portrait which is simply a triumph of vulgarity. By such comparisons one becomes doubly appreciative of the subtleties and refinement of Mr. Sargent's methods. Even when one questions his success, one is forced to admit his originality; and his other canvas, which shows an apparently very ill-tempered lady in fur cape and soft-felt tennis hat standing on the lawn in front of an old ivy-covered brick mansion, commands interest, though I am not sure that personally I like it. On the other hand, I am quite certain that I do not like his portrait of Mrs. Comyns Carr at the New Gallery; it is clever, and a good piece of flesh painting, but it looks like a sketch made in the Morgue, and one wonders at the courage of the lady in allowing it to be hung. Here he has also a large landscape called "Ighthaun Mote," very broadly and simply painted, while the figures playing bowls in the foreground are wonderfully put in.

Three other Americans are to the fore at the Academy: Mr. Edwin A. Abbey, who, unless I am very much mistaken, makes his first appearance as an oil painter in "Mayday-Morning," a study of early morning light softly diffused over an old garden, in which two of Mr. Abbey's delightful figures, a man and girl in seventeenth-century dress, are tripping along, hand in hand, in front of a high wall, over which the pink and white flowers of a blossoming cherry droop in rich profusion—the whole composition filled with the spirit of Herrick; Mr. Frank D. Millet, who has one of his quiet, charming, white-panelled, eighteenth-century rooms, where two girls are sitting at the tea-table, which, with its old silver and china and fair white cloth, is unusually well rendered; and Mr. Dannat, who shows a large "Study in Red," very cleverly managed, about which I would say more if it were not that I believe it has already been seen at the Salon.

Mr. Stanhope-Forbes, in a very carefully studied but almost too black auction sale ("By Order of the Court"), in a cottage interior, and Mr. Adrian Stokes, in another of his luminous sketches of sea and sky, are the most successful of the Newlynites. Of men who belong to no school or clique, conspicuous are Mr. Albert Moore, in a fine piece of decoration in which he has carried out a harmonious scheme of yellow, and treated decoratively five not overdelicate or attractive female figures; Mr. John M. Swan, whose exquisite little idyl of a "Piping Fisher Boy," his young naked body stretched out on a cool gray rock in a calm blue sea, is so tiny that it could be easily overlooked, and whose big "Lioness and her Cubs" is too sombre in tone; and Mr. William Logsdail, whose "Ninth of November," with the Lord Mayor's procession starting from the Mansion House, will probably excite more interest than anything else in the show. To future generations it will have the historical value that many Bellinis and Carpaccios have for us; but it is to be hoped that time will kindly soften and subdue its glaring, vulgar color, which now more than counterbalances its decided cleverness. The Lord Mayor's procession, it is true, is not in itself a very artistic pageant, even when directed by an artist; but, for all that, it is strikingly picturesque, the London atmosphere refining its too gaudy details, making even its crude sumptuousness beautiful. But the London fog and mist is just the one thing which Mr. Logsdail, clever as he is, has not yet been able to give us.

I will say nothing about the landscapes, because the best are by men who have done still better in the work they exhibit at the Grosvenor, unless I except Mr. Alfred Parsons, in a fine "Bend of the Avon," in which he is particularly successful in rendering the soft English atmospheric effects which Mr. Logsdail cannot understand; and Mr. R. Noble, whose sombre classical landscapes are rich and impressive, despite their lack of realism.

In the water-color room little need detain one save an impression of "Arabs Returning from a Raid," by Mr. Arthur Melville, who can, better than most men, express a great deal by the simplest means; while in the black-and-white room the best thing is Mr. Hole's etching after Millet's "Wood-Sawyers," which is one of the very finest reproductive etchings ever made, but which was published some two or three months ago, and has probably long before this been seen and duly admired and praised in New York.

Correspondence.

COLIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I should be glad to know whether the ultimate source of the name *colin*, applied to the common partridge or bob-white of the United States, has been investigated and settled by any one in America, and particularly whether there is any reason to conclude that it is a native Mexican or Indian name. Prof. A. Newton has pointed out to me that European acquaintance with the name appears to be due to Francisco Hernandez, the naturalist and physician sent by Philip II. to describe the natural productions of Spanish America. The result of his investigations was his 'Nova Plantarum, Animalium, et Mineralium Mexicanorum Historia,' published at Rome in 1648 and 1651. In the latter edition the *colin* is treated at pp. 22 and 42, and the fuller name *acolin* is mentioned at p. 16. According to Watt's 'Bibliotheca,' "this work had originally been published in the Spanish language, at Mexico, under the name and care of Francis Ximenes." This Mexican edition I have not seen; but it is probably the source of earlier European references to the *acolin* or *colin* (unless these were taken from Hernandez's own MSS.). The 'Joannis Eusebii Nierembergii Historia Naturalis' (Antverpiæ, 1635) has at p. 232 "Coturnices vocabat Noua Hispania *colin*, quorum genera ex Francisco Hernando dabo," and at p. 214, "Vocatur acolin quædam auis fusca Mexicani lacus." From these sources the *acolin* or *colin* became known to Francis Willoghby and his translator John Ray, who has (Eng. ed. 1678, pp. 387, 393), "A certain brown Bird of the Lake of Mexico is called *acolin* because it is of the bigness of a Quail," "Those of New Spain call Quails *colin*," "Acolin is of the bigness of a Stare," etc. From Ray it passed to later ornithologists, and I suppose into use in the North American colonies and the United States.

Buffon has also a long dissertation on "*Colins*." Littré, in his Dictionary, treated the word as French, and explained it as "nom propre, donné à un animal." But when we turn to Cotgrave, 1611, we find two words, thus distinguished, (1) "*colin*, collin, a proper name (and a derivative of Nicholas); also a Sea-cob or Gull"; (2) "*collin*, a long-beaked riuer-fowle of a beautiful grayish colour." I do not know whether the latter can be identified with the *acolin* of the Lake of Mexico (which Prof. Newton thinks may be *Gallinula galeata*); but I see no ground whatever for thinking that the French *colin*, a sea-gull, is the same as the Mexican word. No hint of the name being French occurs in the early authorities.

An American correspondent informs me that *acolin* is still the Spanish-American name of the bob-white, or of cognate species, and that the word is believed to be of Mexican-Indian origin. I shall be grateful for any *facts* bearing on the latter point; and, as time presses, I ask communications to be made to me direct, addressed Dr. Murray, Oxford, England. This will not prevent the subject being discussed also in the *Nation*. Would that some competent American scholar would take up the subject of the origin and history of such words, and make it his own! It is disappointing when one turns to American sources for information about American words, and finds only a repetition of the statements, often imperfect or erroneous, of European writers.

J. A. H. Murray.

Oxford, May 26, 1890.

P. S.—Since writing my appeal for information as to the alleged Mexican origin of this bird-name, I have, through the kindness of Prof. A. Newton, acquired a clearer notion of the relation of the names *colin* and *acolin* in Hernandez, Nieremberg, and Willoghby. They were not applied to the same bird, *colin* being the name of the "quail," *i. e.*, of the species of *Ortyx* and allied genera, while *acolin* was a water-bird, "quædam auis fusca Mexicani lacus" (probably *Gallinula galeata*), but it was so called from being of the same size as the "quail" or *colin*—"a coturnicis magnitudine vocatur *acolin*," or, as Willoghby translates, "a certain brown Bird of the Lake of *Mexico* is called *acolin* because it is of the bigness of a Quail." . . . "Those of New Spain call Quails *colin*." We are therefore entitled to assume that the name *acolin* was formed upon *colin*. Now, in the Nahuatl or Mexican language, water is *atl*, and in composition, as in all words of this form, *-tl* was dropped, leaving *a-* = water-; thus *otli* way, *a-otl* water-way, canal; similarly *colin* quail, *a-colin* water-quail. The fact that the word was thus, in combination, treated as a native word, greatly confirms the supposition that *colin* was the genuine native name, which the researches of Hernandez thus first made known to European naturalists.

The French name *colin*, given to a sea-gull, occurs in Belon, 'Hist. Nat. Oyseaux,' 1555, p. 167; but it has evidently no connection whatever with the Mexican word, and Cotgrave, in 1611, was well informed in making two distinct entries for the two words, which later dictionaries have so unfortunately muddled up, by attributing to the American *colin* a French derivation.

J. A. H. M.

Oxford, May 28, 1890.

THE ETYMOLOGY OF COCKNEY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the discussion of the etymology of *cockney*, noticed in your issue of May 29, the position of the 'Century Dictionary' in regard to that word has been misrepresented. Dr. Murray, in his first letter to the *Academy*, affirms that the 'Century Dictionary' advances the derivation of *cockney* from an O. F. **coquiné*, M. L. **coquinatus*, as certain, and insinuates that this view is a new one, peculiar to that work. This is false. Among several other suggested etymologies of the word, the one in question is mentioned, with the remark that, though

"phonetically satisfactory," it is "*historically unsupported.*" The italicized words Dr. Murray omits to quote, but they are essential to a correct statement of the position of the American book. The 'Century Dictionary' does not advance this etymology as its own, does not assert it to be true, and, in what it does affirm about it, is entirely within the limits of fact.

In, apparently, ascribing this etymology to the 'Century Dictionary,' Dr. Murray cannot be so ignorant as he allows himself to appear. In the glossarial index of 'Piers the Plowman,' edited 1886 by Prof. W. W. Skeat, is the following statement: "*Cokeneyes, pl.* scullions, a. 7,272. I have now no doubt at all that this difficult word (whence mod. E. *cockney*) answers to an O. F. *coquiné*=Low Lat. *coquinatus*, from *coquinare*, to cook, serve as scullion, a derivative of Lat. *coquina*," etc. The suggestion of this etymology did not originate with Prof. Skeat; but as it is positively asserted by him (after having been tentatively advanced in the supplement to his 'Etymological Dictionary'), and as it is not asserted at all by the 'Century Dictionary,' it is a natural inference that Dr. Murray's criticisms have been intentionally misdirected.—Very respectfully,

CHARLES P. G. SCOTT.

NEW YORK, June 3.

A MISTAKE ACKNOWLEDGED, ETC.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The statement that *to fear*, in the sense of 'to fear for,' has been overlooked by the lexicographers is erroneous; and Mr. W. H. Johnson justly pulls me up for having made it. Referring to my rough note on the point, I find that I relied on it without observing that it bore, dimly pencilled, the letters D. V., a consecrated symbol which I am wont to secularize by making it stand for the very kitcheny Latin *dictionaria vide*. The search which I thought was completed had been left incomplete. From my mishap the practical lesson may be deduced, that there is nothing like ink.

That the use in question of *to fear* is, as Dr. Webster's editors mark it, "rare," is, however, almost disproved by Shakespeare alone. Besides the quotations for it which he furnishes, many others, presumably, lie hidden in corners of our literature seldom visited. Such are the following:

"Than Arthur *fered* his horse, lest that the lyon sholde have slayne hym." Lord Berners, *Arthur of Little Britain* (about 1530), p. 213 (ed. 1814).

"They both maruayled what minde he had so to do, and also *feared* their owne partes, least he woulde bring them into lyke daunger." T. Key (before 1547), *Translation of Erasmus's Paraphrase* (1548), *Mark*, fol. 71*v*.

"The carefull hen, *fearing* her chickens, dothe clocke them together." Anon., *ibid.*, *Matthew*, fol. 109*v*.

"The City whose ruine wee *feared* wee did not so much as find to be moved." Sir Robert Le Grys, *Velleius Paterculus his Romane Historie* (1632), p. 409.

"The Physician *fears* his Life; but I'm in more fear of his Soul." Sir Roger L'Estrange, *Twenty Select Colloquies*, etc. (1680), p. 111.

It is not, however, through the obsolete idiom just instanced that the old *afraid of*, and *afeard of*, as equivalent to 'afraid for,' is to be explained. Here the peculiarity is in *of*, which, in former days, denoted relation much more variously than is now the case. For instance, as late as 1628, the Rev. John Doughty could speak of "sinne *of* the holy ghost." Subjoined are some quotations for *afraid of* and *afeard of* in an acceptation which was long familiar:

"And, whan the Duke of Bygor sawe that, he was *afrayed of* hym selfe, and so toke his hors, and fledde his way." Lord Berners, *Arthur of Little Britain* (about 1530), p. 273 (ed. 1814).

"For they wer *afearde of* theyr lyfe." Anon., *Translation of Erasmus's Paraphrase* (1548), *Matthew*, fol. 88*v*.

"Iesus therefore tarryed here with his fewe disciples, whiche, though they wer wofully *afeard of* theimselfes also, yet durst thei not forsake their Lorde." Anon., *ibid.*, *John*, fol. 81*r*.

"My mind is yet very much troubled about my Lord of Sandwich's health, which I am *afeard of*." Samuel Pepys (1661), *Diary and Correspondence* (ed. 1875), vol. i., p. 336.

"This evening Mr. Povy tells me that my Lord Sandwich is, this day, so ill that he is much *afeard of* him." *Id.* (1663), *ibid.*, vol. ii., p. 164.

"Mathew ill; we were *afraid of* him, & pray'd," etc. Rev. Philip Henry (1667), *Diaries and Letters* (1882), p. 197.

"The Physician is afraid for his body; but I am more *afraid of* his soul." "Why, but there is no cause why the Ape should be *afraid of* himself for the Snail." H. M., *Colloquies of Erasmus* (1671), pp. 122, 513.

As after past participles generally, so, after *affrayed* or *afraid* and *afeard*, *of* had also the sense of 'by'; and, hence, the current *afraid of*, historically considered, is one with "alarmed by." The vulgar *frightened of* has, therefore, the support of ancient analogy.

In "he goes in *fear of his life*," where *of* signifies 'for,' we have another survival of a venerable locution. But we no longer say, with our ancestors:

"The burgesses of the towne were in great *feare of their* lyues, *wyues, and chyldren.*" Lord Berners, *Translations of Froissart* (1523), vol. i., p. 146 (ed. 1812).

"He [the Pope] blamed those times for being so full of troubles, praising former Ages, when the Popes might live quietly, not being in *fear of their Authority.*" Sir Nathanael Brent, Translation of *Hist. Council of Trent* (1616), p. 364 (ed. 1676).

To return to the disused *to fear*, 'to fear for,' a similar use of to *dread*, 'to be apprehensive on account of,' though hardly to be recognized as English, is perhaps worth exemplifying:

"It is not my fear of the confiscation of our church property, from this example in France, that I *dread*, though I think this would be no trifling evil." Edmund Burke, *Reflections on the Revolution in France* (1790), p. 227 (2nd ed.).

"My excuse was, that I *dreaded* the safety of my father and Jane." Anon., *Cicely, or the Rose of Raby* (1795), vol. 1, p. 76.

Though Burke generally expressed himself admirably well, it could readily be shown that, occasionally, as above, he expressed himself quite otherwise.

As to vulgarisms like "I sleep *home*," Mr. Johnson wishes me to point out their occurrence in American literature of established repute. Equally in American books and in English it would, I apprehend, be no easy matter to discover them, except where it is intended to represent the very diction of the heedless or ignorant. My critic's compliment that I am "usually careful" is sustained, at least, by my having spoken, with respect to the expressions in dispute, of what, as I put it, we "hear," not of what we read; and, consequently, I have committed myself to no charge justifying his requisition for written evidence. Americans in plenty, of fair education and good social position, will say "I sleep *home*," or the like; whereas, in England, only the humblest will say so. Contrariwise, while one is surprised to hear, for example, "I *done* it," from any Americans but the most illiterate, one may often hear it, in England, from persons not very far below the rank of gentlemen. At the same time, one must, ordinarily, in England, go far lower down than to such persons, to meet with "he is not hurt *any*," "I slept *none* all night," and "it blows *some*,"—solecisms which I have again and again heard, among our countrymen, from graduates of colleges.—Your obedient servant, F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, May 15, 1890.

A REPUBLICAN CONFESSION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Speaker Reed, at a dinner of the Home Market Club in this city on May 31, undertook the defence, or rather the glorification, of the Republican party in its relation to the tariff, and this is the way he did it:

"We have just passed through the House of Representatives a tariff bill, and we passed it with a unanimity of action on the part of the Republicans which is without parallel in the history of the country. And yet that fact had its origin away back. It is that on the Committee of Ways and Means was thoroughly represented every *great* interest of this great country; and if you will look at the list of names, you see that they stretch from one end of the country to the other, from the Atlantic to the Pacific coast, leaving out no *great* interest which the Republican party desired to preserve, and therefore no *great* interest of the country at large."

In the old novels we read of words interlined in a letter with lemon juice, which, being brought out by exposure to the heat, entirely change the meaning. It needs the italics which I have put in to give the full significance of this delicious bit of cynicism. In plain English it says that every interest powerful enough to compel consideration has received it. One great interest, indeed, Mr. Reed might and ought to have excepted, namely, that of some forty or fifty millions of units who pay for the privileges given to the other great interests, just as in the Middle Ages the merchant or traveller paid toll to every feudal baron who pounced down from his castle.

If he was as frank as he assumes to be, Mr. Reed would say that this was a "negligeable quantity," an interest which the Republican party does not care to preserve, as it has no representative in Congress and no influence whatever in the committee-rooms. The Republican party, in the wisdom of its generation, fully understands the value of the friendship of the Mammon of unrighteousness, and the force of the text, "Why do the heathen so furiously rage together, and the people imagine a vain thing?" If the Democratic party, as its name implies, seeks to base its power on the mass of the nation, it will turn aside from the idle conflict of the committee-rooms, and bend its strength towards setting up in Congress a representative of the nation who, with the millions behind him, shall wield a lash powerful enough to send back the fierce beasts of prey growling and snarling to their dens.

In the Middle Ages this work was done by a Louis XI., a Richelieu, a Ferdinand, a Peter the Great, a Henry VIII. Parliamentary government in Great Britain has done it through an Earl Grey, a Sir Robert Peel, and a Gladstone, and one may hope that its victories are not yet at an end. Sooner or later, and in one way or the other, it will have to be done in this country; and the solution of this problem will be the most interesting feature in the next century of the history of our Government.

G. B.

BOSTON, June 7, 1890.

CAMEL'S-HAIR TARIFF.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I own a camel. I bought her of Barnum. I want her hair protected. My neighbors tell me the McKinley bill does it. Therefore I'm for the McKinley bill. As I look at

it, a camel is as good as a sheep. The hair of the camel has as much right to be protected in this country as the wool of the sheep. If not, why not? One is as constitutional as the other. I'm for the McKinley bill, I say. It protects my camel's hair against the pauper-labor camel's hair of other countries. If it be objected by Delano and his sheep-raisers that there are not as many camels in this country as sheep, I admit it, but reply that there may be, perhaps, if we will adequately protect them. Why not establish here the camel-raising industry, as we are trying, by the McKinley bill, to establish tin-plate manufactories? Indeed, the argument is all on the side of the camel, for, as I understand it, there is not a single tin-plate manufactory in the land, while I have one camel to start with. In the name of my infant industry, I ask to be protected.

To the objection that our climate is not adapted to the raising of camels, I reply that it may be modified and made so by the construction of vast Government-made conservatories to shelter them in wintry weather, the construction of which would furnish employment to many thousands of idle workingmen in the country. Certainly there is sand, in almost every State of the Union, for camels to walk on, water to drink, and grass to eat, unless it be in the Dakotas, and they need not raise them there.

Now, Mr. Editor, I claim to be a true American. I believe in the great Republican-American idea of protection—protection to everybody who wants it, and, of course, is willing to pay something to promote party elections for it. The Government ought not only to put a high tariff on all foreign and pauper-labor camel's hair, as it does on wool, but should offer a bounty on home-grown hair, just as McKinley's bill does on sugar. This would foster this infant industry, raise the wages of the laboring man, make us, as a nation, gloriously independent of the effete nations of the East, keep our money at home, give the lie to that "dismal science" that tells us to sell in the highest and buy in the lowest market, and carry out to its legitimate result our great American idea of protection. Then could we join with our Caledonian brothers, with a new spirit and significance, in their national song,

"The camels are coming," etc.

Mr. Editor, I am a poor man, but I love my country and want to raise the wages of the workingman. I cannot afford to hire anybody to lobby for me at Washington. I hear you are violently opposed to British free trade and a warm advocate of the McKinley bill. You must, therefore, have a deep sympathy for all such infant industries as mine. Is it too much to ask you to write Maj. McKinley and ask him to put a still higher tariff (it now stands in his bill only about 77 per cent., I believe) on the pauper-labor camel's hair with which our foreign enemies are trying to flood this country? Please be sure, also, to tell him that I was in the Union army.—Yours, for a consistent protection, W. H. Spencer.

195 Broadway, Providence, R. I., June 6, 1890.

FORT TICONDEROGA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an article, "English and Americans," in the May *Fortnightly*, Mr. W. Morton Fullerton says (p. 734): "Fort Ticonderoga still stands, the most imposing military ruin in America, and across its western barracks the sun sets full upon its brown and crumbling stones, now adorned with a truly nineteenth-century legend in the staring white letters of somebody's 'Stove Polish.'"

It has been many years since I saw Ticonderoga, and I do not know if this statement is true; but if true, ought not the *Nation* to give voice to the sense of outrage which all who have any feeling for the country's history must experience at this monstrous and impudent desecration? The firm that would employ such means of advertising ought to be publicly knouted.—Very truly yours, W. H. B.

Baltimore, May 19, 1890.

[We have delayed printing the above letter till we could make the necessary inquiry, with this result: So much of the old walls of the fort as a certain family of this city spared after being checked in its work of converting the whole into quicklime, is undefaced by any advertisement. It is suggested to us that what Mr. Fullerton saw, or reports, is painted on the rocky side of old Mt. Defiance, visible from the railway between the lakes. A number of advertisements here mar the scenery in a disgusting manner.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

Longmans, Green & Co. of Paternoster Row, London, and of 15 East Sixteenth Street, New York, are the second oldest publishing-house in England, dating from 1726, when the first Longman succeeded to the business of William Taylor (who had made his money as the original publisher of 'Robinson Crusoe'). In 1711, fifteen years before the first Longman acquired the house in Paternoster Row on the site of which his descendants still have their place of business, the first Rivington succeeded to the trade of Richard Chiswell, and from that day to this the Rivingtons have been London publishers; but now the news comes that they are about to retire, having sold out absolutely to the Longmans. Thus it happens that of two publishing-houses which have existed side by side in the same city for more than a century and a-half, the younger now absorbs the elder. Both houses have had a connection with America: in 1760 James Rivington came over, and in Philadelphia started the *Royal Gazette*, which was removed to New York during the Revolution; and all through the last century the dealings of the Longmans with the American colonies formed a large part of their business. Within the past few years they have followed the example of the Routledges, Macmillans, and Cassells, and opened a branch in New York.

Mr. F. Marion Crawford's 'A Cigarette Maker's Romance' is set down for publication in July by Macmillan & Co.

The Cassell Publishing Co. will bring out 'Society as I Have Found It,' by Ward McAllister; 'Scouting for Stanley in East Africa,' by Thomas Stevens; and 'Vengeance Is Mine,' a novel.

A new novel by Marion Harland, 'With the Best Intentions,' will appear at an early date with the imprint of Charles Scribner's Sons.

An authorized American edition of 'Lux Mundi' is announced by the John W. Lovell Co.

Estes & Lauriat, Boston, have in press a 'Popular Natural History,' by Prof. J. S. Kingsley, of the University of Nebraska, in two volumes thickly illustrated.

Editions of three of Molière's comedies, and 'A Compendious French Grammar,' by Prof. A. H. Edgren, are in the press of D. C. Heath & Co.

'H. M. Stanley,' by A. Montefiore (F. H. Revell), is a readable account of the great explorer's travels compiled from his published works and recent letters. To many readers the first few pages, relating to his birth and early career before undertaking the search for Livingstone, will doubtless prove a surprise. The book has several maps, but on such a scale that it will be somewhat difficult to trace his various routes across the Dark Continent. Very similar in character and in diction, as it is derived from the same sources, is 'Stanley' (London: E. Nister; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.). It is more profusely illustrated than the preceding work, and the maps, being larger, are possibly more serviceable.

Prof. Masson's seventh volume in his 'Collected Writings of Thomas De Quincey' (Macmillan) groups together sundry "historical essays and researches," including "The Casuistry of Meals"; the futile castigation of Josephus in the matter of the Essenes; three papers on Greece under the Romans, in revolt against the Turks, and in her modern state; the revolt of the Tartars; and Ceylon. To the larger part of this the name historical would now be dubiously conceded, but the literary quality has not been impaired by time. The same firm adds to its popular edition of Kingsley 'Two Years Ago.'

The fifth volume of the new edition of 'Chambers's Encyclopædia' (Philadelphia: Lippincott) carries the work on to Humanitarians. It has not a few American contributions. Mr. G. P. Lathrop writes of Hawthorne, Gen. J. G. Wilson of Grant, Gen. Lew Wallace of President Harrison, and Mr. Henry George briefly sums up in his autobiographical sketch the doctrines which form the body of his economic agitation. Other noticeable articles are on Glass-staining, by William Morris; Hospitals, by Florence Nightingale; Gulf Stream, by Dr. John Murray; Goethe, by Prof. Dowden; Handel, by Sir George Grove; Hogarth, by Austin Dobson; Homer, by Mr. Gladstone, who uses the first person singular throughout, and, as might have been expected, does not shine in condensed exposition; and Hayti, by Sir Spenser St. John, who anonymously assures his readers that "Sir Spenser St. John's *Hayti, or the Black Republic*, gives a truthful picture, at once melancholy and ludicrous, of the utter savagery that is dominant in the western state," reiterates his charge of cannibalism as a feature of vaudooism, and says "the negro republicans have gone back to the lowest type of African barbarism." This is very amusing. The writer on Harvard University, though an American, has, as respects its founder, apparently got no further than Mr. William Rendle's monograph, to which alone he refers, while thinking John Harvard to have been "probably" born in Southwark in 1607. There are good maps of Great Britain, Georgia, and Holland, and the customary woodcuts in the text.

The volume of the *Century Magazine* that closed with April now comes bound to our table. It begins with Joseph Jefferson's autobiography, which in a way becomes the leading feature as Hay and Nicolay's Lincoln terminates. Mr. Kennan has not ceased to write, and Mr. Cole and Mr. Stillman continue their illustration of the old Italian masters. Mr. Lafarge brings his three letters from Japan. There are three enlightening papers on the Congo. Mr. Bryce is honored with a sketch and a fairly good portrait. Mr. Stockton's latest drollery, "The Merry Chanter," furnishes the lightest element. In thus reviewing the table of contents we grudge the permanence and conspicuity allowed to the late Robert

Carter's "The Newness," an inaccurate and misleading reminiscence of our period of sociological ferment.

'Echoes from the *Oxford Magazine*' is the title of a prettily printed collection of English undergraduate prose and verse not unlike the American volumes of 'Verses from the *Harvard Advocate*' and 'Pictures from the *Columbia Spectator*.' There is the usual commingling of sophomoric pedantry and scholarly sportiveness; and of course parody is the chief staple. There are humorous imitations of Herodotus and Walt Whitman, of Canning and Praed, of Mr. A. C. Swinburne and Mr. Andrew Lang, and perhaps this "Ballade of Andrew Lang" is the brightest bit of verse in the collection. An American notices the familiarity of the British undergraduate with the measures of Mr. Bret Harte and of "Hans Breitmann" Leland—both American authors now domiciled in Great Britain. A list of signatures is given from which we are able to declare that the gentleman who signs "Q.," and who has recently published a tale called 'The Splendid Spur,' is Mr. A. T. Quiller-Couch, formerly of Trinity College.

M. Eugène Verconsin has just gathered into a volume a second series of his amusing 'Saynètes et Comédies' (Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern). M. Verconsin's plays are very popular with French amateurs, and probably no French dramatist of our day is more often acted in French parlors. Nearly all his little plays are in one act. There are a dozen of them in this volume; and the majority are cleanly, clever, and likely to be of service to amateur actors in America who dare venture on a performance in French.

The *Popular Science Monthly* for June presents one of the good results of amateur photography in an article by Mr. David A. Wells on the "Evidences of Glacial Action in Southeastern Connecticut." It contains five excellent reproductions of views of large glacial boulders, so characteristic of New England scenery, and so commonly referred to among its prominent features. While the individual boulders here pictured have perhaps received little notice, it is hardly appropriate to open this article by saying that "remarkable evidences of glacial action in southeastern Connecticut seem thus far to have almost entirely escaped the attention of geologists." Connecticut is well known to be a bouldery State.

The camera has also been well employed by Mr. Frederick H. Chapin of Hartford, Conn., in procuring the striking picture of a cliff-dwellers' "palace" or communal home and stronghold in a side gorge of the Mancos Cañon, Colorado, which forms the frontispiece to the *Photographic Times* for June 6. Oriental antiquity is seldom more impressive.

The *Bulletin* of the Boston Public Library was in April changed to a quarterly, and is henceforth procurable for an annual subscription of one dollar, postage included.

The National Central Library at Florence continues its punctilious catalogue of the Palatine codices in Part I. of Vol. 2. The present instalment is, with rare exceptions, of prose MSS. Among the numerous *novelle*, that numbered 500 may be remarked for the name of one of the characters, Antenore degli *Amerighi*.

Dr. Kerner von Marilaun's 'Plant Life' is continued in Parts 118–123 of 'Allgemeine Naturkunde' (Leipzig, and New York: Westermann), with an array of beautiful colored plates equalling any that have gone before in the progress of this popular work.

From the same American agents we receive the first of twelve parts of an 'Allgemeine Geschichte der Litteratur,' by Gustav Karpeles, from the establishment of Grote in Berlin. It promises a lively description, in broad strokes, of the evolution of the world's literature, with careful selections, and with illustrations abundant and authentic, both in black and white and in color. The opening chapters deal with the Orient.

—Westermann & Co. send us the concluding numbers of vols. xv. and xvi. of 'Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon,' and the closely following parts 1–8 of a seventeenth volume which will supplement the main work and bring it down to date. These issues are all very rich in colored and other plates and maps, among which we remark for their interest plans and a section of the new Budapest Opera-house. The article on the United States is open to criticism, and bears marks of a purely book knowledge of this country and the character of its inhabitants. The attempt to sum up the New England traits and physique has a very antiquated air, and misses the qualities which have made, and still make, that section the leaven of the whole country. There is a slip in counting New Mexico among the freshly admitted States, and the article on Washington begins by defining it as a Territory, and ends by recording its promotion to Statehood. From the chapter on education it would be inferred that everywhere in this country colored children are provided with separate schools. The historical summary also cannot be praised; it has no grasp of the slavery issue, and refers to no American work on the subject. President Harrison is said to be the son of General Harrison. The letter Z is considerably swelled by the inclusion of words which, before the days of reformed spelling, began with *c*, as *zement*, *zentral* (*Amerika*), *zeremonie*, *zivil* (*prozess*), etc. The Supplement takes up anew all the leading countries, with Germany and her colonies and Brazil conspicuous in the numbers before us; has a chapter on Africa, of course; deals also with Darwinism, railroad-building, the state of European armies, recent European emigration, mountain chains, the ice age (but, though there is a glacial map of the United States, Wright's 'Ice Age in North America' is overlooked), excavations (particularly on the Acropolis), etc. A list of *Denkmäler*, or historic portrait statues in both hemispheres, is curious and novel, but disregards a great many in this country, *e. g.*, John Winthrop in Boston, St. Gaudens's Lincoln, Houdon's Washington and the Clay at Richmond, etc. The defects we have enumerated do not impeach the worth of this standard dictionary, but emphasize once more the desirability of cisatlantic collaboration in kindred enterprises.

—Since our notice of Paul's 'Grundriss der germanischen Philologie,' the work has been making rapid progress. The second instalment of vol. i. takes us well into, but by no means through, the bulky fifth section upon the history of the Germanic languages. Sievers's introductory chapter upon Phonetics is substantially an abbreviation of his well-known treatise on the same subject, with adaptation to the particular purposes of this compendium. Much longer and more important is Kluge's chapter upon the "Vorgeschichte der altgermanischen Dialekte," by which is meant an account of Germanic speech as it was after it had become differentiated from its Indo-European parent, and before it had broken up into separate dialects. Here we have what is not to be found elsewhere, or is to be found only in a large number of widely scattered books and monographs. An enormous mass of literature is judiciously digested, and the present state of scholarship with respect to the various matters discussed is clearly brought to view. Polemic is in the main avoided, the author's plan being to present only the view which he considers sound, but to give always along with the view a full array of the facts upon which it is based. As to the various theories that have been advanced respecting degrees of relationship among the different members of the Indo-European family, Kluge's opinion is practically a *non liquet*. He does not entirely reject the "tree-and-branch" theory of the Indo-European dispersion, but holds that certain facts are best explained by the "wave" theory of continuous dialectal variation. Word-lists are given which would seem at first to indicate a specially close relation between Germanic and Keltic speech; but then other lists are given which by similar reasoning would point to an equally close kinship of the Germans and the Slavs, or of the Germans and the Latins, or even of the Germans and the Hindus. In short, it is made to appear that if we take any one member of the Indo-European family, we shall find that there are certain words which it shares with Germanic speech and with that alone—a state of affairs obviously irreconcilable with the tree-and-branch theory considered as a complete account of the facts. On the whole, Kluge's exposition is well calculated to show how much less clear this whole subject is than it was a few years ago, in the days of Pictet and Schleicher and Max Müller. Even the theory of a European, as opposed to an Asiatic or Aryan, unity, is regarded by him as an unproved and probably unprovable hypothesis. That he is decidedly agnostic with respect to the origin of case-endings, person-endings, etc., need not be stated. We cannot here enter upon a fuller account of Kluge's essay, which will henceforth be indispensable to specialists in this field.

—The remainder of the second instalment is devoted to a short history of Gothic by Sievers, and a longer history of the Scandinavian languages by Noreen. This last is more ample and more technical than the author's article on the "Scandinavian Languages" in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' but less so than his 'Altnordische Grammatik,' of which the first part, dealing with Old Icelandic and Old Norwegian, appeared in 1884. The monograph before us anticipates the second part of the grammar in that it takes cognizance of Old Swedish and Old Danish. The third instalment of vol. i. contains, besides the conclusion of Noreen's contribution, an admirable history of the German language by Behagel. The histories thus far confine themselves to phonetics and morphology, leaving syntax untouched, and do not come down beyond the mediæval period —which makes them at any rate defective as histories, whatever their good points may be. What has been mentioned thus far belongs to vol. i., but we have also received four instalments of vol. ii. The first contains section 6, upon Heroic Saga, by Symons; a history of Gothic literature by Sievers (suggestive of the famous chapter upon "Snakes in Iceland," though Sievers does not hesitate to talk in his monograph on the Gothic language of the "characteristics of classical Gothic"); and finally a history of Icelandic-Norwegian literature by Mogk. A second instalment is mainly devoted to a history of German literature, the text being written for the older period by Kögel, for the later by Vogt. The literary no less than the linguistic histories stop with the Middle Ages. The other instalments received contain a monograph on Germanic Husbandry by Inama-Sternegg, one on Military

Arrangements (*Kriegswesen*) by Schultz, so short as to be hardly worth inserting, and one on Manners and Customs (*Sitte*) of the Ancient Scandinavians, by Kålund, this last being a translation from the Danish.

SMITH'S RELIGION OF THE SEMITES.—II.

Lectures on the Religion of the Semites. First Series: The Fundamental Institutions. By W. Robertson Smith, M.A., LL.D., Fellow of Christ's College, and Professor of Arabic in the University of Cambridge. D. Appleton & Co. 1889. 8vo, pp. xii, 488.

THE second half of Professor Smith's volume is occupied with the subject of sacrifice. He gives, in fact, a general discussion of the origin, nature, and development of the rite, with illustrations drawn chiefly from the custom of Semitic communities. His view of this question may be called a new one. The prevailing opinion (represented by Tylor, for example) has been that sacrifice in its simplest and most original form was a gift to the gods, either of the nature of tribute, in recognition of their lordship, or a friendly attention designed to avert their anger and secure their favor. Mr. Smith holds, on the other hand, that sacrifice was originally an act of communion between the worshippers and the deity. The grounds for this view he finds in the communal character of early sacrifice, and in certain accessory ideas which show themselves in all primitive communities. Relying on the accessible accounts of savage and semi-civilized life, he insists that as the clan was the primitive social unit, so all worship was the act of the community, in which the individual had a right to share only as a member of the community. The gods, he points out, were kinsmen of their worshippers, and in that character only entitled to honor. Certain widely diffused customs and expressions look in the same direction. The idea which formed the basis of the ancient *lectisternia* was that the god actually partook of the viands prepared; such is the representation in the story of Bel and the Dragon, and such is probably the original conception of the Old Testament expression, "bread of God" (Lev. xxi, 17). Other Biblical expressions which involve the belief that the gods actually consumed food are found in the story of Noah's sacrifice, where it is said that Yahwe "smelled the sweet savor" (Gen. viii, 21), and was pleased, and in Jotham's fable (Judg. ix, 13), where wine is said to cheer gods and men.

The evidence adduced makes the early communal character of sacrifice reasonably certain. The only doubt is whether Prof. Smith is warranted in concluding that this was absolutely the earliest conception of the rite. It would be better to say that the meagreness of the data makes the question uncertain. It is admitted that many ancient sacrifices were of the nature of gifts to the gods, tribute or thank-offering; one common Hebrew sacrificial term (*minha*) means simply gift. There is nothing in what we know of primitive modes of thought opposed to the supposition that man's primary instinct was to propitiate the supernatural powers by gifts. Further, it is a fair inquiry whether the underlying idea in the communal religious meals in which gods and men took part together, was not the desire to propitiate the deity and secure his assistance. The god might indeed be looked on as the natural companion and friend of his fellow-tribesmen; yet, as he was a tribesman of a very peculiar character, the main desire of men may have been to please him by respectful attentions. In a word, the clan-constitution is not necessarily the oldest form of society. Back of this comparatively developed social organization there was probably a looser form of life in which the predominating religious idea may well have been fear of the supernatural powers and desire to appease them.

There is a related point in which the author seems not to guard himself sufficiently. Early religions, he points out, were joyous in their nature, constantly tending to an orgiastic character. There were feasts in honor of or in company with the gods, in which the comfortable consciousness of the divine friendliness naturally led men to give themselves up to excess. There is a hint of this custom in the Deuteronomic prescription that householders were to celebrate the tithe-festival in Jerusalem, turning the produce into money if they lived far from the city: "and thou shalt bestow the money for whatsoever thy soul desireth, for oxen or for sheep or for wine or for strong drink or for whatsoever thy soul asketh of thee, and thou shalt eat there before Yahwe thy god and shalt rejoice, thou and thy household" (Deut. xiv, 26), and the survival of a similar custom, perhaps, in the celebration of the Lord's Supper in the Church of Corinth, where one was hungry and another drunken (1 Cor. xi, 21). Prof. Smith concludes that ancient heathenism was not made for times of sorrow, but for seasons of national prosperity (p. 245). Even in advanced forms of heathenism, he holds, when gods became in some measure the guardians of universal morality, what was gained in comprehensiveness was lost in intensity, and the advance towards ethical universalism was never sufficient to make up for the decline of the old heroic virtues that were fostered by the narrower type of national faith.

This view seems to us to overstate the facts, and not to recognize the true relation between the religious and the ethical developments of life. We have the history of ancient heathenism and of ancient Israelitism only in its more public features. Little or nothing of religious biography has come down to us, but the little that we have presents the worshipper as turning to his god for consolation and help in times of sorrow with the same earnestness and hope that characterize the best forms of religion known to us. The Babylonian penitential psalms, which are not later than the seventh century B. C., show an intensity of religious feeling and a capacity of trust which any worshipper of to-day might be glad to possess. The Babylonians doubtless had their orgiastic festivals, but they had also their seasons of private devotion; and we can hardly doubt that such seasons recurred in the lives of individuals in all ancient communities, Hebrew and heathen. The ethical character of private devotion varied with the stage of social-ethical development: a Hebrew of the time of Gideon or Samson would naturally be inferior in spirituality to a Greek of the circle of Socrates and Plato. Trust in the divinity in times of distress is a natural sentiment which does not depend on the special form of the organization of religion. It is equally erroneous to suppose that the character of human virtue is wholly determined or even essentially modified by the character of religious systems. If a causal relation between the two must be affirmed, it should rather be stated in the converse direction, but it is more accurate to regard virtue and piety as determined in their forms by the same general social conditions, and standing to one another in a complementary relation. What we call the robust virtues of half-organized societies are the product of social conditions, and it is these same conditions that give shape to the characters of gods and the rites by which their favor is gained. To represent later stages of civilization as inferior to earlier in moral robustness is to use this term in an improper sense. Exactly the opposite may be said to be true. What is usually described as the decadent period of Roman life, the age of the Cæsars, produced a type of character which in honesty, courage, and fortitude was certainly inferior to nothing that the early annals of Greece and Rome exhibit. The later Hebrew heroes, such as Nehemiah, Judas Maccabæus, and John the Baptist, are in all respects, to say the least, the equals of those names which adorn the old history.

The progress of organized religion is intimately connected with the development of piacular offerings, a point which Prof. Smith treats at length with the special purpose of determining the origin and religious significance of the piacula. These he regards as going back in their simplest form to a very early period, but as deriving a special significance from later social-national conditions. The ancient annual piaculum, he thinks, was not a means of obtaining forgiveness for the sins of the past year; the explanation was generally sought in a myth founded on the features of the ritual. The sacrifice was often a human victim, as among the Carthaginians and the Arabs of Dumaetha; the Semitic annual piaculum, however, was generally taken to be a commemoration of the death of the god, as in the case of Dido and Adonis. The death of the god was originally simply the death of the theanthropic victim, and the mourning for the dead deity was not originally a lament over decaying nature (though this it came to be in the later developed ritual), but simply the official mourning over the slaughter of a theanthropic victim in whose death the god died.

> "That the god-man dies for his people, and that his death is their life, is an idea which was in some degree foreshadowed by the oldest mystical sacrifices. It was foreshadowed, indeed, in a very crude and materialistic form, and without any of those ethical ideas which the Christian doctrine of the atonement derives from a profounder sense of sin and divine justice" (p. 393).

The piaculum was thus, according to our author, a communion of blood, that is, of life, between man and the god, and issues out of the old conception of kinship and identity of nature between the deity and his worshippers.

Accepting this as the primitive form, there remain to be explained the later mystic sacrifices and the more specific expiatory rites, such as the sin-offering of the Hebrews and their ceremony of the annual day of atonement. For the explanation of those sacrifices, peculiar to mystic rites or to extraordinary emergencies when a sacrosanct victim was chosen whose slaughter would at other times be unlawful, Mr. Smith lays great stress on those historical conditions which tended to break up the old clan-constitution, establish despotic monarchies, and break down to some extent the old national isolation. Mystic rites, he thinks, sprang in great measure out of international thought, and the severe and gloomy type which Israelitish religion assumed in the seventh century under Manasseh he ascribes to a general feeling that the old sacrifices had lost their efficacy, and that more potent means must be adopted to secure the favor of the gods. No doubt some weight is to be allowed to these considerations, but they do not seem to touch the heart of the question. In very early forms of religion we find intense and savage methods of placating the deity. The fundamental fact in the later gloomy aspect of Semitic and other religions is moral

growth, the deeper sense of sin, the generally more serious way of looking at life. The more joyous side of early faiths comes from their childishness; it is the consciousness of grave moral questions that gives gravity, gloominess, or moroseness to religion—the Roundheads are always deeper moral-religious thinkers than the Cavaliers. From this point of view the history of human sacrifice becomes especially interesting. Our author does not treat it consecutively or in detail; he explains it as he does mystic and extraordinary sacrifices in general. Lack of space, no doubt, enforced condensation and brevity, and indeed a full discussion of this rite would require a volume.

The details of Mr. Smith's treatment of his subject must be passed over with the remark that he gives freshness and life to everything he touches. The history of ancient sacrificial ritual is commonly looked on as a dry topic: he has brought it into organic connection with ancient life in such a way as to make it interesting throughout to the general reader as well as to the specialist. The volume is, as we have said, a contribution to the history of early religion. In the Semitic field, especially, his references to native authorities form a valuable bibliography for the scholar. Many of these he has collected himself, and, where he is indebted to others for references, it is evident that he does not quote without personal examination. No reader of the book, whether he agree or disagree with the author in whole or in part, can fail to admire its fulness of learning and brightness and suggestiveness of thought. One could wish that there was a full analytical table of contents; this would help the student to follow the course of the argument, which is sometimes obscured by the mass of details. The difficulty is partly but not wholly obviated by the page headings, which follow the subjects of the paragraphs. There is a fairly good general index.

ENGLAND AND HER COLONIES.

Problems of Greater Britain. By Sir Charles Wentworth Dilke. Macmillan & Co.

THE mere fact that this work is issued by the same publishers, and is uniform in outward appearance, with Prof. Bryce's book on the 'American Commonwealth,' may have much significance. Although nothing has been said to indicate that these are the initial volumes of a library dealing in a scientific way with the political and social problems now seeking solution under various forms of government, the idea of such a library is so admirable that it certainly ought to be carried out. So wide a range of subjects, of the deepest interest to thoughtful and intelligent readers, would be covered by such a library that it is hardly necessary to point out its value, especially if future volumes should be characterized by the accuracy and ability that distinguish those already published.

In 'Problems of Greater Britain' Sir Charles Dilke presents an elaborate study of the condition of the various British colonies, explains the legislative and other differences that exist between them and the mother country, and makes interesting forecasts of their future. Owing to the plan adopted by him of first stating all the important facts relating to each colony, and afterwards recapitulating special groups of facts under such heads as education, religion, etc., there is a certain amount of repetition which, perhaps, might have been avoided; but, as a compensation, the reader who wishes to refer to particular subjects will find his labor lightened by an excellent index.

Newfoundland comes first on the list of colonies, but Sir Charles Dilke has nothing very interesting to say about the land of "cods, dogs, and fogs," except that it is one of the few colonies with a large Irish population which retain their loyalty to the English crown. The valuable fisheries have been the cause of continual diplomatic differences between England and France since the beginning of the century, and at the present moment a settlement proposed by England is being angrily declined by the colony. Owing to the severity of the winter climate, one-third of the revenue has to be expended for the relief of distress, and a great future can hardly be predicted for a land so little blessed by nature.

Coming next to the Dominion of Canada, attention is called to the fact that it is now receiving more British emigrants than Australia. The completion of the Canadian Pacific Railway has opened up an immense and fertile country for settlement, and this, together with some assistance from the British Government, has stimulated the movement of late years; but the feeling against assisted immigration, which has entirely put a stop to it in Australia, has spread to Canada, and experiments in this direction will not be repeated. Since this book was written, there has been a marked falling off in the arrivals of immigrants, as a result of better times in England, and they will continue to fluctuate from such causes. It is rather remarkable that, out of a population of 5,000,000, 4,000,000 are Canadian born, and the rate of increase by natural growth is very rapid, especially among the French-speaking people. Sixty years ago Tocqueville found ten times as many French Canadians in the country as had been there at the time of the British conquest, and he said they were as French as he was, and much more like the French than the Americans were like the English. If their present rate of increase continues, they will be able to hold their own in spite of English immigration, and there is no likelihood, judging from recent Quebec legislation, that they will abandon their language. They are strongly loyal to England, because their ancestors obtained from her political and social liberties which France had refused them, and the sense of obligation seems to have been handed down from one generation to another, as in the case of Alsace. It is often claimed, as in this book, that the tone of politics is higher in Canada than in the United States; but those who are familiar with the way in which things are done at Ottawa, would be unwilling to allow even so modest a claim as this. If we would find a pure political atmosphere among the Anglo-Saxon nations of to-day, we must look for it on the Australian rather than the American Continent.

Sir Charles Dilke regards it as a misfortune for Canada that that "great English writer and powerful controversialist," Mr. Goldwin Smith, should write as strongly as he does against the whole scheme of Canadian confederation. As a matter of fact, however, the majority of Canadians are in favor of the present system, and Mr. Goldwin Smith's political writings have not been successful in the sense of making converts to his views. But while the majority of voters seem to think that the progress of Canada since 1878 has been the result of a protective tariff, it is open to question whether that progress would not have been still greater under free trade. The Dominion has a larger area and a larger population than Australia, and was settled much earlier, yet her trade is smaller and the condition of her working classes decidedly inferior. Canadian manufacturers are suffering to-day, as are Australian manufacturers in a less degree, from over-production, a limited market, and inability to meet European competition in the markets of the world. Those who would change the present system are mostly in favor of commercial union with the United States, but this would mean free trade with us and differential duties against the mother country.

In dealing with the liquor question the Canadians have achieved a remarkable measure of success. The Scott Act, which is a Dominion local-option law, giving power to close rum-shops by a bare majority of votes, without compensation, has not been invariably successful, owing to the imperfection of the machinery for its enforcement; but it has undoubtedly led to a reduced consumption of liquor, so that this is now less per head than in any other English-speaking country. In Ontario, apart from the Scott act, the maximum number of licenses that can be granted in any district has long been regulated according to population, and in recent legislation on the subject the "civil-damages clause" adopted by some of our State legislatures has been incorporated.

Sir Charles Dilke is very hopeful of the future of the Dominion, and expresses his belief that the one drawback to her present position, if she desires to remain unabsorbed by the United States, is the absence of sufficient means of defence in case of war. Other observers are apprehensive of the increasing strength of the Church of Rome, which is more powerful in Canada than in any Catholic country in Europe, and claims 42 per cent. of the religious population. Recent cases in which the Roman Catholic hierarchy has become involved in important political questions would seem to justify the latter view.

Those who are not familiar with the political divisions of Australia, or whose geographical ideas of the great continent are somewhat hazy, will find by looking at the map that by far the most important and most thickly populated British colonies are in the southeast corner. There, side by side, are the rival commonwealths of Victoria and New South Wales. To the north of New South Wales is Queensland, while to the west of Victoria the self-governing colony of South Australia and the crown colony of Western Australia occupy the remainder of the Continent. And here it is well to explain that in the colonies which have responsible government, the Crown has only a veto on legislation—very seldom exercised—and the Colonial Office no control except over the Governor, while the Crown Colonies are to all intents and purposes governed by the Colonial Office. The Crown Colony stage is the first stage in the life of a British colony, and the natural gravitation of Crown colonies towards self-government seems to be as steady as that of self governing colonies towards entire independence. It is a curious fact that Victoria and the colonies to the westward are more loyal to the English connection than New South Wales and its neighbor Queensland; and while Victoria and South Australia are strongly protectionist, New South Wales and Queensland are rather in favor of free trade. It should be added, however, that at present there is a growing popular sentiment throughout Australia in favor of inter-colonial free trade, coupled with protection against the rest of the world; and England finds here as in Canada that the possession of a colonial empire means increased duties on her manufactures.

Interesting comparisons have been made between the free-trade colony of New South Wales and its protectionist rival Victoria; but such comparisons have generally been open to the objection that the important facts were not

all given, and the conclusions were consequently unsound. While it is true that New South Wales has caught up to Victoria both in population and revenue, it must be remembered that the former colony has a much larger area than the latter, and enough coal to supply the Victorian manufacturers as well as her own. It is doubtful whether the New South Wales manufacturers could have maintained their position but for this abundant supply of cheap coal. Until recently the Victorian tariff ranged from 17 to 25 per cent. on the articles taxed, which would not be considered a high tariff in this country; but duties have been materially raised, and there is no doubt that Victoria is now suffering from overproduction, while the depression in the gold-mining industry has been increased by the tariff charges on imported machinery. The low-grade goods, which alone are manufactured there, are produced on such a scale that protection is no longer needed, especially in view of the heavy freight charges on goods imported from England; but the manufacturers, there as elsewhere, are unwilling to admit that such is the case.

In this connection it should be said that protection in Australia differs from protection in the United States in that it is demanded rather by the working classes, in the endeavor to keep up high wages, than by the employers of labor. In the two colonies above named, the hours of labor, wages, and the cost of living are about the same, and on the whole the advantage seems to be slightly on the side of the free-traders; but in spite of this the workingmen's vote in New South Wales, as elsewhere in Australia, is giving the protectionist cause the appearance of gaining ground. A direct issue between the two policies is now being tried, in the effort on the part of each colony to control the trade of the Riverina, a rich settlement on the Murray River where it divides the two colonies; and it seems probable that in this case the free-traders, being able to supply all imported articles at lower rates, will capture the business. Whichever policy may finally prevail, the growth of the external trade of Australia, taken as a whole, is very noteworthy, for in spite of the comparatively small population, it already exceeds the trade of Great Britain at the time of Queen Victoria's accession.

Apart from the tariff question, American readers will be interested in the growth of State Socialism in the Australian colonies. The Australians are of the opinion that the State should build and own the railroads and other public works, and generally act in direct opposition to the Spencerian theory of the proper sphere of government. As far as railroads are concerned, the Government management seems to be excellent. The service is good, the rates are low, and yet the roads earn a fair rate of interest on their cost, and the country at large does not lose by the competitive waste resulting from such a system, or lack of system, as ours. One explanation of this state of things is to be found, in the case of Victoria, in the existence of a Board of Civil-Service Commissioners, organized five years ago, who make all Government appointments on the merit system. The plan of making such appointments non-political has been found to work admirably in practice. Not only is the Victorian civil service the best in the world, but the change has had an equally good effect on the general tone of politics, and the attention of every United States Senator and member of Congress may well be directed to Sir Charles Dilke's account of the matter at page 121. Another experiment, which may be of immense importance to some of our Western States, is now being tried in different parts of Australia, namely, irrigation on a large scale. The outcome of this effort will be watched with much interest, as it is confidently expected that the whole character of the country and its cultivation will be changed; but so extensive are the necessary works that some years must elapse before any very definite result can be arrived at.

In dealing with the liquor question, the Australians have generally adopted local option. As in Canada, there is much less drinking than in England, and the prohibition cause is gaining ground. Sir Charles Dilke says of the people that, while they lack something of the earnestness of the New Englanders, they are beginning to share their temperance and sobriety. The eight-hour day for all laborers has not yet been formally legalized, but it has been universally adopted throughout Australasia, and the working-classes are better off in many ways than those of any European country. Wages are so high that the wage-earners are able to save money and buy property; hence, on the one hand, the absence of any movement to change the present relations of capital and labor, and, on the other, strong opposition to the importation of Chinese laborers and assisted immigrants from England. Throughout Australia there is a marked preference for life in large cities as compared with small towns. Thus Melbourne contains a greater proportion of the people of the State than does any other capital in the world, and Sydney is growing equally fast. This movement is partly due to the admirable railroad facilities, which make the large cities the best markets, and no doubt in part to superior educational advantages and to that love of amusements which is characteristic of the Australian people.

Australian Federation on the Canadian model is growing in favor, and has been partially accomplished. It would have been so entirely but for the long-standing jealousy between New South Wales and Victoria, and New Zealand's fear that, by joining such a federation, she would in effect become a mere dependency of Australia. A more serious matter from the British point of view is, at the present moment, the steady growth of a desire for separation from the mother country. The never-ending Irish question may have a good deal to do with the existence of this desire; but it must also be borne in mind that the bond which unites Great and Greater Britain is largely a sentimental one, and a new generation is growing up in Australia that has no personal knowledge of or sentiment for the old country. Moreover, it is becoming evident that, under the conditions of modern naval warfare, England could not successfully defend her distant colonies if she became involved in a great European war, and the Australians are therefore taking the matter of their own defence into their own hands. While this may be a relief to the British Government, it cannot but tend to weaken the tie between the two countries.

In the British South African colonies a new set of problems is encountered, some of which result from the fact that not only is the native population much larger than the European, but the Dutch population is larger than the English. The relations between the English and Dutch colonists are now on a satisfactory footing, but within a few years they have been far otherwise in consequence of England's unsuccessful attempt to annex the South African Republic, commonly known as the Transvaal. Quite recently the success of gold-mining in the Transvaal has led to a large English immigration, and it begins to look as if the English-speaking population would soon outnumber the Dutch. For the present, however, the Boers insist on the use of Cape Dutch—which, by the way, cannot be understood in Amsterdam—as the official language; and even if this is eventually changed, it is extremely improbable that the republican form of government will change with it; for it appears that English Conservatives—owing doubtless to some peculiarity in the climate—no sooner reach the Transvaal than they become ardent Republicans!

Since 1885 England, Germany, and France have been running a race in the division or acquisition of unoccupied territories both in Africa and among the Pacific Islands, until the new maps are completely colored with different tints marking the possessions or claims of these Powers. The trouble that has now arisen between England and Portugal in relation to territory claimed by both countries in the Zambesi Valley, shows that the boundaries of the different territories or protectorates are not well defined, and as a matter of fact no two of the maps are found to agree. The aggressive policy of the British trading companies has led to the present difficulty, and it is tolerably certain that similar difficulties will arise in the near future, especially if Stanley's forthcoming book should give a favorable account of the interior of the continent.

The importance of India to England is partly political and partly financial. The loss of India, either by Russian invasion or native revolt, or both combined, would mean for England an immense loss of prestige, and a consequent rapid increase in the separatist feeling that already exists in many of the colonies. On the other hand, England's Indian investments in railways and other enterprises are on an enormous scale, and bring in an annual income of sixty or seventy millions sterling, the whole of which would be lost with the possession of the country. Having these facts in view, Sir Charles Dilke devotes much space to the consideration of the best way of defending India from Russian attack by way of Herat and Balkh. He considers that, with the assistance of Afghanistan, which can be counted on during the lifetime of the present Ameer, the precautions already taken by the English at Quetta and other points along the frontier are sufficient, provided the Russians do not advance beyond the line of demarcation agreed upon two years ago; but either the death of the Ameer or a Russian advance on Herat would render the English position very uncertain. India is to-day better prepared for defence than England, but that is not saying much, and any additional expenditure for defensive purposes must be met by an increase of taxation, which is already too high, or by recourse to the British exchequer, which would be very unpopular in England. Moreover, in case of an invasion by the Russians, the English army on the frontier would be menaced by a very serious danger in their rear in the shape of the large armies maintained by the independent native princes. An early disaster would doubtless lead to a repetition of the events of 1857, aggravated by the presence of a successful foreign invader.

Turning to the financial side of the question, the growth of Indian manufactures under a free-trade system has been very rapid—so much so that Lancashire, having some years ago obtained the removal of duties on cotton goods shipped to India, is now driven by increasing Indian competition to agitate for the limitation of the working hours of Indian factory hands. The country seems to be benefited, as Australia is, by Government control of railroads, and no doubt for the same rea-

son—the efficiency of the civil service. But while all European critics admit the excellence of the British Government of India, it is becoming evident that the rulers are not sufficiently in sympathy with the ruled. The educational system inaugurated by Macaulay is bearing fruit in the shape of a rising generation of cultivated natives, who complain loudly because they are shut out from any important share in the government of the country, and the time is at hand when their complaints will have to be met. A move in this direction has recently been tried by giving natives a share in municipal government, but they fully appreciated the labor as well as the honor of such participation, and the native criticism was voiced by one old gentleman who remarked: "Where you formerly got rupees from us you now hope to get both rupees and work." Sir Charles Dilke confirms the reports of other observers in regard to the failure of missionary efforts in India and the East generally. In fact, the Hindus have lately founded Hindu Tract Societies for the propagation of Hinduism, and have started an anti-Christian agitation which has emptied the missionary schools; while in Mauritius it is alleged that the few converts made are practically bought, and are really left without any religion at all.

The most interesting feature in the British West Indian colonies is the success of the system of small holdings and peasant proprietorship as compared with large plantations. The revenue of the colonies, in spite of losses in sugar of late years, is four times what it was before emancipation, and there has been a marked improvement in the education and comfort of the colored people, as also in the social position of prominent individuals of the African race. On the other hand, the white population is steadily decreasing, and in Barbados, for example, there are absolutely fewer white settlers than in the middle of the seventeenth century.

Only a few of the 'Problems of Greater Britain' are here referred to, but enough perhaps to show that Sir Charles Dilke has produced a book which will well repay careful reading. The relations of the British colonies to the mother country are matters of interest to the whole Anglo-Saxon race, and particularly to that part of it which led the way in securing independent government. Statistics showing the growth of different nations are pointing more and more to the probable fulfilment of the celebrated prophecy made by Prévost-Paradol twenty years ago—that the world would one day be owned by three races, the Anglo-Saxon, the Russian, and the Chinese. He foresaw the rapid extension of the Anglo-Saxon race in consequence of its colonizing spirit, and its power of absorbing people of other races and languages—a power which he found wanting in his own countrymen. It is in some such way as this, in the survival of her language and of her traditions of freedom among millions of self-governing people in every part of the world, that England must seek her reward for rearing a family of apparently ungrateful children.

RECENT FOLK-LORE PUBLICATIONS.

Folk-Lore and Legends: Germany, Scotland, Ireland, Oriental. White & Allen. 1889. 4 vols. 16mo, pp. xv, 184; viii, 192; viii, 192; viii, 192.

Ancient Cures, Charms, and Usages of Ireland: Contributions to Irish Lore, by Lady Wilde. Scribner & Welford. 1890. 12mo, pp. xi, 256.

Myths and Folk-Lore of Ireland. By Jeremiah Curtin. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1890. 12mo, pp. vi, 345.

Sixty Folk-Tales from Exclusively Slavonic Sources. Translated, with brief introduction and notes, by A. H. Wratislaw. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890. 12mo, pp. xii, 315.

Pawnee Hero Stories and Folk-Tales. With notes on the origin, customs, and character of the Pawnee people, by G. B. Grinnell. New York: *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co. 1889. 12mo, pp. xxi, 417.

Flowers from a Persian Garden, and Other Papers. By W. A. Clouston. London: David Nutt. 1890. 12mo, pp. xii, 368.

Chinese Games with Dice. By Stewart Culin. Read before the Oriental Club of Philadelphia, March 14, 1889. Philadelphia. 1889. 8vo, pp. 21.

THE interest in folk-lore seems to be steadily increasing in this country, if we may take as a proof of it the large number of works on the subject which have recently been published here, and the substantial support rendered to the American Folk-Lore Society. It is quite natural that at first greater interest should be taken in one particular class of folk-lore—popular tales—for they appeal to both the learned and the unlearned, and may be equally enjoyed by those who see in them sun-myths or survivals of savagery, and by those who find in them only an interesting phase of human fancy. For this reason we shall continue to have for a long time collections distinctly intended for each of these classes of readers, and attempts to attract both by the same work.

Of the works before us, the first two on the list belong to the class of books intended for the general reader, and it is perhaps not fair to subject them to scientific criticism, or to ask of them more than the quality of entertainment. 'Folk-Lore and Legends,' as its name does not very clearly show, is a collection of the popular tales of various countries. The selections are made with taste, and the versions are animated if not always exact. It is to be regretted that the compiler never deigns to mention his sources throughout the four volumes thus far issued. Ten of the stories in volume one are from Grimm's 'Household Tales,' eleven in the fourth volume from 'The Relations of Ssidi Kur' (*i. e.*, Vikram and the Vampire), the others from the numerous older collections of the stories of the several countries.

We have already had occasion to speak of Lady Wilde's contributions to Irish folk-lore. The present volume has the air of being made up of the remnants of other works, pieced out by essays historical, anthropological, and political. The result, as usual, is a very readable volume, although Lady Wilde has again missed the chance of making a serious contribution to Irish folk-lore.

This task, curiously enough, has been reserved for an American, and Mr. Curtin is the first to give to the public a volume of Irish popular tales which may justly be ranked with the best recent collections of popular tales in Germany, France, and Italy. He has collected his stories from the mouths of the people in the West of Ireland (Kerry, Galway, and Donegal), and reproduced them in an animated and apparently true English version. He has prefixed to his book a very sensible introduction on the subject of mythology and folk-tales, and appended a few notes on the proper names and peculiar characters in the stories. The only thing lacking is some comparison between the tales collected by Mr. Curtin and the other collections of Celtic stories, notably Campbell's 'Popular Tales of the West Highlands,' and the recent volume of the Folk-Lore Society, containing Folk and Hero Tales collected by the Rev. D. MacInnes. This is not the place to perform this task, and we can only say that the tales collected by Mr. Curtin offer many new combinations of familiar episodes. An extraordinary example of the preservation of plot (a thing sometimes lost sight of in the discussion of the origin of popular tales) is found in the story of "The Fisherman's Son and the Gruagach of Tricks," which is substantially the story of "The Thief and His Master" (Grimm, No. 68). The same may also be said of "Shaking-head," p. 186, which belongs to the class of stories known as "The Thankful Dead." Although a number of episodes in Mr. Curtin's tales have their counterparts in Campbell and MacInnes, no entire story in Curtin can be found in the other two collections. Mr. Curtin has made a delightful book alike for the scholar and general reader, and it is hoped that he will soon give us more of his Celtic treasures.

The 'Sixty Folk-Tales from Exclusively Slavonic Sources' might easily have been made more valuable had the editor displayed even a slight knowledge of folk-lore in general; but his share in the work consists of an occasional inane remark upon the subject of solar mythology, and a rare reference to Ralston and Grimm. The stories in themselves are interesting, and cover a wide geographical range; and are especially welcome inasmuch as comparatively few Slavic folk-tales have been translated into English, and the linguistic difficulties will always be an obstacle in the way of the student of comparative folk-lore. The present examples do not possess much originality, and, unlike those of Curtin just mentioned, entire stories have counterparts in other collections. Thus, "Long, Broad, and Sharpsight," p. 4, is a variant of Grimm, No. 71, "How Six Men Got on in the World"; "The Three Lemons," p. 63, is "The Love of the Three Oranges" (Crane's 'Italian Popular Tales,' p. 338), and there are other Italian tales with the very same name; "Right Always Remains Right" is "True and Untrue" (Dasent's 'Popular Tales from the Norse,' No. 1); "The Spirit of a Buried Man," p. 121, is a variant of "The Thankful Dead" mentioned above, etc.

From Slavic folk-tales to Pawnee Hero Stories and Folk-Tales is a long stride, and there is little in common between them. Mr. Grinnell's title is somewhat misleading, and his book, although we hasten to say that it is excellent and entertaining, contains almost nothing that can be called popular tales as the words are generally understood. The stories are almost exclusively of adventure. There are two ghost stories, "The Ghost Wife" and "The Ghost Bride," much alike, and one in which animals alone are the actors, "How the Deer Lost His Gall." A certain amount of folk-lore is to be found in the notes on the relationships, customs, and religion of the Pawnees by Mr. Grinnell, who, for the rest, gives a very vivid account of an Indian tribe now rapidly on its way to civilization. No one can read the "Later History" of the tribe without shame for the American people and hope and respect for the Pawnees.

Mr. Clouston has accustomed us to interesting and valuable works from his pen, and his last volume is no exception to the rule. It is made up of a number of papers, mostly on Oriental tales and aphorisms. The title is taken from the first paper, on the "Gulistán, or Rose-Garden," of the Persian poet Saádí,

This is followed by an article on Oriental wit and humor; selections from the Oriental story-book "Tales of a Parrot"; Rabbinical legends, tales, fables, and aphorisms; an Arabian love story; the apocryphal life of Æsop; ignorance of the clergy in the middle ages; and an essay on the beards of our fathers. The editor has drawn upon his extensive knowledge of the East for a host of amusing stories, and there is not a dull page in his book, except, perhaps, in the penultimate paper, which is out of place and not quite fair to the clergy. The book may be enjoyed by any one, and offers a rich harvest to anybody who is fond of hunting up Oriental parallels for modern jokes.

Mr. Culin of Philadelphia has had the happy idea to study the customs of the Chinese in this country, and has already collected and published some valuable materials in this field. He has now directed his attention to Chinese games, and the paper before us deals with Chinese games of dice, and is to be followed by similar accounts of dominoes, playing-cards, and chess. Mr. Culin has obtained his information chiefly from Chinese laborers in this country, and has prepared a paper worthy to be read and preserved.

THE INDUSTRIAL TRANSITION IN JAPAN.

The Industrial Transition in Japan. By Yeijiro Ono, Ph.D. American Economic Association. 1890.

As late as April, 1870, a Japanese noble, standing up in the temporary Parliament at Tokio, and speaking against a proposition to allow partnerships between natives and foreigners, said: "If our people enter into partnerships with foreigners, the lust of amassing gain will breed hatred and quarrels." There is a sentence of Mencius, current in feudal times, which runs: "When superiors and inferiors try to snatch the profit from one another, the country is endangered," and expresses the same orthodox abhorrence and contempt with which the gainful pursuits of commerce and industry were to be regarded by every gentleman. When we realize that exactly this sort of sentiment was ingrained in the dominant class in Japan for many centuries before the Restoration, we can partly understand how stunted and backward was its industrial life, and how great a task of development it has had to undertake. The fact is, that amid the interest roused by the new political life of that nation, we have almost overlooked the conditions of its industrial life.

The keynote of Japan's problem to-day (we do not mean as it appears to a foreigner, but as it comes consciously up to the people themselves) is: How shall the nation take its place in the midst of modern civilization as a factor deserving consideration? This is the question as it was formulated nearly ten years ago by Mr. Fukuzawa, the great Japanese editor, educator, and public thinker, in his 'Complaints of the Times'; and it continues to-day to be the living question. If its political and moral bearings are prominent, it asserts itself also in its industrial aspect, and is resolved into this: How can Japan become industrially and commercially successful in the business life of the world?

Of previous attempts to answer this question the only noteworthy one (Prof. Rein in his 'Industries of Japan' has given less than a page to the discussion of the problem as such) has been that of Gen. C. W. Legendre, in 'Progressive Japan' (New York, 1878). But this work is of very uneven merit, and, albeit perhaps more concrete and practical in some respects, does not compare in breadth of view and carefulness of reasoning with Mr. Ono's 'Industrial Transition in Japan.' Mr. Ono's monograph (though one cannot help noticing a faint odor of the university library) gives us not only an able treatment, but the most comprehensive and helpful one that has yet been afforded. He begins by surveying with some detail the present economic conditions in Japan, summing them up as a primitive and feudal agriculture, manufactures very little beyond the stage of house industries, and a transportation system utterly inadequate. It is worth while to call attention to the misunderstanding which seems to exist, among both native and foreign writers, as to the facts and possibilities of agricultural production in Japan. For example, in a paper by Dr. Latham, quoted in a United States consular report for 1888, it was stated that the average yield per acre of land in Japan was fifty bushels of rice, forty of wheat, or fifty of barley. Now, the yield in fact varies from eighteen to forty bushels of rice, from eight to twenty-two of wheat, and from ten to thirty of barley; the average in wheat and barley for 1887 being twelve and seventeen bushels respectively. Moreover, the small per-capita distribution of land (one-half to one and one-half acres) brings down to a minimum the individual share of the distributed product. Gen. Legendre, for example, compares (1878) the American farmer, with $137 per annum, with the Japanese farmer and his $8 per annum. Mr. Ono compares the English farmer's 544 bushels of wheat per annum with the Japanese and his twenty-six bushels of rice, and perhaps a dozen more of wheat.

Mr. Ono goes on to discuss the special causes which hinder the progress of Japanese agriculture, and finds them to be, first, the poor means of transportation; secondly, the high rate of land-taxes; thirdly, the badly adjusted system of land-holdings; fourthly, the lack of scientific knowledge and modern methods, and a resulting disinclination and inability to carry out improvements and extend the scope of agriculture; and, finally, the backward condition of manufacturing, which should be developed not only for its own sake, but also in the interests of agriculture. It is due to Mr. Ono to point out that he makes clear, as neither Gen. Legendre nor Prof. Rein has seen fit to do, the actual method of calculating the land-tax. The valuation of the land was settled several years ago by taking the average yield for five years, estimating its value at the average prices for five years, calculating the net profit, considering it as 6 per cent., and capitalizing this sum. Upon this valuation the total tax, though nominally 3⅛ per cent. in all, is still equivalent (notwithstanding the recent steady rise in price of rice) to an income tax of 20 per cent. or 25 per cent. Mr. Ono, in placing it as low as 16 per cent., and Mr. Gubbins, in placing it as high as 40 per cent. (in his learned 'British Consular Report on Taxation,' 1884), are both probably in error.

A significant statistical item in regard to the deficiency of transportation facilities Mr. Ono has not noticed: In 1886 (the year of the last translated statistics) the number of freight cars was 1,168, of passenger cars 353, of wagons drawn by animals 14,516, of carriages 1,959; but of carts and wagons drawn by men the number was 474,290, and of jinrikishas 166,058. Moreover, with all the recently projected railroad mileage noticed by Mr. Ono, that actually in operation in October, 1889, was less than 1,000. His suggestions for the improvement of agriculture and the development of manufactures we leave the reader to consult for himself. They are always clearly and carefully expressed, even if not in as much detail as the subject deserves; we wish, though, that he had dwelt more upon the possibilities of stock-raising and the means of obtaining cheap and abundant fertilizers. He might also refer more in detail to the scarcity of capital; that of England, for example, is about $20 per capita, that of the United States $18, of Italy $12, while in Japan it falls to about $5. An enlarged work, based on this monograph, exhaustively treating each of its topics, would be very acceptable from Mr. Ono's hands, and ought to insure him that reward which very few young men in Japan can resist, a secretaryship or directorship in a Government bureau.

We notice one or two slips which may be avoided another time. "The authentic history of the Japanese people" (p. 11) does *not* begin with the date 660 B. C. This error has been exploded for many years, though, to be sure, Prof. Rein and others continue to promulgate it. That "1.9 ri = 1 geographical mile" (p. 71) is true if the German and not the English geographical mile is meant, for the former is just four times as long as the latter. Finally, although the movement of population in feudal times was not large, still it is not true that (p. 20) "there was no way, except that of adoption into a family, by which a man could establish himself in a strange community." Witness, for example, this clause from an old *Kumi-cho* or *Na-yoshei-cho* (a remarkable sort of document, signed jointly by all the members of a village, pledging faith with each other to the observance of certain rules): "Any person coming from any other part of the country and asking permission to live in the village will be permitted to do so on naming a responsible person as security for his behavior." It is well known, too, that various daimios offered inducements to immigrants from other provinces who should come and reclaim waste land. The restriction Mr. Ono mentions existed, if at all, for samurai (the military class) only.

John Jay. By George Pellew. [American Statesmen.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890.

THIS is an interesting book, well thought out and well written, in spite of occasional ambiguities. The proof-reading, however, has been careless. Thus, we read "Rhode Island" for Long Island (p. 83), "Philadelphia" for Poughkeepsie (p. 257), and we are informed that "le papillon neutre" does not neutralize an enemy's merchandise (p. 310). To do so would be serious work, indeed, for a butterfly.

To American lawyers, John Jay is perhaps best known as the man who was willing to cease to be Chief Justice of the United States in order to become Governor of New York. This conduct is the more inexplicable that Jay was a decided Federalist and a man of quiet and scholarly character. Mr. Pellew has not made the course of his hero comprehensible in this respect. "I left the bench," said Jay, when asked to return to it by President Adams, "perfectly convinced that under a system so defective it would not obtain the energy, weight, and dignity which was essential to its affording due support to the national Government, nor acquire the public confidence and respect which, as the last resort of the justice of the nation, it should possess." It would be interesting to know the reason of Jay's dissatisfaction with the position of the Supreme Court under the Constitution. After his refusal the President

appointed John Marshall to the Chief-Justiceship, since whose day the office has certainly never been thought deficient in weight or dignity.

It was as a diplomatist that Mr. Jay rendered the most valuable services to his country. Mr. Pellew gives a very clear and interesting account of the negotiations for peace in 1782 and 1783. The history of that transaction cannot be finally written until M. Doniol shall have given us his fourth volume, and until the Stevens manuscripts shall all be published. (Mr. Pellew has had access to an elaborate digest of the latter, with quotations, and has made good use of it.) But there is little doubt that everything essential in the questions between the United States and France concerning the peace is now known. The suspicions of Jay, that Vergennes was consulting the interests of Spain rather than those of the United States, appear to have been well founded. Under those circumstances the course taken by the American commissioner was bold, wise, and patriotic.

Mr. Pellew does not attribute to John Jay the more showy qualities by which popularity is generally attained. Yet there was evidently something in the silent and reserved man which extorted not only the respect of statesmen, but the admiration of the people. He was not a very great man, but the success of a government, of whatever form, must depend in large measure on its ability to pick out and support such men as he.

Les Normands dans les deux Mondes. Par G.-B. de Lagrèze. Paris. 1890. 12mo.

Readers of Du Chaillu's 'Viking Age' who are disappointed by his meagre sketch of the wanderings and exploits of the Northmen, will find them set forth by M. de Lagrèze in the attractive style which we are accustomed to expect from skilled French writers. The subject is an interesting one, not only to the reader for amusement, but to the historical student. We are led to ask ourselves what was the peculiar combination of race characteristics that enabled the populations of the Danish and Scandinavian peninsulas, so scanty in numbers, to achieve results so unparalleled. From the eighth to the tenth century scarce a corner of Europe was secure from their ravages. In their frail, open boats they dared the most tempestuous seas on long voyages. They occupied Iceland and Greenland, they coasted along the American continent, they plundered the shores of all the lands lying around the Mediterranean. But it was not only on the water that they made themselves feared by the most warlike communities of the time: leaving their boats, they made long expeditions inland, pillaging, burning, and destroying. Occasionally worsted in a pitched battle, they were more often victorious, and defeat seemed only to bring forth new swarms from the inexhaustible Northern hive. The conquests of England and of Normandy were not the most remarkable of their achievements. They dominated Russia, and the House of Rurik commenced the process which welded that formidable Power into an organized nation. From Russia they penetrated as far as Armenia to the East, and twice they reached and threatened Constantinople. Even after the Viking age had passed, history has no more romantic episode than the founding of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies by the sons of Tancred of Hauteville.

The influence of the race on the destinies of Europe has been greatly disproportionate to its numbers, not so much, perhaps, by establishing dynasties as by the infusion of its blood in other peoples. A very curious problem suggests itself, which our author leaves untouched: how it came to pass that the conquerors of the tenth century, whose name was everywhere a terror, fell during the later middle ages and in modern times into a position so comparatively unimportant. The Northmen are still admirable sailors, as the flourishing mercantile marine of Norway amply attests. The dauntless energy of the old sea-rover has adapted itself to peaceful pursuits, fitting the industrial tendencies of the age, and the only representatives of the Viking spirit have been Gustavus Adolphus and Charles XII.; but the exploits of neither of these heroes left any permanent effect upon the destiny of their land. Sweden and Norway maintain their independence on the sufferance of Russia, and Denmark on that of Germany. Only the mutual jealousy of the greater Powers prevents their absorption, and the descendants of Regner Lodbrog and Hrolf the Ganger may at any time lose their distinctive nationalities. It is an instructive history from beginning to end, and the picturesque elements of its early development are attractively set forth by the practised hand of M. de Lagrèze.

Handbook of Descriptive and Practical Astronomy. By George F. Chambers. 4th ed. Vol. II. Instruments and Practical Astronomy. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.

In reviewing the first volume of Mr. Chambers's great work, we spoke of its encyclopædic character and fulness of information. These qualities shine so conspicuously in the second volume, now before us, that a review in the ordinary sense is scarcely possible. It treats of instruments and practical astronomy, but the treatment is radically different from that adopted in technical works on the subject. Instead of intricate mathematical discussions, the reader has before him scores of illustrations showing on a large scale something about every telescope of note that has ever been made, from the imperfect instruments of Galileo and Newton to the huge tubes of Herschel and Ross and the refined telescopes of Pulkowa and California. The amateur astronomer and the general reader will find everything that a reasonable man could be expected to know about instruments of every class, as well as about building and fitting up an observatory and making observations on the heavenly bodies.

The minute bibliographical references and the extended catalogue of writings upon the various branches of astronomy render the book important to the professional worker. Like the preceding volume, it frequently shows a lack of discrimination in judging what to put in and what to leave out. But the critic can take no pleasure in seeking for defects in so magnificent a labor of love as that in which the author is engaged, and we cordially recommend his work to all lovers of the science who wish to be acquainted with that view of it most interesting to the general reader.

Crónicas Potosinas. Costumbres de la Edad Medieval Hispano-Americana. Por Vicente G. Quesada. Paris: Biblioteca de la Europa y América. 1890. 2 vols., pp. 520, 492.

These latest volumes of the veteran Argentine writer, who is now Minister from his country at Washington, are almost wholly made up of articles of his which have appeared in the *Revista de Buenos Ayres*—a periodical of which he was the founder and for a long time the editor. As their title indicates, they have to do with the life and manners of the old viceroyalty of Upper Peru, now mostly Bolivian territory. Señor Quesada follows Franciscan and other chroniclers of discovery and exploration. He opens with a long account of the discovery of the mines of Potosí, and adds a few biographical sketches, together with versions of native legends and several historical tales. The dramatic movement of the latter is usually overborne by their historical interest, though some of them present the germs of excellent historical novels. As will be seen, the unity of Señor Quesada's work is to be found in time and place rather than in a single theme. He has gathered together a great many curious data in regard to a society of which the two main elements were the leaders of civilized Europe and the leaders of savage America, thrown into close contact, and lays the whole before his readers in a correct and agreeable style. The volumes are well worth attention, quite apart from the interest attaching to them in these Pan-American days.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Brine, Mary D. "Bonnie Little Bonibel" and her "Day Off." E. P. Dutton & Co. 75 cents.
Brown, J. M. The Political Beginnings of Kentucky. Louisville: John P. Morton & Co. $2.50.
Bullard, Prof. A. Arrows; or, The True Aim in Teaching and Study. A. S. Barnes & Co. 75 cents.
Bullen, A. H. Poems, Chiefly Lyrical, from Romances and Prose-tracts of the Elizabethan Ages. London: John C. Nimmo.
Carstensen, A. R. Two Summers in Greenland. London: Chapman & Hall.
Chambers's Encyclopædia. New ed. Vol. V. Friday to Humanitarians. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.
Dawson, W. H. Bismarck and State Socialism. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.
Du Chaillu, P. Adventures in the Great Forest of Equatorial Africa and the Country of the Dwarfs. Harper & Bros.
Fawcett, E. A Daughter of Silence. Belford Co. 50 cents.
Frazer, J. G. The Golden Bough: A Study in Comparative Religion. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $6.50.
Friday's Child. E. P. Dutton & Co. 75 cents.
Gomme, G. L. The Village Community, with Special Reference to the Origin and Form of its Survivals in Britain. Scribner & Welford. $1.25.
Griswold, W. M. Directory of Writers for the Literary Press, particularly in the U. S. 3d ed. Bangor, Me.: W. M. Griswold.
Harrison, Jennie. Whose Fault? E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Howells, W. D. The Shadow of a Dream. Harper & Bros.
Humann, K., and Puchstein, O. Reisen in Kleinasien und Nordsyrien. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer.
Lawson, J. D. Rights, Remedies and Practice. Vol. V. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.
Ludlow, Rev. J. M. The Captain of the Janizaries. New ed. Harper & Bros.
Magnus, Lady K. Outlines of Jewish History (B. C. 586—C. E. 1890). Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society of America.

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A Son of Issachar. By E. S. BROOKS. A Romance of the days of Messias. 12mo, pp. vi + 293, $1.25.

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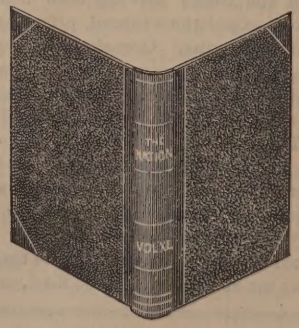

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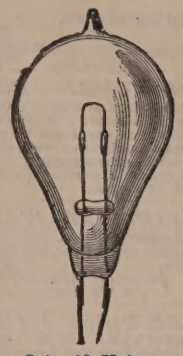

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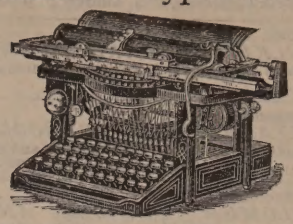

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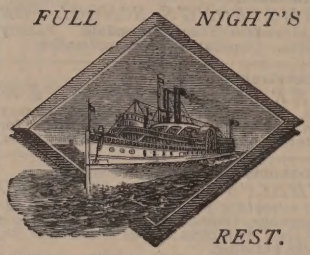

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 19, 1890.

The Week.

ALTHOUGH the Senate has passed the bill providing for the free and unlimited coinage of silver, the bill is very far from being a law, and the chances are decidedly against its becoming a law at this session of Congress. The House and the President are still to be reckoned with. The House may, by a close vote, ratify the Senate's action, but it is almost certain that the President will veto the bill. He will do this because the consequences to the public finances and to private business of a change in the standard of value are too serious to be incurred voluntarily. They must be fought off as long as possible by all who hold positions of responsibility. Grant that there are differences of opinion as to what the consequences will be, still everybody knows that there will be a change of some kind. Everybody knows, too, that the Administration will be held responsible politically for any damage that may be done.

The bill as passed by the Senate really goes much further than free coinage. Free coinage means that any holder of silver bullion may deposit it at the mint to be coined for his private account. The Government is under no obligations to pay immediately to the depositor of the bullion the number of dollars his deposit calls for, but usually does so because it has a surplus, and because the amounts deposited are usually no greater than it can turn into coin within a short time, thus reimbursing itself. This bill, in section 5, requires the Secretary of the Treasury to issue paper certificates at once for all the bullion deposited, and another section makes the paper certificates legal tender for both public and private debts. This is a truly bedlamite scheme. It proposes to lower the standard of value about 25 per cent. at one jump. A free-coinage bill pure and simple would change the standard of value none the less surely and none the less in ultimate extent, but the change would be gradual, because coinage takes time. The premium on gold would declare itself at once, but it would be small and would increase little by little. The experiment would thus be tentative, as it should always be in such grave cases. The people would have time and opportunity to inform themselves as to the ultimate effects of the measure without incurring any very serious disaster. Section 5 cuts away the scaffolding completely, and allows the whole fabric to fall at once the entire distance between silver and gold. It devises the greatest possible disaster in the least possible time. The Supreme Court unfortunately opened the door for this kind of disaster by its latest legal-tender decision. At all events, the Senate so understands it, although there may be some doubt whether the decision applies to Treasury certificates of deposit as well as to United States notes.

Senator Edmunds read a severe lecture to the fifteen Republican Senators who separated themselves from the majority of the party on this bill. The Senate bill was a caucus measure, although, of course, a caucus could not be considered technically binding in a case where the platform of the party was indecisive, if indeed it could be considered binding on any merely legislative measure. The significance of the break and of Mr. Edmunds's remarks upon it does not depend upon the action of the caucus, but upon the broad fact that a minority of Republican Senators separated themselves from the majority, and from the Administration, on a really vital measure, a measure known to be fraught with the gravest political consequences. The shattering effect of the vote upon the cohesive and effective strength of the Republican party will be very great, and probably irreparable during the present session of Congress. The Democrats, of course, go for anything that will divide or embarrass the Republicans. The Republicans did the same when they voted to reject all of Mr. Bayard's treaties, and refused to say how the treaties might be made acceptable to them.

The *Mexican Financier* of May 31 has a very lucid article on the silver question, taking for its text the bills in the American Congress providing for increased purchases of bullion. The question discussed by the *Financier* is whether such increased purchases will have the effect to advance the price of silver, and, if so, whether the advance is likely to be maintained. It thinks that some advance due to speculation is probable, but it gives good reasons for believing that it would not be permanent, since it would stimulate the production of silver, and bring into working a great many mines that have been abandoned in the past because they could not be profitably worked. The effect on silver mines would be the same as that produced on copper mines by the operations of the French syndicate. Every pennyworth of advance in the price would reopen some hole in the ground that had been abandoned because it would not return a new dollar for the old one spent in working it. The discovery of new mines would be correspondingly stimulated, and the result would be, as the *Financier* puts it, "a temporary rise in silver, followed in two or three years by a tremendous reaction, to the disturbance of all values."

The House has just passed another pension deficiency bill for the fiscal year now closing—this one being for the sum of $3,708,898, and in addition to a previous bill of the same sort requiring $21,613,009. The regular pension appropriation bill passed at this session covers $98,427,461, and the Dependent Pension Bill, which has already passed the House and will soon pass the Senate, calls for $35,000,000 at the lowest estimate of its friends—though it is much more likely to require double that sum. Accepting the lowest estimate, and adding a number of millions for the maintenance of the Pension Office, soldiers' homes, and other purposes connected with the pension system, Mr. Henderson of Iowa figures out a grand total of $167,824,735 already appropriated by the House on pension account since it met last December. But even this vast sum falls far short of the "*demands*" of the Grand Army Machine.

The only question as to any Republican measure proposed in the House of Representatives is, whether Speaker Reed wants it to pass. If he does, it will go through; if he does not, that is the end of it. The Speaker has made up his mind that there ought to be a Federal Election Law, and the party caucus on Thursday night practically agreed upon a measure which he will put through the lower branch of Congress in short order. Mr. Reed hopes to give the scheme sufficient impetus at his end of the Capitol to carry it through the branch which sits at the other end, and which thus far has not developed a parliamentary dictator.

The carpet-manufacturers, through Mr. Chas. F. Fairbanks, chairman of a committee appointed for the purpose, have addressed a brief statement to the Senate Finance Committee on the subject of the duties on carpet-wool in the McKinley bill. They point out some "fine work" in the wool schedule that had escaped the attention of the public, and was probably not known to a dozen members of the House when the bill was passed. One clause of the bill provided that wool that has been "sorted" shall pay double rates. Carpet-wools are generally sorted before shipment. If this practice continues in the foreign countries where they are grown, the duty on the lower grades, costing less than 13 cents per pound, will be 64 per cent. ad valorem, instead of 32 per cent., as the bill apparently makes them. By another intricate device the washing of wool is punishable by a fine of 18 per cent. If the wool is worth in the foreign market 13 cents or less per pound, it is taxed 32 per cent.; if over 13 cents, 50 per cent. But the mere washing of the inferior grade makes it worth over 13 cents, and thus throws it into the 50 per cent. schedule. The quality of the wool has not been changed, but the elimination of dirt and grease has raised its dutiable character from 32 per cent. to 50 per cent. The wool-growers are a cunning lot. It was supposed that when they consented to the 32 and 50 per cent. schedule, they had abandoned their extreme pretensions, but it appears now that

they did so in appearance only. What they set out for was a duty sufficiently high to make the growing of carpet-wool in this country profitable—a perfectly Quixotic undertaking, as everybody, except Uncle Jerry Rusk and Statistician Dodge, knows.

The "original-package" question takes on a new phase with the discovery that Pittsburgh commission merchants are utilizing the recent decision of the Supreme Court to evade the Oleomargarine Law, by selling the stuff in the original packages in which it is imported from other States. Of course, the commission merchant is as perfectly protected in such traffic by the decision as is the liquor-dealer in selling his wares, and, equally of course, the bill recently passed by the Senate to meet the difficulty about liquor does not touch the matter of oleomargarine. It is safe to say that the Farmers' Alliances and other such organizations will be heard from without delay, and that they will insist upon the immediate passage of a law regarding oleomargarine.

It is hard work to keep up with the pace of the Farmers'-Alliance movement out West. A meeting of the branches of the organization in Cloud and Ottawa Counties, Kansas, was held recently, which adopted sundry resolutions incorporating their demands in the way of legislation, and followed them up with the following extraordinary declaration: "Resolved, That after the first day of December, 1890, we will pay no more taxes, coupon, interest, or mortgaged indebtedness, unless the Government aid us in procuring the money as above mentioned, or in any other manner equally favorable." Of course resolutions of this sort are often rushed through a convention without any proper appreciation of their meaning, but it is unfortunate that such deliverances should ever be made.

The Springfield *Republican* makes a very thorough exposure of the defence set up by some prominent Republican newspapers that, as Quay made good the amounts he took from the State Treasury, he did no wrong in taking them. That this doctrine should be put forward in sober earnest by the members of what was once a moral and religious party, must surely be set down as one of the astonishing occurrences of the past half century. Still another defence, nearly as extraordinary, has come from the same quarter—that Quay is not blameworthy in robbing the State of Pennsylvania because Calvin S. Brice owes the State of Ohio $200,000 in taxes. The Ohio courts have just destroyed this defence by deciding that Brice does not owe the State of Ohio any taxes. But think of the state of mind of the men who set it up—the mental and moral obtuseness it displays. Should we marvel over it when we remember that the President of the United States Senate, a United States Senator of eighteen years' standing, in the one hundred and fourteenth year of the American Republic, and in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and ninety, deliberately and thoughtfully promulgated the following code of morality as the proper one for the government of Americans in the transaction of their domestic government affairs?

"The purification of politics is an iridescent dream. Government is force. Politics is a battle for supremacy. Parties are the armies. The Decalogue and the Golden Rule have no place in a political campaign. The object is success. To defeat the antagonist and expel the party in power is the purpose. The Republicans and Democrats are as irreconcilably opposed to each other as were Grant and Lee in the Wilderness. They use ballots instead of guns, but the struggle is as unrelenting and desperate and the result sought for the same. In war it is lawful to deceive the adversary, to hire Hessians, to purchase mercenaries, to mutilate, to kill, to destroy. The commander who lost a battle through the activity of his moral nature would be the derision and jest of history. This modern cant about the corruption of politics is fatiguing in the extreme. It proceeds from the tea-custard and syllabub dilettanteism, the frivolous and desultory sentimentalism of epicenes."

The following is a specimen of the new morality which the Republican press is producing under the influence of the Quay and Wanamaker thefts. It comes from the Milwaukee *Evening Wisconsin*. The attempt, it says,

"to create sympathy for the English publishers of the Britannica, who have invested a million dollars in their work, is absurd. They are manufacturers of certain articles, and no one disputes that they are entitled to the proceeds of the sale of all those articles which they manufacture, but their claim to the proceeds, or any part of the proceeds, of similar articles manufactured by Mr. Wanamaker is, to say the least, very shadowy. The probability is that when the Messrs. Black, the publishers of the Britannica, went into the enterprise, they calculated all its chances, and that they have already made a profit out of it, and perhaps as much or more than they expected. At any rate, they made a purely commercial venture, and if they miscalculated their profits, that is their affair."

See how the editor works in here the dexterous falsehood that Wanamaker, in selling the Blacks' Encyclopædia, is selling something of his own "manufacture." See, also, how he gets in the Bedouin argument, that a man who ventures among thieves with his property has no right to complain if his anticipation that he may be robbed is fully realized. He knew the kind of place the Desert was, and if he did not like being robbed, why did he travel in it? Besides, why should a man who has made money by the sale of a portion of his property feel sore if somebody steals the rest? Other people want to make money out of it as well as he. Owners must not be hoggish with thieves.

The undisputed renomination for Governor of the incumbent, who is now serving his first term, leaves the platform as the only interesting feature of Thursday's Republican Convention in Maine. This platform is most significant for its omissions. One of them was the following resolution, which the Committee was asked to insert, but refused to do so:

"Resolved, That we favor the honest enforcement of the Civil-Service Laws."

Another proposed resolution, which the same committee refused to admit, reads as follows:

"Resolved, That we favor a sound currency, with gold and silver made equal."

But by far the most important omission of all was that of the following resolution, which was presented by the editor of the Portland *Advertiser*, a Republican newspaper, in behalf of the Young Men's Republican Club of his city:

"Resolved, That the purity of the ballot is the safeguard of the State and nation; to surround it with every possible protection is a part of good government, and to this end the Republicans of Maine endorse the secret system of voting with official ballots. It is no longer an experiment in American States, but an established success. It reduces the expense of elections to a minimum, and is the simplest and most effective preventive of bribery, intimidation, and other forms of corruption at the polls yet instituted."

The explanation of these omissions is the fact that the Convention was run by the Republican "boss," Postmaster "Joe" Manley of Augusta, and other Federal office-holders, who "have no use for" civil-service reform, sound currency, and, least of all, a secret-ballot law which would stop the present system of bulldozing and bribing men to vote the Republican ticket. A fine flavor of hypocrisy was lent the proceedings by an indefinite declaration in favor of "an elective system free from corruption and fraud," after the Committee had rejected by an overwhelming majority a plank in favor of a specific system; and by a further declaration in favor of "a free ballot and a fair count" in the South, after the Committee had refused to approve a system of proved efficiency for those purposes in Maine. What a hearty contempt for such performances would William Pitt Fessenden entertain if that vigorous-minded Maine Republican of the old school were still alive!

The Buffalo *Express* has begun to print biographies of officials of that city, a process which would probably do good in all the large cities, as there is nothing, except the penitentiary, which the class by which many American cities are ruled so much dreads as having their past lives explored for the information of the public. There are very few of them indeed who get into conspicuous offices by means which they would like to have described. The public, when one of them makes his way into a responsible municipal office, is apt to suppose, by a very natural association of ideas derived from the experience of private business, that he is a person who has had some sort of preparation for the duties of his place. It therefore listens with a certain respect to what in Tammany circles would be called his "guff" about the way in which cities should be governed, streets should be paved, or cleaned, or lighted, or policed; the fact being, in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, that these are things on which he has never bestowed any attention whatever, and about which he is unfitted by his mental and moral condition to form any ideas worth expressing. The art of getting into office in large cities is the only one which he cultivates. About the art of administering cities he knows little more than any other ignorant and vicious man. There is, perhaps, no better way of bringing this important fact home to the voter than the publication of such particulars

of their careers as can be got at. The whole story can hardly ever be told, because a large part of the lives of municipal politicians is what may be called subterranean, and is known only to their "pals" or "cronies," who will not "split" or "squeal" on them, except in case of a quarrel; and quarrels in their world are seldom serious.

The meeting which has been called at the Windsor Hotel on the evening of June 24, "to organize a citizens' movement for the purification of municipal politics by non-partisan nominations," is an encouraging sign. Bishop Potter, the Rev. Dr. Newton, Messrs. Seligman and Claflin, and their associate signers to the petition, set a good example to their fellow-citizens in thus coming to the front to give form and direction to respectable public sentiment in the city. We hope their example will be so inspiring that, when the meeting shall assemble, it will be found to be in the fullest sense representative of the intelligence and character of New York. We observe that already the partisans of both political parties look askance at the movement. Mr. Steinway, speaking in behalf of Tammany Hall, says citizens' movements of all kinds are unnecessary, since Mayor Grant's conduct of the Mayor's office has been so thoroughly commendable that he deserves a reëlection. Mr. Strong, speaking in behalf of the Republican organization, says that he is in favor of no movement which does not have in view the nomination of a "straight Republican ticket." Here we have the old familiar situation, the inevitable outcome of which would be the reelection of Mayor Grant or some other Tammany figurehead.

Between these two extremes the course of the citizens' movement must be directed. It should be borne in mind by its promoters that, this being a heavily Democratic city, with two Democratic voters for every Republican voter, the right of the majority to rule makes it imperative that a citizens' candidate who is to be elected should be a Democrat. He need not be, and ought not to be, a partisan Democrat, but, unless he is going to be run simply for form's sake, he must be a member of the Democratic party. To ask Democrats, in a city in which they number two-thirds of the voters, to elect as Mayor a Republican, is to ask them to confess that their own party has no man who is fit to fill the office. They never will consent to make that confession, and this fact must be admitted at the outset, and must be taken into account in selecting a citizens' candidate, or the movement will end in failure. The question is simply whether a Tammany man or an upright and able Democrat shall be elected. Mr. Steinway says that Mayor Grant is perfectly satisfactory to the Tammany Democrats, and he is undoubtedly right; but if the citizens' movement were to result in putting into the field a Democratic candidate of unimpeachable character, we venture to predict that Mayor Grant would not be renominated. On the other hand, if that movement were to result in the nomination of the most eminent and respectable Republican in the city, Mayor Grant's renomination would inevitably follow; and his reelection would follow also, whether there were a rival Democratic candidate in the field or not, simply because the Democrats, with their enormous majority, will not consent to be ruled by a Republican minority.

A modern legislator's portrait of himself has been drawn by State Senator Fassett of Massachusetts. He was charged with having offered to sell his own vote and the votes of several colleagues to a corporation, and appears to have cleared himself of the charge. But his own account of his conduct, as summarized by the Worcester *Spy*, shows this: "He was on such terms with the lobby that he ran at their summons by telephone to confer with the representative of an elevated-railroad scheme. He waited this great man's convenience in his office; received from him, apparently without surprise, though without approval, a suggestion that he should undertake to carry the measure by bribery, and afterwards wrote a friendly letter informing the man who had offered him this grievous insult that he had decided to support a rival enterprise, and therefore did not think it worth while to have another interview." The *Spy* is inclined to condemn this sort of thing, but it is hardly consistent for Republican organs which have nothing to say against a Quay to protest against a Fassett.

The English Ministry is in a condition of serious perplexity. The session is drawing near its close—there are only about two months of it left—and there are three measures of great importance to be passed—the Irish Land-Purchase Bill, the Welsh Tithes Bill, and the section of the Inland Revenue Bill which provides for an additional tax on beer and spirits to make a fund to enable County Councils to buy out liquor-dealers. To every one of these there is bitter opposition in the Liberal ranks, but it might be got over as regards the two first if it were not for the last, which divides even the Tories themselves, and rouses the moral and religious sentiment of the country as it has not been roused for many a day. Apparently all three cannot be passed in the teeth of the obstruction which is certain to be offered, and the question under discussion in the Tory ranks is which shall be abandoned. To abandon any of them is a confession of weakness which it is very dangerous to make so near a general election. To try to pass them all is to court defeat along the whole line. Lord Salisbury's proposal to revise the rules so as to enable one or more of them to be carried over to the next session as unfinished business, appears revolutionary. According to the immemorial usage of Parliament, a bill is killed by the close of the session. To sit on into the summer and fight, is to alienate all the sporting men—a powerful contingent in the Tory ranks—and incur increasing difficulty in maintaining majorities on minor divisions. To have an autumn session is probably even more distasteful to the same class. So the situation is one of extraordinary difficulty and peril, and may lead to a dissolution before the session closes.

The poison of the licensing bill lies in the fact that everybody believes it to be a Tory bid for the support of the liquor interest. Mr. Ritchie tried to tack on the principle of compensation for the publicans to his bill establishing the County Councils, in the teeth of a long line of judicial decisions that a license to sell liquor was not property, and, therefore, not a vested interest. He abandoned it before the storm of opposition it then excited. Its reproduction now by Mr. Goschen as a rider to the internal-revenue bill seems a revival of the old and much condemned project, with the same motive—that is, to win over the liquor-dealers for the general election—and increases the exasperation of the temperance people, and of tens of thousands of others who are not temperance people, but who are opposed to the conversion into property of the privilege of selling alcoholic drinks. Cardinal Manning has a strongly denunciatory article on the scheme in the last *Nineteenth Century*.

That Mr. Stanley has very nearly taken the Government of Great Britain out of the hands of Lord Salisbury, as regards the African question and the negotiations with Germany, seems to be the apprehension of the *Economist*, which makes an urgent appeal in behalf of diplomacy and against the town-meeting method of disposing of territories larger than the whole of Europe.

> "If the public," it says, "are to come crashing in prematurely with their general ignorance, and rough, broad views, and profound dislike of giving up anything, the diplomatists will cease to be free, and arrangement will speedily become impossible. . . . The public need not fear the possessions will not be large enough. The German Emperor will find before he has done that for a non-maritime Power colonies are costly possessions, while, as to ourselves, our only apprehension is, that we shall find ourselves with a sort of new world on our hands, demanding a new supply alike of energy and troops."

The statement of the *Economist* that the public need not fear that the possessions will not be large enough is eminently true, and ought to be the keynote of British policy. The danger is that the possessions will be too large for a country that is already charged with the task of governing a sixth part of the earth's surface. Mr. Stanley and Lord Salisbury are both right from their different standpoints. Englishmen discovered Central Africa. Under the rules which prevail, and always have prevailed, touching the possession of barbarous lands, England's right to the countries which Germany claims is as good as her right to the country of the Niger or the Shiré district. If the ideas which prevailed in the eighteenth century were still dominant in European councils, she would hold all these vast territories, or fight for them to the last extremity. Yet it may be money in her pocket to let Germany have what she wants in that quarter. She may be a stronger Power by not enlarging her responsibilities.

THE PENSION SETTLEMENT.

THE two branches of Congress, after some weeks of dispute over their rival pension schemes, have at last come to an agreement. The compromise was ratified by the House on June 11, and there is no doubt of the Senate's concurrence. The original measure of the Senate was a Dependent Pension Bill of the same character as the one vetoed by President Cleveland three years ago; while the feature upon which the House long insisted was the introduction of the service-pension policy, by granting a pension of $8 a month to every soldier who is now sixty years old or hereafter reaches this age. The Senate was so determined in its hostility to this idea that it has forced the House to drop it, but in turn it has been obliged to make its own measure more sweeping than it was at first.

Like all important extensions of the pension system made during recent years, this bill is passed without any clear idea as to what will be its practical effect. The chief feature is that which provides that all soldiers who served as long as three months and were honorably discharged, "and who are now or who may hereafter be suffering from a mental or physical disability of a permanent character, not the result of their own vicious habits, which incapacitates them from the performance of manual labor in such a degree as to render them unable to earn a support," may receive a pension of from six to twelve dollars a month, "proportioned to their inability to earn a support." Another section provides that the widow of any soldier, whatever the cause of his death, who is "without other means of support than her daily labor," may receive a pension of eight dollars per month during her widowhood; and if there be any minor children, two dollars per month for each such child until it reaches the age of sixteen, or indefinitely if it be insane, idiotic, or otherwise permanently helpless. Another section renders it easier in future for dependent parents to secure pensions by providing that, when the fact of the soldier's death by reason of any cause which, under existing laws, would have entitled him to an invalid pension, and the fact that he left no widow or minor children, have been shown, it shall be necessary only to show that such parent or parents are without other present means of support than their own manual labor or the contributions of others not legally bound for their support.

Mr. Morrill, who presented the compromise in the House, estimated that it would increase the pension account by only $35,000,000 a year, but this is obviously an under-estimate, since it virtually adopts the figures upon which the Senate bill was based, whereas the compromise is much broader in its scope. The Senate bill allowed disabled soldiers to draw pensions only when they "are dependent upon their daily bread, or on the contributions of others not legally bound thereto, for their support." This clause was stricken out by the Conference Committee, so that it is necessary only to show that the old soldier is now "unable to earn a support by manual labor," and he may receive the pension, no matter if he has a competence. The practical result will be to encourage the old soldier to claim that he is not able to earn his living by the use of his hands, and that consequently he is entitled to a pension. Human nature being as weak as it is, we may expect to see a great rush for pensions under this provision from men whose neighbors never saw any reason to suppose that they needed any help in supporting themselves. The Senate Committee estimated that under their stricter rule fully 100,000 new pensioners would be added to the roll by this provision. Under the easier system which has been substituted, Mr. Morrill admits that probably 200,000 will come in, and Mr. Cannon estimated the addition as high as a quarter of a million. Reasoning from all the precedents in such matters, it will be very strange if the number does not soon approximate half a million. It is safe to say, too, that three-fourths, if not nine-tenths, of this vast army will be allowed the highest rate—$12 a month—which means nearly $15,000,000 a year for every hundred thousand names. Moreover, a great number of pensioners now drawing small sums—50,000, Mr. Cannon estimates—will have their allowances marked up to from $6 to $12 a month, and usually, of course, to the highest possible figure. It has been estimated that the widow clause of the bill will add 100,000 names at $8 a month, and a good many children will also come in, with a considerable number of dependent parents.

It is plain enough, therefore, that $35,000,000 a year will prove a ridiculously small estimate of the amount which will be called for by this bill. It is much more likely that the requirements will soon be double that sum. If no more than $50,000,000 a year should be called for, the pension appropriations would be swollen to the immense total of $150,000,000 a year. Vast as is the sum which Congress thus votes away, it falls far short of the "*demands*" of the Grand Army machine, and will serve only to strengthen its call for the breaking down of all restrictions and the granting of a pension to everybody who was ever in the army. The politicians who suppose that they have satisfied this machine will soon learn their mistake. It will grudgingly accept what they now grant, but it will only make it the basis for fresh "*demands*," enforced by fresh threats.

OUR "SWEATING SYSTEM."

THERE has been a great deal of talk in London during the past two years over what is called the "sweating system"—that is, the employment by small contractors of wretchedly paid labor of men, women, and children in the tailoring and other sewing trades, done in small rooms in tenement-houses, under revolting conditions as regards ventilation and cleanliness, and during hours which apparently have no limit but the physical endurance of the people employed. When the revelations of this misery first began to be made, it was supposed that it existed mainly among immigrants, principally Jews, from the Continent, and especially from Germany and Russia, and that something might be done to abate it by putting restrictions on immigration. Accordingly a committee of the House of Lords, containing several of the leading members of that body, was appointed to inquire into the matter. It sat for many months, and examined hundreds of witnesses, and has made an able report, but one which suggests no remedy. It can find no trace of anything new in the "sweating system," and indeed finds nothing which can be called a system, and has not discovered that the Jews suffer more from it than other races.

The source of the evil is a very old one. The public wants things cheap, and especially wants cheap clothing, and the very existence of each house engaged in the various branches of the clothing trade depends on its selling as cheaply as any other, and its success depends on its selling a little cheaper than some others. It consequently gets all its work done at as low rates as possible, or gives it out to small contractors, who sublet to poor wretches to whom some work at any pay is the only means of avoiding starvation or the workhouse. So they carry the materials with them to the dens in which they live in the back alleys, and toil fifteen or eighteen hours out of the twenty-four in a foul air, or in the midst of filth, for a bare subsistence, young and old, male and female. How is this to be prevented? Can the law step in and say to these unfortunates, "You shall not work at these rates of pay," or say to the employer, "You must pay higher wages"? One or other of these things apparently must be said, in order to work an effectual cure, and the Lords' Committee naturally shrink from saying either of them.

Miss Beatrice Potter, a lady well known in England for her labors among the poor, as well as for the power with which she treats social questions with her pen, has taken the matter up in the last *Nineteenth Century*, and her remedy is the extension to all premises in which any sort of manufacture is carried on of the provisions of the Factory Inspection Acts which are now in force in England. These acts, known as the Workshop and Factory Act of 1878, and the Public Health Act of 1875, cover by a system of inspection all textile factories and non-textile factories and workshops of certain specified trades, in which women, young persons, and children are employed. They regulate the hours of labor, the education of the children, the amount of space they occupy in the workshop, and the provisions made for sanitation and general cleanliness. The powers of the inspectors are very great. They can enter any factory or workshop covered by the acts at any hour of the day or night, and any breach of the regulations on the part of the employer is punishable summarily by a police magistrate by fine or imprisonment, or both. But the "sweaters," working in their little dens, escape them.

We have in this city, probably in all our large cities—but all evils of this kind are usually worse in New York than elsewhere—exactly the kind of abuse which the Eng-

lish Factory Act was intended to correct—that is, a large class of women, young persons, and children, who are left at the mercy of employers intent on making their profits as large as possible, and using their own discretion in dealing with the health and comfort of a body of rather helpless labor. One field of this abuse, and only one, has been recently explored by a committee of ladies—the condition of the women and children employed in the large retail stores. A report on the subject was read at a meeting held under the direction of the Working Women's Society in Chickering Hall a month ago, which now lies before us in print, and deserves the serious attention of every intelligent man and woman in New York. Its statements ought to be officially examined by the Legislature, and dealt with next winter in a thorough manner. Over and above the particulars there set forth with regard to the sanitary conditions in which work is done in these establishments, the report further charges that the wages, always low, are reduced by fines, which go into the pockets of those who inflict them—a monstrous abuse; that the time allowed to children for their midday meal is inhumanly short; that the law which requires seats to be furnished to saleswomen is persistently ignored; and that their hours of labor depend wholly on the caprice or necessity of the employer.

It also says a good deal about the moral evils resulting in the case of women from the low wages paid them, but we do not see what the law can do to remedy this as long as ten women stand ready to fill every vacant place on any terms offered them. But the law can see that employers are made to respect the health and comfort of this helpless class of employees and provide for them decent and wholesome conditions of service. The beginning of summer is a bad moment to urge a reform on the attention of the more fortunate classes of the community; but we trust no one will go to the seaside or the mountains without remembering the helpless tens of thousands who are left to swelter in the city in these stores and workshops, for a precarious livelihood, without determining that something shall be done next winter to relieve our civilization of this disgrace.

THE SHORTENING OF THE UNIVERSITY COURSE.

The controversy over President Eliot's proposal to cut down the academic course at Harvard College has called forth only two objections of any weight. One is that it is a departure from the long-established custom of American colleges, and the other is that it diminishes by one-fourth the process of absorbing intellectual influence through which even those undergraduates who neglect their studies are said to pass.

As regards the first, it is to be said that the four years' term was fixed at a period when the entering age was very low. During two centuries of Harvard's existence it played the part of a high school as well as of a university. Boys entered it as young as twelve, and fourteen or fifteen was not an unfrequent age. As long as this state of things lasted, four years was not an unreasonably long period to spend in working for a degree. The college was giving the boy what the primary school ought to have given him in the way of instruction and moral discipline. He was not only taught Latin and Greek, but he was taught how to behave. He was sometimes even whipped when he went wrong. In fact, five years would not have been too long a term, for the boy who entered at fifteen or sixteen was hardly ready for a professional or business career any sooner, particularly in those days when youth was considered so much more of a disqualification than it is now.

There is nothing mystic in the term of four years any more than in the term of three or seven; nor is there anything in the nature of American boys which indicates clearly that four years is the length of time they should pass in getting a degree. A degree was originally intended, and is now intended, to show simply that a man had, in the opinion of a competent tribunal, attained a certain proficiency in certain branches of human knowledge. It shows also, but only incidentally, that he has passed a certain number of years in a seat of learning. Its value, however, lies in what it indicates as to the graduate's acquisitions at college, and not at all, or very slightly, in what it indicates as to his length of residence in college. The notion that a mere residence in a university has a separate value of its own, without regard to the way in which the undergraduate has passed the time, is of later date. It was very much the product of the gradual association of a degree with social position; that is, in process of time a degree increased in value by proving that a youth's parents could afford to keep him at a university for four years, and that he had during that period lived in what was considered good society.

Universities have never been rightly or truly regarded as mere examining boards. They have always, and very properly, sought to be an influence on the student's life as well as on his power of acquisition, and we trust will always remain so. That the change proposed by President Eliot would destroy or greatly weaken this influence would be a strong argument against it. Its opponents, however, assume that if the term be shortened one-fourth, the influence will be diminished in the same ratio, which is an extravagant if not absurd view. Nobody who has seen much of college life can have helped observing that the influence of the college atmosphere on the undergraduate declines as the expiration of his term approaches.

In the present Senior year there is no doubt that the shadow of active life falls on all the men to whom a college education is of most use. They have by that time got out of the college all that it can give them in the matter of influence on manners or ways of thinking about the problems of life. It is the work of the world and the ways of the world which now weigh heavily on their souls. The doings and sayings and ambitions of the classes below them begin to look a little childish. To pass this year in a professional school, or in preparation for business, would not injure, in any sense, ninety-nine graduates out of a hundred, and it may be maintained with safety that if the experience of American universities teaches anything with certainty, it is that if they are to keep their hold on the national imagination and respect, they must quicken the popular sense of their usefulness as a preparation for active life. It is the growing doubt of the masses on this point which has, as we all know, greatly diminished the proportion of college graduates to be found in political and professional life. Something needs to be done to revive the sense of the practical value of a university education, to which our chief colleges originally owed their existence, for neither Harvard nor Yale was established originally in the interest of general culture. They were both established to supply a godly and learned ministry. That this revival can be accomplished by a three years' course, without in any way changing the character of the instruction, there can be little doubt. It can be done by going back to the original collegiate idea, that the function of the university is above all things to teach youths who want to learn, and to give them their degree as soon as they have the knowledge required for a degree. The notion that able and diligent men should be kept in college after they are ready to graduate, in order that the lazy, or idle, or incompetent may have longer exposure to University "influence," is of comparatively recent growth, and has all the air of an abuse.

VASSAR COLLEGE.

It is a remarkable event in the long history of the widening of women's field of action when Vassar College celebrates its twenty-fifth anniversary. Twenty-five years ago it was honestly supposed, no doubt, by most people that the feminine cortex was of so soft and flabby a texture as to be quite incapable of following solid trains of thought; and that the few exceptions to this rule which had been noted were of an absolutely abnormal nature—as if a tree which was loaded with sickish-sweet mulberries should occasionally bear a fruit of a rich and pungent flavor.

Matthew Vassar was a man wiser than his generation. Following the suggestion of his niece, Lydia Booth, the principal of a Poughkeepsie school—a woman whose name should always be mentioned when Matthew Vassar is praised—he devoted his wealth, with which he had intended to found a hospital, to the great experiment of offering to women a college education. Undeterred by the fear of spoiling the work which the Lord had done, and convinced that women had not got brains made of a totally different stuff from those of men, he determined to let them try if the rank and file were not capable of gaining nourishment from a stronger diet than that which the boarding-school is wont to offer. In his first communication to the Board of Trustees of Vassar College he made use of these memorable words: "It occurred to

me that woman, having received from her creator the same intellectual gifts as man, has the same right as man to intellectual culture and development."

The bold experiment of Matthew Vassar proved successful from the very beginning. In May, 1870, in a long article—the result of a careful study of the College—the *Nation* said:

"The answering, translating, and demonstrating which we witnessed were done in a style which we have never seen surpassed by young men of the same standing; and in the treatment of some subjects, in readiness, and clean-cutness, and dexterity of expression, the superiority to young men was perceptible. Moreover, we thought we saw evidence of women's superior conscientiousness in the absence of all attempts to fumble with questions or to take random shots at them, when an avowal of complete ignorance was clearly the only way of meeting them. . . . We believe we never before met so many really simple, unconscious, unaffected young ladies as we saw there. They had acquired what we may be forgiven for calling the sober masculine air of people who have business to do and are quite equal to it, and are too much occupied with it to have time or attention for anything else. . . . There was nothing to make one fear that any of the graces of life were going to suffer from the experiment; there were plenty of signs that it was likely to give homes what they have perhaps wanted most of all—the dignity of strength—the repose that comes of knowing exactly where one stands and what one can achieve."

The two days which Vassar College has just given to celebrating her twenty-five years of existence were days which were well calculated to stir deep feelings in the minds of those in attendance. The presentation of the gymnasium, just erected by the alumnæ at a cost of $26,000, to the Board of Trustees, the warm response of the gentle and venerable President of that Board, Dr. Lathrop, the reminiscences of college life by half-a-dozen graduates of different periods, the touching historical address, describing the early struggles of the Founder and the inception of the College, by Benson J. Lossing, the oration of Mr. Curtis, and the after-dinner speeches by alumnæ and by the representatives of other colleges—all were full of significance. Mr. Curtis's speech, delivered in a large tent erected on the grounds, was one of those efforts of the orator by which his hearers are swayed hither and thither—moved now to laughter and now to tears—filled now with indignation at the meannesses from which women have suffered in the past, and now roused to enthusiasm at the picture of the possibilities which open before them in the future. The high-water mark of the address was reached in the glowing sketch which the speaker drew of Margaret Fuller:

"A scholar, a critic, a thinker, a teacher, a queen of conversation, above all, a person of delicate insight and sympathy, the wisest of friends, of the utmost feminine refinement of feeling, and of dauntless spiritual courage—such is the woman, I doubt not, whom Matthew Vassar vaguely foresaw when his generous heart inspired him to his noble task; such is the woman that, as a lofty ideal, presides over the studious hours and quiet meditations of these halls."

Not only in Mr. Curtis's speech, but in all the others as well, mixed with thankfulness for present gain, there was sounded the constant note of eagerness for one concession still to be won. The education of the college is a conquered standpoint; what remains is to make the post-collegiate education equally easy of access to women. To duplicate the great laboratories and the great professorships of the two or three colleges which give adequate post-graduate instruction would be foolish in the extreme. It is little less than silly to suppose that men and women who are so seriously minded as to give three years to study after completing the college course could not brave the association of the lecture-room without danger of impropriety. What possible reason can Columbia College, or Clark University, or the Johns Hopkins urge for not throwing open their post-graduate courses to women? What more graceful act could be imagined with which to mark this memorable year, when Vassar College celebrates her first quarter of a century, and when Philippa Fawcett is 300 marks ahead of the senior wrangler, than for those universities, without further wheedling or coaxing or bribing, to open to women the opportunities for hard work which women covet, and which the sense of justice of men, tardy though it be, will not permit them much longer to refuse?

THE CENTENNIAL OF MONTPELLIER.

MONTPELLIER, May, 1890.

THE University of Montpellier has just celebrated with great spirit the completion of its sixth century. The President of the Republic, the Minister of Public Instruction, M. Bourgeois, the vice-rector of the University of France, M. Gréard, members of the Institute of France, including MM. Gaston Boissier and Bréal, delegates from the chief seats of French learning, and the representatives of foreign universities, at the head of whom was the illustrious Helmholtz of Berlin, took part in the ceremonies. The weather was superb, the arrangements admirable, the success complete. The occasion was a worthy sequence to the academic festivities which have been observed at Bologna, Heidelberg, Edinburgh, and Harvard, and a good example for Dublin, which is expected to celebrate its 400th anniversary next year.

Four days were devoted to the fêtes, which began with religious services in the Cathedral on Thursday, May 22, and ended with a ball at the house of the rector of the University upon the following Sunday. The chief attractions were those of Friday, when M. Carnot was received by the assembled throngs, and when the principal addresses were made at the Convocation. There were, besides, processions, fire-works, illuminations, and a great banquet. The entire city seemed to participate in the jubilee, and extra trains brought innumerable crowds from the neighboring towns. I was told that the ordinary population of the city, say 50,000 persons, was doubled on this festive Friday, and it was easy to believe that this was so. The streets were certainly thronged.

I will not endeavor to describe all the varied entertainments which were provided for visitors during the fête. There was a light and joyous tone to the celebration which contrasted very strongly with the seriousness, not to say the solemnities, of our college commencements. There were few speeches, many pageants. It was a holiday time, not a period for obituaries, nor learned discourses, nor appeals for money, nor for the bestowal of honorary degrees. The addresses that were made were brief, well written, and read word for word by the speakers. Two of the principal addresses were distributed through the audience, in type, just before the speakers came forward. This was fatal to spontaneity, but it was favorable to clearness and finish of style. What was lost as "eloquence" was gained as literature; what was lost in adaptation to the moment was gained in permanent excellence.

Among the incidents of the celebration it was pleasant to observe the zest with which the students entered into all the festivities. Their courtesy and good order were as remarkable as their enthusiasm. They wore caps of varied colors, badges, and sashes, but generally not gowns, and they carried banners to indicate the colleges and universities from which they came. As the processions were formed on an alphabetical and international basis, the Americans headed the column, and half-a-dozen of our young countrymen who are studying in Montpellier bore the national flag in advance of all other banners, and everybody seemed pleased by this unexpected leadership. It was the more noteworthy as the American colleges sent but two delegates; Baltimore and Ithaca being the only places represented.

Montpellier deserves to be better known than it is to the Americans. It is not upon the beaten track of travel, and tourists who include Avignon, Nismes, and Arles on their route to Marseilles or the Riviera are likely to pass by the seat of this ancient University. In years gone by, it was a sanitary resort much frequented by the English, but an unfavorable sentence in a well-known guide-book exerted a damaging influence upon the town which was not justified by the facts, and from which it has not recovered. Students who desire to avoid the distractions of Paris, and yet wish to follow the guidance of French professors and to be surrounded by French influences, may well resort to Montpellier. One of the most distinguished savants of the Sorbonne called my attention particularly to the attractions which are offered to foreigners in this southern seat of learning. Here are schools of letters, science, law, medicine, and pharmacy, with laboratories, libraries, museums, and a botanical garden. There are exceptional advantages for the study of viticulture, which one young man from the University of California is now enjoying. This part of France has suffered extremely during the last few years from the phylloxera, and the intelligent and persistent efforts which the scientific and practical men have made to restore the vineyards to their former productiveness have been so successful as to call forth from M. Carnot words of strong commendation. The practical men and the scientific men of the region are, of course, thoroughly well acquainted with all that pertains to the culture of the grape.

Let me now recur to the celebration, of which, as I have said, the principal day was Friday. About two o'clock in the afternoon, all the delegates from a distance were received by the resident faculties in the buildings recently appropriated to the University, and were presently escorted to the Prefecture, where M. Carnot was expected. As the procession moved slowly through a narrow street, up a gentle acclivity, the faculties escorted by the students, the houses decorated with flags, and the streets hung with lanterns, it was easy to imagine that we were looking at a scene of the middle ages. Almost every one in the cortège wore an academic cap and gown, and the colors were as various as those of a flower garden. The scene was even more brilliant, two hours later, when the company were seated under a red and white marquee, in the midst of the beautiful city garden which bears the name of Peyron. The President of the Republic, surrounded by the official representatives of public instruction in

France, sat in chairs arranged upon one side of a hollow square. On the right were the French professors and on the left the foreign guests. In front were ladies and students. After an introductory address by the Rector, came the historical discourse by Prof. Croiset of Montpellier, which was well written and well read, and which had the additional merit of brevity, as it occupied but half an hour. He dwelt upon the fact that the University is much older than 600 years. The date selected for commemoration is that of the bull of Nicolas IV. (October 26, 1289), when the faculties already in existence were united by Papal authority as one corporation. Perhaps the schools existed as early as the eighth century. Certainly in the twelfth century Montpellier was renowned for its instruction in medicine, and this credit was chiefly due to Jewish physicians, followers of Avicenna and Averroës, who brought with them Arabic learning imbued with Greek tradition. About the same period the study of jurisprudence was promoted by Placentinus, who came from Bologna. Petrarch is doubtless the most renowned of all who have been enrolled as students in Montpellier, and the words in which he refers to his four years' course of studies in law were quoted by Prof. Croiset with excellent effect. Rabelais is the name of another illustrious writer who owes his education to this *studium generale*. The discourse did not refer merely to the names of distinguished scholars. It exhibited the growth of the university in different epochs, and afforded a good illustration of the doctrine which was expressed near the end of the oration: "Pour qu'une université soit autre chose qu'un groupement artificiel, *il faut qu'elle ait une âme.*"

Among the addresses which followed M. Croiset's was that of the Minister of Public Instruction, which was regarded as very significant, because in it he committed himself and the Government to a new policy in university administration. He promised to favor the restoration of the local universities, which have been obscured during most of the present century, or rather have been absorbed in the one organization, the University of France.

M. Carnot was not called out at this ceremony, but each of the deputations from abroad saluted him as well as the Rector of the University as they presented their ceremonious addresses. The President made his speech at the banquet which was given in the evening.

It is worth while to add, for the information of American institutions which may be invited to other fêtes like that of Montpellier, that the Continental universities are careful on these occasions to send their written salutations, usually engrossed on parchment, which is either handsomely bound or encased in a beautiful roll. D. C. G.

A NOBLEMAN OF THE OLD RÉGIME.

PARIS, May 10, 1890.

THE memoirs of the Duc des Cars, just published by his nephew, the present Duke, were not written for publication. They give, in all sincerity, the impressions of a man who was born and lived in a society which was very different from ours, and this perfect sincerity is one of their charms. Jean François, son of the Comte des Cars and of Emily Fitz-James, daughter of Marshal Berwick, was first known under the name of the Chevalier des Cars, for he had been admitted a Knight of Malta. He was born at the Château des Cars, in Limousin. He was first destined for the Church, but he felt no vocation. His mother, who saw no alternative for a younger son but the Church or the navy, got him appointed *garde de la marine*, and at the same time he was admitted Knight of Malta. He was sent to Brest, and embarked on a ship which was sent to the coast of Morocco. The squadron sent to Morocco was composed of the *Union*, the *Sincère*, the *Lunette*. The *Union* had on board an Ambassador Extraordinary. The incidents of the mission to Morocco are amusingly told. Des Cars met among the Moors a peasant of Limousin, whom he had known as a child, and who had been a soldier in Portugal and in Spain; also, an ex-Jesuit of Portugal, who had been expelled from Lisbon at the time of a plot against the life of the King (in 1759), had afterwards been a privateer, and had been appointed Grand-Admiral by the Emperor of Morocco. The Portuguese Jesuit wore the turban and looked very magnificent on his horse. Des Cars was presented to the Emperor in these terms: "The lad is one of the Knights of Malta—devils in war, good fellows in peace." The Ambassador also presented M. de Suffren (who afterwards became famous in India, and *bailli* in the order of Malta), and La Bourdonnaye. The Emperor was fond of astronomy, and had a reputation for great mildness in comparison with his father, Ishmael. One day, however, the paternal instincts were too strong, and Mohammed himself transfixed, one after the other, sixty Berber prisoners with a lance, taking care to change the lance each time.

Des Cars, on his return to Brest, fell in with La Peyrouse (the famous navigator who died in a journey round the world), who offered to take him with him on the *Adour*. He went with him to Bayonne. He afterwards journeyed to Cadiz and Marseilles; he returned from the last place to the Château des Cars, where he found his uncle and spent pleasantly five months. "During these five months I often wrote to my mother, who never answered me." His mother was dangerously ill in Paris; he went there to see her, but she was very angry with him for coming to Paris, and sent him back to Brest. Soon afterwards, she sent for him, however, feeling that she was going to die; he arrived too late. "I had wept much," he says, "over my father, whom I adored, and who had always shown me the greatest tenderness; I wept equally for my mother when I knew that she had shown a desire to see me again."

Des Cars was now free to choose his own career, and though he was prepared for his nomination as *enseigne*, he left the navy and entered the army. He had an income of about 8,000 livres; he could live at his sister's house in Paris and at his brother's house in Versailles. The King, as soon as he was presented, admitted him to all his suppers on the hunting days and to all the little journeys to Choisy, to Marly, to Bellevue. His brother was first maître d'hôtel to the King and lived at the castle. His military service in a regiment of carbineers took up only four months in the year.

When the household of the Comte d'Artois was formed, Des Cars was made one of his gentlemen in waiting, and on the same day Colonel. This last appointment gave him more pleasure than the first. "The Court was, for me, as for the greater part of the French nobility, less an end than the means of obtaining promotion in the military career." This happy day was to close with another royal favor. On retiring, the King, for a certain familiar purpose, called Des Cars out of the throng of marshals of France and other dignitaries. "I thought I was not seen. I heard my name, and the first valet had some difficulty in finding me." Such incidents show better than anything the state of the French Court before the Revolution: a word of the King, a menial service rendered in his presence, seemed matters of supreme importance. Only the men of *quality*, those who were *born*, to use their own language, were admitted to the curious Olympus where Jupiter did not even try for a moment to conceal from Juno his infidelities.

The Comte d'Artois lived entirely with the Prince d'Hennin (Charles d'Alsace de Chimay d'Hennin, Prince of the Roman Empire, who died on the guillotine in 1794), the Chevalier de Crussol, captain of his guards, the Marquis de Polignac, and Des Cars, who became one of his favorites. He accompanied the Comte d'Artois on his journeys. The account of a visit made to the Marquis Voyer d'Argenson is curious. D'Argenson was a free-thinker, and was very *English* in his political views. "One day we had gone to Maisons to see some stables of the Comte d'Artois. His agent, Sainte-Foix, kept us to dinner. During the repast we talked on the subject of the French finances. Voyer gave all his views, but said that our Ministers were too stupid to adopt them. 'I see,' said he, 'that there is but one way left; it is to *debourbonize* France.' . . . No man ever was as dangerous as M. de Voyer. He had had the care of the education of the Ducs de Chartres, the Conflans, the Lauzuns, and their imitators; he had undertaken to destroy all religious principle in the heart of the Comte d'Artois." Des Cars also joined the Comte d'Artois in visits to Marshal d'Harcourt at Harcourt and to the Choiseuls at Chanteloup.

Des Cars was in luck: one fine day, in 1780, he had the good fortune to be advised the first of the existence of an abbey the revenues of which were in the gift of the French Crown; he claimed them as Knight of Malta, though he was now a colonel of dragoons, and he obtained thus a great accession of revenue. "I became really rich," he says. "I had more than 48,000 livres of rente; I was lodged, fed, warmed, lighted at my sister's in Paris, at my brother's in Versailles; all my horses were kept in Paris by the Comte d'Artois" (there is still in Paris a street called Rue des Écuries d'Artois). Des Cars is very ingenuous in the expression of his pleasure in receiving all these good things; he evidently felt that they were his due, and that humanity was divided into two parts, those who are born to enjoy and those who are born to endure life. The King was the fountain of all favors, and the fountain was to be carefully guarded against all intruders. He could have said with the Prince de Ligne: "Why do people declaim against abuses? I have personified them all, and I always felt the better for it"; only what the Prince de Ligne said half ironically Des Cars would have said with the simplicity and the conviction of a child. This belief in the divine right of a privileged class was the great cause of the French Revolution—much more than the belief in the divine right of kings. To do justice to Des Cars, he was a good soldier, he kept his regiment in an admirable state, he preferred his military service to everything. He had in him the old feudal spirit; he knew that he owed to his lord the "servitium militare." He offered to go to America with Rochambeau; he was always ready to join an expedition. His brother, who was a sailor, had acquired much reputation, and fell gloriously in a naval battle fought against the English.

Soon afterwards, Des Cars offered to fight as a volunteer at the siege of Gibraltar, with the Comte d'Artois. The Prince left France with

him, D'Hennin, Crussol, and the Comte de Vaudreuil. The journey through Spain was rapid. The Comte d'Artois was well received by King Charles III., his great-uncle. The King always dined alone, and consequently did not ask the Count to his table; but he desired that he should receive all the honors of an Infanta. The incidents of the siege of Gibraltar are well known. The Comte d'Artois was there merely as a volunteer; the French troops were under the command of the Duc de Crillon, known for his eccentricities and his debts, who had been made Duke of Mahon after he had taken that place. Crillon, after vain attempts, was obliged to raise the siege. Such was the end of an enterprise which had been prepared by Spain and France for a whole year and announced with emphasis to the world. The English remained as firm on their rock as in 1763, when a treaty of peace gave them possession of it.

On his return to Paris, Des Cars married one of the great heiresses of France, Mlle. Pauline de la Borde, the daughter of the financier (well known to all bibliophiles by the 'Chansons de la Borde,' so admirably illustrated by Moreau le Jeune and others). Mlle. de la Borde belonged to the world of finance, of the rich *fermiers-généraux* who had become so important at the end of the eighteenth century. Des Cars did not know her, and the marriage was arranged by his sister with a rapidity which seems extraordinary even for that time. The Queen knew La Borde and took an interest in his daughter.

"A moment after, the Queen came in, with a billiard cue in her hand. I thought I saw Diana with an arrow; she had her majestic and light step:

'Vera incessu patuit Dea.'

'The Comte d'Artois,' said she, 'has charmed me, Chevalier. I shall be delighted if La Borde gives you his daughter. I will charge the Abbé de Vermond to tell La Borde to-morrow morning that I approve this marriage, that he cannot do any better, and that the King will be as much pleased as I am myself.' . . . Thus it was that, between the 27th of March, at six o'clock at night, and the 29th, at the same hour, my marriage was proposed and concluded—a marriage which many rich and even titled people would have desired."

On the occasion of his marriage, he was appointed first maître d'hôtel to the King *en survivance*—that is to say, he obtained the promise of this place if he survived his brother, who had it, and obtained at once all the privileges attached to it, such as entrance into the King's cabinet. This charge was very valuable: the brother of Des Cars had paid 1,500,000 livres for it. The first maître d'hôtel lived with the King, and received every day at dinner all the great officers of the King and his guests, as the King always dined alone with his family, except on certain solemn occasions.

The day before his marriage, Des Cars abandoned the cross of Malta and received the cross of St. Louis. The society of M. de la Borde, his father-in-law, was very literary. He lived much at the castle of La Ferté-Vidame, near Dreux; there Des Cars made the acquaintance of the Philosophical Society and of the society of the *fermiers-généraux* La Borde afterwards sold La Ferté to the Duc de Penthièvre, and bought a place near Étampes, called Mérinville, which he embellished; he was arrested there in 1793, and taken before the Revolutionary tribunal. Des Cars asked permission, soon after his marriage, to go to Germany, in order to study the battle-fields of the Seven Years War and the organization of the Prussian Army. He saw Crefeld, Clostercamp, Wesel, Willingshausen, Wilhelmsthal, etc. He had a great passion for military matters. At Berlin, he could admire the work of Frederick II.; he saw Frederick himself, and witnessed some reviews and manœuvres. His observations on the subject of the Prussian regiments and Frederick's lieutenants have an historical interest.

HAWTHORNE'S VILLA AT FLORENCE.

FLORENCE, 1890.

IN some letter-books of Hiram Powers, shown me by his son Nicholas Longworth Powers, I have found interesting traces of the Hawthornes in Florence, as well as in the recollections of the widow Powers, and others. On May 16, 1858, Hawthorne wrote to Powers, on an introduction of Mr. Akers, asking his help in obtaining a residence there, for a few months, and adding, "I cannot conclude this note without thanking you for the kindness which allows me to put you to this trouble, nor without expressing the pleasure I anticipate in meeting personally one whose works have given me so much delight." Powers's studio was then in the Via dei Seragli, and he found rooms for the Hawthornes in a house nearly opposite (No. 124), called the Casa del Bello—so called, says tradition, because of the good looks of its first owner. The first and most expensive floor (it was $50 per month) was selected because of a vine-covered veranda on one side of the court, passing from Hawthorne's study to a charming arbor, from which steps descend into the courtyard, with its flowers, and one or two orange trees. Florence was too fascinating, however, to allow Hawthorne to dream away his hours in this summer-house. He had not yet a romance in hand, and entered keenly into the life of the place. He enjoyed the society of the Brownings, the Trollopes, and the pleasant Florentines who attended the *salon* of Miss Blagden; that is, at such times as he was not overpowered by his shy mood. Dr. T. Villari remembers an evening at Miss Blagden's when Hawthorne took refuge in a corner, devoting himself to photographs.

The great charm for Hawthorne was the studio of Powers; there he was surrounded by admirable busts and statues of nearly all eminent Americans, and he was in contact with a thinker as well as an artist—a man, too, of wide and wonderful experiences. Hiram Powers now trained him in the principles of sculpture, now delighted him with anecdotes of early Cincinnatians—of Longworth, Peyton Semmes, Corwin, and the rest—of the waxwork "Inferno" he constructed in Cincinnati; and was equally capable of enchaining his attention with strange supernatural stories in which he (Powers) devoutly believed. The two used to sit, in the June nights, on the roof of Powers's house, catching snatches of song or declamation from the Goldoni Theatre near by, and imagining that the air might be peopled with beings too aerial for human senses to perceive. It is amusing, by the way, to find Hawthorne, on his return from the Sunday horse-races, manifesting distress at the Sunday theatres. On June 18, 1858, Powers wrote to his friend W. N. Kinney:

"Mr. Hawthorne is a very mild and quiet man, seems diffident, and changes color while speaking. It seems impossible that he should endorse Gen. Pierce, but perhaps he did this before the latter had manifested his *splendid* policy. I shall have a talk with him about Kanzas, to hear what he will say. Segato took his secret of petrifying dead bodies to purgatory (he died a Catholic, I suppose), and I trust that old [illegible] has carried his golden secret to heaven direct."

In 1836, when Hawthorne was editing the Bewick Company's magazine, he wrote therein a characteristic article on Segato's discovery, imagining Webster and other statesmen turned, after death, into statues, or pillars of state in the Senate.

In his journal, under date of June 4, 1858, Hawthorne speaks of sitting in his summer-house and dreaming of a story. The dreams were of 'The Marble Faun,' and they were put on paper in Montauto villa, to which the family removed at the end of July. After this Florence, though only a mile distant, saw little of him.

"'The House of the Seven Gables,'" writes Powers to a friend (July 18), "is very domestic, does not seem inclined to visit his neighbors much, and, when he does, his stay is short. He seems a cautious, prudent man. My last talk with him was about Mr. Van Buren and Gen. Jackson, and I said what I thought of them. He expressed no opinion, but asked if I did not think Gen. Jackson honest. I told him that I had no doubt that Gen. Jackson thought himself so, and I had known worse men than he who never appeared to suspect their own integrity. For men can persuade themselves of almost anything. The young governess [Miss Ada Shepherd], who understands Latin and Greek, and seems a very modest and well disposed girl, spoke out pretty decidedly against the political career of Gen. Pierce, at my studio, and in the presence of the eldest daughter of the Seven Gables. Perhaps the padlock of gratitude holds the door of that house fast shut. Some locks are easy to pick, but I rather think this would prove one of Hobbs's. The mistress of the House of Seven Gables has no visible padlock—her tongue is free enough, but not for any evil."

A Florentine gentleman told me a strange episode in the history of Casa del Bello. Thomas Buchanan Read resided there for a time, before Hawthorne, and his wife was the first victim of the cholera, which in that year became epidemic. The poor lady was confined also, the child being born dead. My Florentine friend had known Read, and had run about to find physicians and bring medicines for the lady. After her death he went there towards midnight. The two dead bodies were in the house (the child sealed in a leaden tube), and Read was relieving his distraction by reading his own poems to Powers. The Italian also listened, and remembers—for it was Carnival night—the maskers' revels and their lights flaring under the windows of the room where this weird scene was taking place. After midnight the bodies were buried in that same garden of flowers on which Hawthorne looked while he dreamed of his 'Marble Faun.' Some years later Read came to Florence with his second wife and removed the body of the first to America. Here was a romance haunting his garden of which Hawthorne does not appear to have heard. Indeed, he does not appear to have been much interested in the actual or historic associations of the neighborhood. He visited old Mr. Seymour Kirkup, who, with his little Imogen, appears in 'The Dolliver Romance,' but does not seem to know that the house was once the palace of the Vespucci family, a member of which gave America his name. With all his sentiment about Boccaccio, he does not visit the villa where the ladies and gentlemen listened to his tales. Of his larger villa, Montauto, he wrote to James T. Fields: "At one end of the house there is a moss-grown tower, haunted by owls, and by the ghost of a monk who was confined there in the thirteenth century, previous to being burned at the stake in the principal square of Florence." It is droll that he doesn't mention that this monk was Savonarola!

'The Marble Faun' is first mentioned in his journal as having been begun July 27, a day or two before leaving Casa del Bello; it was, therefore, begun in that summer-house, but it was developed and sketched out at Montauto

villa between the 29th of July and the 29th of September. By the kindness of Lady Hobart, I was enabled to go over the villa, and found it very interesting to do this with Hawthorne's journal of his residence there, and his 'Romance of Monte Beni' (his name for the castle) in my hand. Una's picturesque room in the lower part of the tower, so carefully described in Hawthorne's journal, is now a dining-room; and the oratory adjoining it has become a place for dumb-waiters. But I recognized in the vestry and chapel nearly all the pictures and consecrated objects mentioned by Hawthorne, among them the "undraped little boy in wax" which he came near mistaking for Cupid. That his notions of sacred and pagan things were sometimes a little confused is proved by his description of the ceiling of his own study as "ornamented with angels and cherubs," these frescoes being nymphs and Cupids much more liberal with their charms than angels. In this luxurious room 'The Marble Faun' was written, amid golden damask and mural decorations. The windows are also doors, and open on an ornamental garden with paths embowered with box so high that one can hardly be seen while walking up and down them. On one side of the garden is a stone wall on which one may lean and overlook the Umbrian valley. This garden was no doubt the real "study" of Hawthorne. Here he might summon from neighboring villas, commanded by this height, such fountains or statues as his romance required. And the descriptions of the terraces, the nook where Donatello summoned the wild creatures, the marble nymph and fountain, given in the romance, do not correspond with the realities of Montauto. Nor is there, within, the legendary fresco so realistically described.

On the other hand, the house is described with strictness as to detail (chap. xxiv). The well in a recess in the side of the house was shown me when I asked for it, and other peculiar things. The tower is described with literal fidelity. Missing the shrub which Kenyon remarked on the top, I asked the old gardener if anything grew there. He said that an old myrtle had long been there, but had died the year before and was cleared away. This gardener had been a lad on the estate when Hawthorne dwelt there. He could barely remember the family, he said, for he had nothing to do at the villa, but only on the farm. He remembered more particularly a boy named Christopher, whom they brought out there with them. There is a tradition that when Hawthorne climbed to the top of the tower for meditation—which he often did—he was accustomed to pull the last ladder up after him.

The northward view is superb. In the great valley are bright villas, silvery streams, and innumerable groves of cypress, olive, and orange; there are the domes and towers of Florence—Galileo's Tower, Giotto's Campanile; beyond all, the delectable hills rising to majestic summits—Pama della Croce (6,100 feet), Tre Potense (6,300), La Nuda (5,930), Coma al Scale (6,400), Mt. Cimone (7,000). Their graceful, snowy tops seem to look graciously, like winged guardians, on the villages that nestle on all the more accessible summits, each with its old church or convent. I could see below Fiesole the trees about Palmieri (Boccaccio's romantic villa), and the Valley of the Ladies stretching near Landor's villa. Had not Landor been a dying man when Hawthorne was near, he might have left us an "imaginary conversation" between the two sweetest story-tellers, surpassing all the rest; or he might even have imagined a communion across the centuries between Savonarola, whose sad eyes looked on this grand scene where his ashes were strewn, and the New England romancer who made his ghost into a bit of pigment for this tower.

In 'The Marble Faun,' Hawthorne has transferred the lowest room of the tower, with its oratory and pictures, to the top. "This is my own abode," said Donatello, "my owl's nest." The tower corresponds in his imagination with that of the Via Portoghese, in Rome, where he pictures Hilda with her white doves. His love of these solitary heights has a significance for those who recognize that Hawthorne was almost as much a prisoner of his individuality as Savonarola in his tower. He was unable to share the spirit and aim of his own country, of England, or of Italy. He was one of the loneliest men that ever lived. When from the Old World he returned to Concord, his first task was to add a tower to his house, "Wayside." There he sat above the tumult of civil war, writing of the old Revolution; and there, while telling a tale of the elixir of life, the cup of death was pressed to his lips.

Correspondence.

THE BULLEN FUND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you kindly grant me space for the following statement?

It is proposed that a testimonial of esteem and respect should be presented to Dr. George Bullen on his retirement from the office of Keeper of Printed Books in the British Museum for so many years excellently administered by him. To this end a Committee has been formed of which Earl Spencer is Chairman.

The British Museum is opened as liberally to Americans as to Englishmen, and I happen to know that many of our countrymen, while enjoying this privilege, have been indebted to Dr. Bullen for numerous acts of kindness and courtesy beyond the limits of his official duties.

I feel sure that these and perhaps others on this side of the water would gladly join in this tribute to acknowledged merit. To the illuminated memorial on parchment to be presented to Dr. Bullen the names of all contributors will be appended, but without specification of the sums individually subscribed.

I have consented to receive and transmit subscriptions, but the better way would be to remit these directly to Mr. B. F. Stevens, U. S. Despatch-Agent, the honorary treasurer, No 4 Trafalgar Square, London.—I remain, sir, your obedient servant,

J. R. Lowell.

Elmwood, Cambridge, Mass., June 9, 1890.

THE VENAL PRESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Nebraskan sensation is, after all, but a repetition of what the *Voice* showed was the condition of things in Pennsylvania last year when the constitutional amendment was submitted in that State. From the character of the sell-out at that time among journals of recognized standing in Philadelphia and elsewhere, the fact was forced to the front that Brother Carson of Gibbon, Neb., is not the only editor who "is not going to do much unless there is something in it."

The truth seems to be that, so far as editorial utterances are concerned, the press is losing its hold. The public have not failed to note that what should be a *judicial* profession is fast deteriorating to that of the advocate. It is no longer good politics to protest against party measures; it *is* good politics to defend or excuse them.

I believe that the modern growth of the review is a recognition by the public of the untrustworthy character of the average editorial opinion. The growth has been in answer to a demand, and the demand has come from a desire to have the honest thought of honest men. Certainly the tendency is in that direction, and it is a propitious state of affairs. It opens a way for the scholar in politics, and may lead to that happiest of political conditions, where the philosopher, thinking, leads, and the people, reflecting, follow and execute.

Chas. E. Wheeler.

Cleveland, O., June 14, 1890.

WILLIAM EATON AND OTHERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your reference to the notice of John Glover in Appletons' new 'Cyclopædia of American Biography,' as contradicting the very book it cites for authority, moves me to set down one of the most monstrous and slovenly blunders of exactly the same sort, out of a work swarming with errors of gross carelessness. The article on William Eaton, the hero of Derne, states that he was "in 1791 chosen clerk of the House of Delegates, where he remained until 1797." In the first place, House of Delegates of what? He was born in Connecticut, graduated at Dartmouth College in New Hampshire, and died in Massachusetts; was it one of these three? Not at all—it was Vermont. But, more than this, he was in fact clerk of that House only for *one season*, 1791-2; and for the next five years was in the regular army, part of the time with Wayne in Ohio, the last year or two on the St. Mary's in Florida, where he was involved in a savage quarrel with his commandant over land claims of the latter, was in confinement for several weeks, defended himself in an acrimonious correspondence which was transmitted to the Secretary of War, and had his future career determined by the political acquaintance and advertising thus made. And all this occupies a whole chapter in the one popular source of information concerning Eaton—Felton's Life in Sparks's collection. I confess I admire the real genius that can blunder like this.

A few more items just as they come to memory; I have kept no memoranda.

In the notice of Blennerhassett, his wife's name is given as Adeline. Now, she signed her own letters Margaret, and her husband always speaks of her as "Maggie." The writer of the notice, I am pretty sure, caught the name Adeline from a hasty glimpse of a quotation from "Don Juan" given in Safford's 'Blennerhassett Papers,' where, moreover, it refers not to Mrs. B., but to the Marchioness of Wellesley.

The scrap of a notice of Lord Howe, of only twenty-five lines, contrives to give two different dates for his death (July 5 and 8), and *both wrong!* *Vide* Rogers's diary, where the events are set down in minute succession.

In the article on Gen. Wilkinson, at top of page 512, it is said that "He was made Governor of Louisiana in 1805, and in the autumn of *that year*" disclosed Burr's conspiracy. It should be "of the *next year*," 1806.

Edmund Fanning, the notorious adventurer who was responsible more than any other one man for the revolt of the North Carolina Regulators, is put down as Governor Tryon's son-in-law. This follows Sabine, but Wheeler ('Historical Collections of North Carolina') says, on

the authority of Fanning's family, that it is not true.

Christine Chaplin Brush, the author of 'The Colonel's Opera-Cloak,' a real classic, recent as it is, and one of the most entertaining of American stories, is set down as an artist and writer of juvenile verse, but no hint is given that she ever wrote a word of prose in her life.

In the notice of Oliver Holden, Isaiah Thomas is turned into *Isaac*.

I could quadruple this list by a little effort, for the amount of slapdash, unverified hackwork in the volumes is something monumental. In spite of the impossibility of taking any of its statements on faith, the Cyclopædia is of very great value and service; but it might have been much more so but for its discreditable execution. F. M.

HARTFORD, CONN., June 12, 1890.

Notes.

ESTES & LAURIAT have in press 'The Pine-Tree Coast,' illustrations of the Maine seaboard, by Samuel Adams Drake.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will publish next autumn a new story, 'Ascutney Street,' by Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney.

New library editions of the Waverley Novels, of the works of Dickens, and of Thackeray are announced by T. Y. Crowell & Co.

A portion of Dr. Julius Weisbach's 'Mechanics of Engineering' has been translated by Prof. T. F. Klein of Lehigh University, and will be brought out under the title 'Mechanics of the Machinery of Transmission,' by John Wiley & Sons.

The Harris Publishing Co., 10 Warren St., publish directly 'The Salmon Fisher,' by Charles Hallock, a work both practical and anecdotic.

Prof. Addison Ballard's three addresses on the true aim in teaching and study make a little volume with the fanciful title of 'Arrows' (A. S. Barnes & Co.). The mould of the discourse is clerical, but not narrow, and noticeable in a doctor of divinity is the perfect acceptance of woman's right to the highest education and its consequences. Strange language forty years (and less) ago, from such a source, would have been this: "I have myself the conviction that women can be trusted as safely as men to decide for themselves what spheres they can fill and what vocations it is suitable to follow."

An authorized translation of Prof. Paul Frédéricq's paper on 'The Study of History in Germany and France,' by Henrietta Leonard, has just been added to the Johns Hopkins University Studies, as No. v-vi of the eighth series. Miss Leonard is a graduate of Smith College, and has also translated Prof. Frédéricq for the fifth series. We have already spoken of the paper before us, which is not a piece of dry statistics, but a report of methods of instruction in history as learned from personal class-room visits.

Mrs. Burnett's 'Sara Crewe' has just been published in Paris in French, following an adaptation in that language, 'Le Petit Lord.' Two other American stories now to be had in French are Mr. Bellamy's 'La Sœur de Miss Ludington' and Miss Jewett's 'Le Roman de la Femme Médecin.'

'Les Américains chez eux,' by the Marquis San Carlos de Pedrosso, is announced in Paris for immediate publication. If we may judge from the four instalments printed in the latest numbers of the *Nouvelle Revue*, the book will not attain even to the value of Max O'Rell's little volume. Republication of these articles has been begun in the *Revue Française* for June (New York: W. R. Jenkins).

No doubt the most rigidly classical of French critics, M. Ferdinand Brunetière, has his admirers in America, and there is no need now to say much more about the latest collection of his essays from the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, 'Nouvelles Questions de Critique' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern), than to note its appearance and the fact that it contains an admirable and solidly thought-out paper on 'Le Mouvement Littéraire du XIXe Siècle.' Perhaps it may be of interest to record, also, that M. Brunetière refers to Sainte-Beuve's criticism of Chateaubriand and of Mme. de Staël as "spiteful" (*rancunière*).

In the 'Dernières Pages' of George Sand there is a pleasant account of the marionnettes of Nohant, and of the many little plays which she and her son prepared for the puppets. Some of these little pieces have now been published in 'Le Théâtre des Marionnettes de Maurice Sand' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Christern). From the number of characters introduced at one time, the plays are apparently intended for puppets worked by wires above, and not animated by the human thumb and fingers, as are the *pupazzi* of M. Lemercier de Neuville.

Any one who cares to consider the methods of the professional dancer may be recommended to read 'La Danse au Théâtre,' by Mademoiselle Berthe Bernay, formerly of the Paris Opéra (Paris: Dentu; New York: Christern). The positions and movements which are the elements of the terpsichorean art are here described, and are illustrated by neat little "process" cuts. Among the other illustrations are portraits of the leading ballet-dancers of the Opéra.

The first number of the organ of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, the *Annals*, will shortly be issued in Philadelphia. Politics in Canada and the United States, the Decay of Local Government in America, and Cheaper Railroad Fares are the subjects of noticeable articles.

The monthly *American Etcher* (New York: Geo. F. Kelly & Co.) makes its appearance as promised, "with an etching on Japanese paper in a mat." This etching is not such as to make the price of the magazine seem abnormally cheap; there is no reference to it in the text, and the artist's name is indicated only by initials. The letter-press is partly taken up with an elementary but not superfluous description of what etchings are and how they are made, by Mr. Frederick Keppel; and partly consists of "General Art Notes."

The June number of the *American Amateur Photographer* (Brunswick, Me.) will commence publication of an "Index Review Photographic"—strange English for "a complete review of photographic processes, methods, and substances, arranged in alphabetical order." The author is Dr. John H. Janeway. In a report of a recent meeting of the Society of Amateur Photographers of this city, we read the useful suggestion of the Secretary, "that the Society undertake the photographing systematically of the prominent portions of the city, something in the nature of a photographic survey." A semi-annual record of the city's skyline from the Jersey shore would be another curious and valuable undertaking.

M. Angot gave last winter, in a communication to the French Academy of Sciences, some details of interest concerning the temperature observations made on the Eiffel Tower from July to November last. The observations were made 988 feet above the ground, or 1,102 above sea-level, and the temperatures were obtained with a Richard thermograph. These were compared with similar records made at the Park of St. Maur, about ten miles southeast of Paris, and 164 feet above the sea. The difference was found to be much greater in summer and during the day, and smaller in winter and at night. On calm and clear nights the temperature at the summit was often nine or ten degrees higher than at the ground. During any alteration in the weather the change was frequently apparent at 980 feet elevation many hours, and often several days, before it was manifested at the base. These observations, in connection with those of wind velocity, previously discussed, prove, in a rather surprising manner, how greatly the meteorological conditions may vary at an altitude of less than 1,000 feet from those observed on the ground.

Dr. R. Assmann of Berlin has discussed in *Das Wetter* the influence of climate upon the recent epidemic of influenza. He considers that while we are yet in the infancy of bacteriological investigation, it is still admitted that harmful germs do exist in the air as well as in water. Certain meteorological changes, therefore, which take place in the atmosphere must affect the quantity and growth of these micro-organisms; and every precipitation of moisture necessarily removes from the air immense quantities of dust and germs. Tissandier found that four times as much dust existed after dry weather as after rain, while snow was found to carry away an amount yet larger. Although no definite quantitative investigations have been made, it is undoubtedly true that the micro-organisms have an active part in atmospheric dust. The first authentic reports of the epidemic were from Siberia and Russia in November, 1889. From the daily weather reports and charts of the German Naval Observatory, Dr. Assmann finds that that there was an unusually long drought in November throughout eastern and central Europe, which continued, especially in the East, partly through December. In these regions November has usually 40–60 mm. of moisture through precipitation, but the figures for November, 1889, frequently remained under 10 mm. Everywhere there were dry periods of from fourteen to sixteen days. The accumulation of dust in the air at this unusual season must have been very great, especially as there was no lasting covering of snow, even thinly spread. Low-lying clouds also prevented the carrying away into larger space of the atmospheric germs.

The Deerfield (Mass.) Summer School of History and Romance opens its fifth season on July 3, with three sessions per week till the end of the month. The President is Mr. L. J. B. Lincoln, who may be addressed at Deerfield.

From the third annual report of the Harvard Law School Association, it appears that nearly half the membership is of New England, and more than two-fifths of Massachusetts, but the entire Union is more or less represented, and nearly one-half of the School's alumni are enrolled. In three years the membership has more than doubled. The Society offers an annual prize for legal essays by the School's undergraduates, and has been instrumental in establishing a course in Massachusetts law for five years—a precedent for other States. The success of the *Harvard Law Review* has prompted a gift of the free distribution of it to non-subscribing members of the Association for 1890-91.

Prof. J. Lawrence Laughlin, late of Harvard University, has been elected Professor of Political Economy in Cornell University, and has

accepted the position. Mr. Laughlin is well known to scholars as the author of 'The History of Bimetallism in the United States,' and also of an annotated edition of Mill's 'Political Economy,' and of an original work on the same science.

— The late John A. Lewis of Boston, whose death was a loss to the readers of the *Nation*, left behind him a very valuable library, of which a part was sold a few months ago. This was itself a large and notable collection, and the Trustees of the Boston Public Library could hardly have been prepared for the gift last month, by Mr. Lewis's widow, of the reserved portion, consisting of the rarer books illustrating American history. These are so numerous and so important as to be worthy of being specially set apart, and the Trustees have gladly accepted Mrs. Lewis's condition, that they be so kept and be called the John A. Lewis Library; and the donor has received the express thanks of the City Council. We abridge an official account of the new acquisition: The writings of the Mathers are numerously represented. Of Cotton Mather there are nearly a hundred publications; of Increase Mather, seventy; of Samuel Mather, twenty-three; of Richard Mather, four; and of Nathaniel Mather, one. There are twenty-six works by Thomas Prince; nineteen by John Cotton; several by William Penn, one of which bears the initials of his autograph; and a copy of the 'Rudiments of Latin Prosody,' and 'Dissertation on Letters,' by the patriot, James Otis. The copy of Hubbard's Narrative of the troubles with the Indians in New England, published at Boston in 1677, has the extremely rare map of New England, known as the "White Hills Map," as distinguished from the impression in which the New Hampshire mountains are called "Wine Hills." This map is said to be the first one cut in this country. Hubbard's Narrative was printed by John Foster, the first printer of Boston, of whose publications there are several specimens in the Lewis collection. Of books printed in the seventeenth century there are John Robinson's 'People's Plea,' 1618; Whitbourne's 'Discourse and Discovery of Newfoundland,' 1622; Hooker's 'Survey of the Summe of Church-discipline,' 1648; and 'The Soule's Preparation for Christ,' 1632; Underhill's 'Newes from America,' 1638; Wood's 'New-England's Prospect,' third edition, 1639; Hooke's 'New Englands Teares,' 1641; Welde's 'Answer to W. R.,' 1644; Ward's 'Simple Cobler of Aggawam,' 1647 and 1713; Mitchel's 'Nehemiah on the Wall in Troublesom Times,' published in 1671, and other Massachusetts election sermons; the Artillery election sermon, by Urian Oakes, published in 1674, and that of Samuel Nowell in 1678. Finally, there are several of the issues from Benjamin Franklin's press, including copies of the 'Poor Richard Improved Almanack.'

—The fifteenth and last volume of the Public Records of the Colony of Connecticut, edited by Dr. Charles J. Hoadly, State Librarian, has just been issued from the press of the Case, Lockwood & Brainard Co., Hartford. The series has been in course of publication for forty years, the first three volumes having been edited by Dr. J. Hammond Trumbull, the remaining twelve by Dr. Hoadly. The present volume contains all the records of the Colony of Connecticut, from May, 1775, and the record of the Council of Safety from their first sitting, June 7, 1775, to October 2, 1776, which was their last meeting, Dr. Hoadly informs us, before the session of the first General Assembly of the State of Connecticut, held on the second Thursday of that month. The records of the State covering the period of the Revolutionary War are yet to be printed. The curious student, as well as the historian and genealogist, will find these volumes valuable and interesting. Witchcraft trials, watch and ward in the French and Indian wars, the Connecticut militia system (at the outbreak of the Revolution the most perfect of any in the colonies, and a model for the Continental service), its officering, arming, and munitioning, the men and stores furnished by Connecticut in the various colonial wars, the disputes with New York and Massachusetts about boundaries—are some of the appetizing topics of these bulky volumes. The most interesting fact brought out in the latest is that the Declaration of Independence was never proclaimed in Connecticut. It came before the Governor and Council at Hartford on July 12, 1776, and was considered and "largely discoursed, and many things given out relative to the matter, etc., etc., and concluded to lay it by for the present." It was taken up again on the 18th, and again "largely discoursed," and it was finally thought best to let the matter remain for the determination of the General Assembly at their next stated session. But when the General Assembly convened in October, the immortal instrument had become so generally known that publication of it would have been a work of supererogation. The reason why the Governor and Council did not at once publish it is found further back in this same volume. On June 18 of the same summer, Gov. Trumbull, by the advice of his Council, and at the desire of the members of the General Assembly, issued a proclamation which contained many of the sentiments later embodied in the Declaration. This proclamation had been read in all the churches and printed on broadsides, and had become so well known to the people that publication of the Philadelphia paper was deemed unnecessary.

—Another interesting fact, showing the jealousy existing between the colonies at this period, is revealed by Dr. Hoadly in a foot-note on p. 83. At the May session, 1775, the House appointed Nathaniel Wales, Thaddeus Burr, and Pierrepont Edwards a committee to wait on the Provincial Congress of New York and the Provincial Congress of New Jersey, "to procure intelligence of the measures that might be adopted by them respecting the common cause of the British Colonies; to communicate a true state of the measures taken by the Colony of Connecticut; and to cultivate the friendship and harmony subsisting between those Provinces and this Colony." This was the ostensible object of the Commission; its real purpose was, however, to soothe the ruffled feelings of New York at the bold action of Connecticut in capturing Ticonderoga a short time previous. The three Commissioners appeared before the New York Congress on May 24. Messrs. Wales and Burr set out for home on the 26th, and Mr. Edwards proceeded to Trenton, and appeared before the Provincial Congress of New Jersey on the 29th. An appendix of more than 150 pages contains portions of Council Journals from 1663 to 1710, all (except the first) discovered in private hands, and secured since the publication of previous volumes.

—A reader of the *Nation*, himself editor of a denominational journal, writes that we did injustice to the Cincinnati *Herald and Presbyter* in our recent comments on its "brief free reading notices" in connection with school advertisements. This use of a technical (and now disreputable) term in its circular to advertisers was what, to our regret, misled us. Our correspondent says:

"The notices to which you refer are made of schools which do not advertise as well as of those which do. In their paper they publicly solicit catalogues, circulars, and descriptive matter from schools in order to notice as large a number as possible. These notices are descriptive, are placed in a column by themselves, and usually next advertisements—always away from editorial matter. In sending out advertising circulars they, of course, call attention to this feature, and request that notices be sent; but they also make the request through the paper, and make up a good many notices from other sources. Taking into account the position of these notices and the abuse of the notice business generally, it is not likely that any person who would patronize schools would consider them as of more weight than advertisements. They would be looked on more as the free 'ads.' in a free 'want column.' The *Herald and Presbyter* happens to be one of the cleanest papers in respect to advertising in the United States. I frequently make comparisons of religious papers, and find that the *Herald and Presbyter* continually rejects advertisements which appear in nearly all, if not all, the religious papers in New York. I think there is no New York paper which has as little that is objectionable."

—The winning of the Senior Wranglership by a woman is a memorable event in the history of education, and must be set down, moreover, as a weighty element in the determination of the relative mental abilities of the sexes. It is safe to say that no other contest for academic honors, anywhere in the world, equals in intensity, in difficulty, in the exhaustive inclusion of the strongest young minds of a great nation, the famous English mathematical ordeal at Cambridge. The winning of even the lowest wranglership implies a very high degree of ability and knowledge; but the problems proposed are of such extreme difficulty that it is not an uncommon thing for the senior wrangler to obtain *thirty* times as many marks as the man standing lowest on the list of honors; while below this man, who is about the hundredth in his class, stand the undistinguished crowd of 300 "poll men" who take no honors at all. That Miss Philippa Fawcett, a young woman of twenty-two, should have attained this extraordinary distinction in competition with the flower of English youths, ought for long to silence the confident assertion that women are inferior in mathematical ability to men. Not that one instance is sufficient to settle the matter, but that the assertion itself never had the smallest basis in observed fact, and that a single triumph in so crucial a test necessarily puts the burden of proof on the anti-woman side, for many years at least. Considering the very small numbers of the women as compared with the men, and remembering that only a few years ago—the first year, we believe, that women were admitted to the contest—Miss Scott took the high rank of eighth wrangler, the women of Cambridge may justly be very proud of their record. No one, however, can fully appreciate the greatness of the achievement unless he has seen the terrifying array of questions set to the contestants; questions the formidableness of which is realized vastly more fully by a professional mathematician than by one to whom all things belonging to the higher mathematics stand on a common level of inaccessibility. It remains to be seen whether Miss Fawcett will distinguish herself in independent work, as Madame Kowalewski, who was bred in the more generous and natural atmosphere of German universities, has done; but in the meanwhile, the high-pressure system of Cambridge, with its race-horse competition as be-all and end-all, has enabled Miss

Fawcett to write a record of victory which he who runs may read.

—In *Nord und Süd* for June, Karl Theodor Gädertz publishes a number of posthumous poems and letters of Fritz Reuter, which, if they do not add materially to our knowledge of the literary character of the great humorist, bring at least once more to mind the inexhaustible joyousness and good nature of the man. In one of the letters, written a few years before his death, and directed to an old schoolmate of Jewish descent, Reuter announces his intention to make a bequest to the hospital of his native town, in the following words:

"The good God has abundantly blessed my literary pursuits, so that, as far as men can judge, I may look without care into the future. And now yesterday a nice little goldfish ran into my net which, I think, may be of benefit to your hospital. The German people, in other words, have done me the great honor to award to me, through the Committee of the Tiedge Fund at Dresden, a prize of 100 ducats. Of this sum I give to my dear native town the enclosed 250 thalers for the purpose mentioned, and the remainder shall be used in a similar manner. For I deem it wrong to employ such an honorable gift for meat and bread, and coats and trousers, unless one is in great distress. And because for long, long years I have known your faithful and honorable service in your calling, and your love and friendship for me, I send this gift to you. To you, the Jew, who in hours of need and persecution faithfully has stood by my side, I owe much more than to many a Christian puffed up by what he calls his belief."

MARTINEAU'S SEAT OF AUTHORITY IN RELIGION.

The Seat of Authority in Religion. By James Martineau. Longmans, Green & Co. 1890.

DR. MARTINEAU has been bearing "fruit in old age" in a remarkable manner. Since the completion of his four-score years he has published three important works in five large octavo volumes. But the 'Types of Ethical Theory' and the 'Study of Religion' were books in which, "fault of novel germs," he "matured the unfallen fruit." They contained the substance of his lectures in Manchester New College carefully revised. His latest work, in one volume of 664 pages, published in his eighty-sixth year, is really a fresher creation than the two preceding. The First Book, pp. 1–126, was written for an American magazine, *Old and New*, some seventeen years ago. So, too, was the first and a part of the second chapter of Book II. The remainder, constituting much the larger portion of the book, has been written very recently, and its results have been worked out in the broad light of the most recent German studies of the things in hand. In several instances of first-rate importance they differ widely from the results of Dr. Martineau's earlier studies—results which have done much to shape Unitarian opinion during the last half century. In these chapters there is not a sign of waning power. They have the splendid vigor of a complete maturity.

The book, as a whole, has, of course, much in common with its immediate predecessors and Dr. Martineau's earlier writings. There is something of the joy of battle upon almost every page. Dr. Martineau's talent is nothing if not polemical. Here, as elsewhere, he is a master of dialectic, and there are passages in which he seems almost indifferent to the goal, so happy is he in the course of subtile discrimination and elimination which he steadily pursues. There are those who have great admiration for his style, while some have called it meretricious. It is exceedingly rhetorical, but, evidently, is so without effort. There are no similes, but of metaphors there is no end, and their complete interfusion of the sign with the thing signified is frequently bewildering.

The 'Ethics' and 'Religion,' anticipating the First Book of the present volume, almost convinced the orthodox that Martineau had become as one of them. The other books of this volume will disabuse them with what may seem to them a certain rudeness. Yet it will be no surprise to those who know the course of Dr. Martineau's thought for nearly sixty years. Philosophically conservative since his conversion to intuitionalism some forty years ago, or since intuitionalism became conservative as opposed to the new experiential system, he has always been theologically and critically radical, and the theological and critical elements of his present work will be painful and appalling, not only to many of his orthodox admirers, but to many of the more conservative Unitarians, who have foolishly imagined that Dr. Martineau could be counted on their side. It is certain that from no Unitarian scholar have we ever had a mass of criticism of the New Testament and of ordinary conceptions of Jesus and his work so thoroughgoing in its destructive radicalism as that which we have here, while the amount of comfort the conventionally orthodox are likely to derive from Dr. Martineau's valedictory can easily be gathered from such sentences as these:

"Christianity, as defined or understood in all the churches which formulate it, has been mainly evolved from what is transient and perishable in its sources; from what is unhistorical in its traditions, mythological in its preconceptions, and misapprehended in the oracles of its prophets. From the fable of Eden to the imagination of the last trumpet, the whole story of the divine order of the world is dislocated and deformed."

"To consecrate and diffuse, under the name of 'Christianity,' a theory of the world's economy thus made up of illusions from obsolete stages of civilization, immense resources, material and moral, are expended, with effect no less deplorable in the province of religion than would be, in that of science, hierarchies and missions for propagating the Ptolemaic astronomy and inculcating the rules of necromancy and exorcism" (p. 650).

The subject of Book II. is "Authority Artificially Misplaced," and its first chapter treats of "The Catholics and the Church." The notes of catholicity, sanctity, and apostolicity, claimed by the Roman Church as proofs of its authority, are subjected to a searching examination which will invite ingenious evasion rather than a frank reply, if any children of the venerable mother choose to heed the challenge, as very likely they will not. The "Protestants and the Scriptures" is the second topic of this Part. The treatment of the Pauline Epistles is extremely scanty and lacks clearness. We are left in doubt what epistles are accepted as genuine. In this connection there is a passage, of surprising interest, illustrating the possibility of grave mistakes in the attribution of authorship to celebrated persons. 'The Character of a Christian set forth in Paradoxes and Seeming Contradictions' was published as Bacon's in 1648, and is still widely quoted as his, his modern editors inclining to doubt, but being unable to disprove, its authenticity. In 1865 it was shown by Dr. Grosart to be the work of Herbert Palmer, Master of Queens College, Cambridge, a Westminster divine, and to have been published as his both before and after its inclusion with Bacon's writings. The Paradoxes illustrate as well as ever the intellectual temper of the time, but Dr. Grosart's discovery relieves Bacon's character from much unjust imputation, and makes absurd a little mountain of apology and abuse to which the Paradoxes have given rise.

The treatment of the Synoptic Gospels argues their indebtedness to a common source. Breaking them up into one hundred and seventy-four sections, Dr. Martineau finds that fifty-eight belong to all three. Of the unshared elements thirty-one are found in Luke, seven in Matthew, and only three in Mark. Another interesting estimate is of the days of Jesus's ministry. Of four hundred and fifty implied by the Synoptics, only thirty-five are accounted for; while once of three months, and again of two, there is a total silence. The conclusion is, from various lines of argument, that the Synoptics are "composed of mixed materials, aggregating themselves through three or four generations; they report no authorship in any case, and no date, except of their unhistorical accretions." For the birth and infancy of Jesus, thirty years behind his ministry, with their "false chronology, irreconcilable contradictions, historical prodigies, and fabulous mode of prediction," they offer us no points of contact whatever. The interest increases with the entrance of the Fourth Gospel on the scene of the discussion. Dr. Martineau's conclusions here, with those of Dr. Tayler, saintliest of English Unitarians, have long been a grievance to the Unitarian conservative. His conclusion that the Gospel made its appearance midway of the second century is more significant because of his confession of "the strongest drawing of sympathy towards the characteristics of this Gospel." Reviewing the external testimony, the results he attains are that it was "probably not known to Justin (about 155), possibly to the author of the Clementines (about 170), . . . cited by Apollinaris (about 175), for the first time *named* by Theophilus of Antioch (about 180); the Fourth Gospel would seem to have become known in the sixth or seventh decade of the second century, and to have ceased to be anonymous in the eighth." Any earlier date than the fifth decade of the second century is found too early for its appearance. The battle has raged hottest around Justin's quotations. But allowing them to be from the Fourth Gospel, Dr. Martineau's conclusion is the same.

A consideration of the internal character of the Gospel reaches the same result. Its relation to the Apocalypse furnishes Dr. Martineau with his most interesting critical theme. Those who have denied the Johannine authorship of the Gospel have generally accepted that of the Apocalypse. Not so Dr. Martineau. The unity of its composition was first questioned in 1882 by Dr. Voelter of Tübingen, whose doubts have since been confirmed to Dr. Martineau's satisfaction, but with a difference. Dr. Martineau, following Harnack, who follows here his pupil Eberhard Vischer, finds in the Apocalypse of John a Jewish Apocalypse with Christian interpolations, including the three introductory chapters and an Epilogue, ch. xxii. 6-21. The Jewish part was a product of the period immediately preceding the fall of Jerusalem in 70 A. D. The final recension was probably not before 136 A. D. The relation of the fourth Gospel to the Paschal Controversy has always been with Dr. Martineau one of the most conclusive arguments against the Johannine authorship, and that is here worked out with great carefulness. In his elaborate treatment of the Acts of the Apostles, Dr. Martineau keeps the general course of the Tübingen school, but is less "vigorous and rigorous" than Hilgenfeld.

We must pass over Book III, in which revealed religion is distinguished from natural

religion as intuitional belief—a very doubtful business. The first chapter of Book IV is a severely earnest treatment of apocalyptic religion as the travesty of revealed. Chapters follow on "Theories of the Person of Jesus," "Theories of the Work of Jesus," and "Theories of Union with God." Never before has there proceeded from any Unitarian writer, with any such elaboration, such a frank confession of the divergence of Unitarian opinion from the New Testament standards. Indeed, Dr. Martineau finds in the New Testament much more confirmation of traditional orthodoxy than does the new orthodoxy of the present time. He does not, therefore, propose to desert the Unitarian camp, for his Christianity is the personal religion of Jesus, and this he finds miserably overlaid and disfigured by those elements which are most favorable to a traditional orthodoxy.

The most significant feature of these chapters is the insistence that Jesus did not regard himself as the Messiah in any sense, even the most spiritual. This insistence is strongly at variance with the average tendency of critical opinion, but Dr. Martineau's reasoning is closely knit and cannot easily be broken through. The resurrection fares as the Messiahship, and just as we are thinking that the sifted sediment of the residuum must be very small indeed, we are told (p. 602), "The portions of the Synoptic texts which remain on hand, after severing what the foregoing rules exclude, can by no means be accepted *en masse* as all equally trustworthy. They are relieved simply of the impossible, and contain only what *might be* true." And then begins another process of exclusion, in which we sometimes seem to catch a note of personal preference, as if Dr. Martineau were constructing a man after his own heart. We often wish that he would give us chapter and verse for some of the features of that personality which he evokes from the wide ruin he has made. Certainly no reverent disciple of Jesus has ever stripped away so much of the traditional raiment of Jesus. Does not even Strauss, in his new 'Leben Jesu,' leave us more of history and fact? But in his closing chapters Dr. Martineau, on a mere film of biography, strings, like a row of opalescent beads, his views of the purely human personality of Jesus. In the response of the human soul to this personality, as to all spiritual excellence higher than its own, Dr. Martineau finds the Seat of Authority in Religion.

MORE FICTION.

The Career of a Nihilist. By Stepniak. Harper & Bros.

Kit and Kitty. By R. D. Blackmore. Harper & Bros.

Prince Fortunatus. By William Black. Harper & Bros.

The Story of Tonty. By Mary Hartwell Catherwood. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

Allan's Wife, and Other Tales. By H. Rider Haggard. Harper & Bros.

A Waif of the Plains. By Bret Harte. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Dean's Daughter. By Sophie F. F. Veitch. D. Appleton & Co.

Warp and Woof; or, New Frames for Old Pictures. By Frances Hartson Wood and Eva Paine Kitchel. Boonton, N. J.: F. H. Wood.

If Stepniak's 'Russia Under the Tsars' is, as it has every appearance of being, an unexaggerated statement of facts, there is very little fiction in his 'Career of a Nihilist.' The novelist's hand is shown only in the construction of a consecutive narrative and in the limitation and concentration of action. Every reader of newspapers is familiar with the incidents of the novel, and has already a fairly distinct impression of the character of Audrey and his fellow-conspirators. What the character lacks in variety it makes up in terribly centralized force—force is indeed a weak word to describe the fury that possesses the Nihilist, and whirls him madly along a road that leads to an ignominious death or more horrible death in life. No revolutionary movement has ever presented such a spectacle of self-immolation, and no self-immolation has ever appeared so futile and unfruitful of results. Ever since the imperial ukase of Alexander II. recalled to Russia those young subjects who, spread about civilized Europe, were imbibing, along with general and harmless knowledge, particular and dangerous notions of political freedom, every Nihilist and group of Nihilists has fought the autocracy with similar heroism, similar ineffectiveness, and the issue of the struggle is ever—like the judgments of the Czar's tribunals—inevitably decided beforehand.

Stepniak's characters are as typical of the Nihilists of twenty-five years ago as of the Nihilists of to-day. The movement began by a peaceful propaganda of subversive socialistic literature; when the propagandists were oppressed, they retaliated with violence and made the murder of the Czar their chief aim and object. Except that the Terrorist party may now be in the minority and the propagandists, or Peasantists, in the majority, a quarter of a century has wrought no change or progress. The autocracy has become more cruel, despotic, and altogether abominable, but its enemies have never, so far as the world knows, formed a plan, or even conceived an idea, which, if executed, would probably destroy it. In Stepniak's novel nothing strikes the foreigner so forcibly as the limited vision of the conspirators. If half the ingenuity shown in eluding the ubiquitous police and making useless attempts to rescue imprisoned comrades were devoted to formulating a wider revolutionary scheme, the cause would be more hopeful, the actors more likely to attract universal sympathy. Their lack of political sagacity and of power to combine, to work silently, and to wait, may perhaps be attributed to their youth. If every Nihilist is to be shot or exiled before he is thirty years old, a Czar and his minions and myrmidons are likely to reign for ever in the way that suits themselves.

The chief hope for the remaining one hundred millions of Russians lies, as Stepniak points out, in the intervention of other nations on the ground of a common humanity. One of the contentions of adherents of the "religion of humanity" is, that it has a greater active force for good than Christianity, trammelled with dogma, ever had. If any of its high priests were to begin to preach a crusade against the Czar, as Peter the Hermit preached against the infidel defiling Christianity's Holy of Holies, it would be interesting to see how many avowed Humanitarians would flock from their shops and offices and higher places to do military service, to right such horrible wrongs with fire and sword. No better practical test of the active force of an abstract, impersonal religion could possibly be imagined.

Mr. Blackmore's novels are always different from other people's, and the difference is generally in his favor. He is more strongly and seriously dramatic than some, more thoughtful and truth-loving than many; he goes immeasurably more slowly than most. 'Kit and Kitty' widens the gulf of separation, and may possibly be another proof of the author's superiority to his average brother. The title is one of those which compel inferences. It forecasts a novel perhaps drowsy and sensuous, perhaps sprightly and mischievous, certainly light in touch, with hints of frivolity. No one could ever expect it to be more than drowsy, more than dull—one of the most solemnly stupid novels that have ever been written in any tongue.

The story is told by Kit, a rarely bucolic specimen to be domiciled near London in the year 1860. Kit is a market gardener who falls in love with Kitty, a maiden of comparatively high degree. Before their marriage Kitty's story is the same as Cinderella's, unenlivened by such delightful surprises as the pumpkin coach and gorgeous ball dress. Her stepmother is a person worth dwelling upon because she is as vicious as Cinderella's and all the other stepmothers that have ever lived, put together. In her youth she was famed for beauty and ferocity of temper. On the eve of her sister's marriage with the Hon. Thomas Bulwray, she took a notion to marry the gentleman herself, so she locked up the sister in a barn and forced the fiancé to elope with her. By the time she had had a son and two daughters, all quite as wicked as she, the Honorable Thomas withdrew from the family circle, and sought the joys of peace and a quiet life in South America, where, at that period, a lively struggle for existence was going on among the cut-throat populations of divers States. He speedily found rest, and when news of his death came, Mrs. Bulwray took to her bosom another victim with a daughter Kitty. All the Bulwrays let loose their frolicsome spirits on Kitty. They beat her and starved her and prohibited her wearing anything but rags. Even when Kit has married her, and installed her in a vine-clad cot, the wanton villains still pursue her, and succeed in separating man and wife for two miserable years. The Bulwray star is supremely ascendant when Nemesis comes on the scene and completely satisfies the demands of poetic and fairy-tale justice. Nemesis takes a most awful shape and most unexpected, that of the Honorable Thomas, not dead at all, but made horrible by leprosy, come home to have it out with madam before the grave shall close over him. His vengeance is thorough—culminating in a Bulwray family fight in which father and son are slain, and which madam survives only to become a raving maniac.

This slight sketch of the plot shows that its materials are thrilling and of an honorable antiquity. Nothing short of a transcription of the book could prove that the accusation of stupidity is not an aspersion recklessly flung upon Mr. Blackmore. It is through the elaborate torpor of Kit's style, with its pompous affectation of naïveté, that he achieves a stupidity quite beyond the range, and, we hope, the aspiration, of any contemporary.

Mr. Black's singing hero, Prince Fortunatus, like Kit, loves above his station, only to have his affection blighted by a "No," sweeter, however, than another's "Yes." After a proper season of alternate self-abnegation and desperate follies, winding up in brain fever, he consoles himself with the faithful adoration of a young Italian person no better than himself socially, and rather worse artistically. No genius is needed to extend these simple sorrows into a very dull romance; the wonder here is, that, interwoven with equally simple joys, they make a very readable story, which gently stimulates curiosity to the end, and then modestly effaces itself from memory.

Prince Fortunatus is a well-known ingredient of modern society; he seems to have become an essential one. Women cry for him. He has routed the parrot and the canary, and in drawing-rooms where he deigns frequently to loll, a diminution of worship for small, long-haired dogs is noticeable. Sometimes he sings, sometimes paints, sometimes reads Browning with original notes, sometimes only looks. Occasionally he "draws" by extravagant affectation. In this phase Mr. Gilbert satirized him. Male relations generally consider him harmless and scrupulously avoid him. Once in a great while he has some manly qualities, and would be a very good fellow if it weren't for the women. Prince Fortunatus is of the occasional lot, and probably would never have discredited his sex if he hadn't been "taken up" by Lady Adela. Lady Adela is the "tall and elegant young English matron" made familiar to the vulgar by Mr. DuMaurier. She and her tall and elegant sisters are badly afflicted with the modern craze for notoriety, and in their pursuit of it are far more reprehensible than are short and scrubby female nobodies, who have at least the excuse of pressing pecuniary necessity. The satire on these elegant ladies is not keen enough to provoke the displeasure of their prototypes, nor to move them to reform.

Mr. Black reserves his scorn for Quirk, the literary hack whom Lady Adela coddles unscrupulously in order to secure favorable notices of her trashy novel. Quirks are offensive creatures, but, for all their power to make or unmake literary reputations, quite unworthy of so much wrath. Besides, this one is not nearly so amusing to read about as are Lady Adela and her sisters; not half so mirth-provoking as the stately Miss Honnor Cunyngham, the object of Mr. Black's homage, as she was the adored of Prince Fortunatus even after she had refused him. Mr. Black's enthusiasm for a woman who can cast a fly increases with every novel. Here is one who, for several successive weeks, does nothing but fish, barely desisting long enough during the daylight to snatch a scanty meal. In the evenings she sits about silently smiling at the artistic diversions of her feather-brained sisters-in-law. Mr. Black wishes to represent her as immensely superior, yet benignantly tolerant, whereas every one knows that, after her day's labor, the mental effort of keeping herself awake is all she is equal to. Her ultimate marriage with the somnolent Lord Rockminster is a very good proof of her intellectual calibre. The skill to land a salmon may be a picturesque accomplishment for an otherwise charming girl, but it doesn't seem to be a sufficient reason for apotheosis.

In 'The Story of Tonty,' Mrs. Catherwood continues her efforts to popularize the history of French exploration in America. A history made by men of striking personality and frequently brilliant antecedents presents to the writer of romance an embarrassment of choice, and Mrs. Catherwood has twice chosen well. She perceives an opportunity, but fails to make the best of it. She is hampered by the old-fashioned notion that romance is inseparable from love, and rejects much truth that is both romantic and dramatic, to make room for melodramatic fiction. A man does not need to be a Dollard, a La Salle, or a Tonty to love, fortunately or unfortunately, and a story which leaves in the reader's mind the impression that these heroic figures were, before all things, lovers, is defective and derogatory to their real historic dignity. The author is so occupied in working up fictitious passion of La Salle for the ascetic Jeanne Le Ber, and of Tonty for Mlle. Cavelier, that their passion for exploration of unknown lands—the passion which won them enduring fame—seems secondary and insignificant. No prominence is given by illustrative incident to the great qualities of the two men, the irrepressibly initiative spirit of the one, and the resourceful loyalty of the other. Mrs. Catherwood even slights her avowed motive, to pay honor to the memory of Henri de Tonty, whom she, somewhat enthusiastically, calls La Salle's "greater friend." She has used very little of the material furnished by Tonty's authenticated narrative, which is full of instances of his patience and courage in carrying out the designs of his leader, and which offers the best and also the most romantic testimony to the capacity for friendship possessed by the man with the iron hand. It is very hard to see why, for the sake of a trivial theatrical situation, she should have rejected the facts concerning Tonty's long ignorance of La Salle's death. It is almost wicked to throw away such a chance for fine characterization of a chosen hero as that presented by Tonty's few short sentences referring to the months of weary, anxious waiting for news, and his description of the fruitless quest to the Gulf of Mexico undertaken long after La Salle's body had been left to the buzzards by the banks of Trinity River.

No fault can be found with the author's prejudice in favor of one of her heroes when she refers to the continual quarrels between La Salle and his enemies. Many of his enemies were, indeed, his creditors; but on the whole he was unfairly treated in life and maligned after death, and is worthy of unstinted admiration. We are glad that Mrs. Catherwood refrained from printing in foot-notes facsimiles of La Salle's unpaid bills. Her propensity for dispensing foot-note information is fatiguing. People who don't know where the romancer differs from the historian don't care, and people who do know don't need to be told.

Mr. Haggard's volume entitled 'Allan's Wife' includes the literary remains of Hunter Quatermain, or, at least, a portion of them. We can never be sure that we are reading positively the last yarn of that bold yet lachrymose adventurer. The title story tells how he courted and married that wife to whom sentimental and obscure references may be found in many of his published works. The course of his true love was frequently ruffled by the insane jealousy, not of a rival suitor, but of a Babyan-frau—that is, a creature born a woman and bred a baboon. When the baboon-woman realizes that the Hunter has hopelessly distanced her in her mistress's affections, she goes away and meditates vengeance. She is reasonably sure of accomplishing that, because she has hosts of baboons at her beck and call, and can manage them admirably, thanks to her perfect familiarity with their language. In due season she swoops upon the Hunter's paradise, destroys it, and drives him forth sorrowing into a lonely world. The baboon episode is the only one in the book which does not appear to be a réchauffé of those episodes on the narration of which the Hunter's diffidence always makes it painful for him to enter, and out of which he never comes second-best.

It seems a long time now since Bret Harte has given us anything except réchauffés. The materials which make up 'A Waif of the Plains' are worn to death. The first incident, the loss of two children from an emigrant train crossing the great central plains, is pathetic, and the boy's self-sacrificing care of the little girl promises an interesting development. The promise is not fulfilled. The subsequent adventures of Clarence Brant are sensational, commonplace, and common: the people he meets with are feeble and faint images, pale ghosts of the motley throng of vagabonds, terribly alive, who conquered the reading world when Bret Harte sent them trooping forth to make known the West unto the East and beyond. There is a generally accepted belief or supposition that when a story-teller loses the fire and vigor of youth, the compensation for the loss is increased literary grace, a smoother, more polished, more effective literary style. Such compensation, poor as it is, is denied us by Bret Harte. His early stories had a spontaneous perfection of form. They seemed to be born, not made. The saddest evidence of falling off in 'A Waif of the Plains' is its aimless incompleteness. With Bret Harte, distinctively American fiction (fiction that could never have been written in any country except America) sprang into being. He was the creator, and now he is among the destroyers. It is always sad to see a man not only falling short of his best, but belittling it; it is especially so in literature. In some countries there is a custom of giving pensions to literary men who have arrived at the stage of incapable senility; America might improve on that custom by pensioning writers when the first signs of decadence are noted, on condition that they shall never more put pen to paper.

The whole action of 'The Dean's Daughter' turns upon an exaggerated idea of self-sacrifice. The fact is continually insisted upon that Vera Dormer is a "Bohemian," from her earliest introduction at nine years old, when already her independence and fine horsemanship are her strong points. At eighteen she performs the extraordinary feat of catching a runaway horse — herself upon horseback — whose rider is her chief rival and enemy, thus saving the girl's life at what seemed the certain loss of her own. Later, when this same Edith Cranley is married, but is known to be forming a dangerous intimacy with a dissipated army officer, Vera voluntarily places herself in an exceedingly anomalous position to save the reputation of this weak-minded woman, who, of course, allows the deception to be spread abroad as truth. As a further irony, her husband sees fit, on account of these reports, to break off Edith's acquaintance with Vera, whose heroism is called actively into play to prevent her telling him the actual facts. And to crown this singular young woman's actions, she accuses herself in open court of having forged the signature to a will, in order to protect the man who, from the purely unselfish purpose of saving an estate to its rightful heir, and thwarting a villain, did commit the forgery. It is a strange story, well and even strongly written, but in no sense either comfortable or satisfactory.

Many are called to write a great book, but few are chosen. It is evident that prohibition and woman suffrage have not found their prophets in the authors of 'Warp and Woof.' It is plentifully sprinkled with italics, abbreviations, and quotation marks; its characters write "postals" and attend "socials," and much is called "real nice." It is one of a large class of stories written with the best intentions, but with too evident lack of power and cultivation to produce much effect, in a way either moral or literary.

RIBOT'S PSYCHOLOGY OF ATTENTION.

The Psychology of Attention. By Th. Ribot. Authorized translation. Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Company. 1890. 8vo, pp. 121.

EVERY educated man wants to know something of the new psychology. Those who have

still to make acquaintance with it may well begin with Ribot's little book on 'Attention,' which all who have made progress in the new science will certainly wish to read. It is the *chef d'œuvre* of one of the best of those students who have at length erected psychology into a science.

Ribot regards the doctrine of attention as "the counterpart, the necessary complement, of the theory of association." He means that attention is related to suggestion as inhibition to muscular contraction. Physiologists, however, would scarcely rank *inhibitibility* with contractility as an elementary property of protoplasm. Besides, though suggestion by association may be likened to muscular action, how can the analogy be extended to the process of association itself, or the welding together of feelings? This welding seems to be the only law of mental action; and upon it suggestion and inhibition of suggestion alike depend. Attention is said by Ribot to modify reverie's train of thought by inhibiting certain suggestions, and thereby diverting their energy to suggestions not inhibited. This makes the positive element of attention quite secondary. At the same time, we are told that the sole incitement to attention is interest. That is to say, a preconceived desire prepares us to seize promptly any occasion for satisfying it. A child's cry, drowned in clatter of talk for others' ears, attracts the mother's attention because she is in some state of preparation for it. Ribot, however, does not remark that to say the mind acts in a prepared way is simply to say it acts from a formed association, such action not being inhibitory. If interest be the sole incitement to attention, it is that the energy spent upon the interesting suggestion leaves none for others, rather than that a positive inhibition of the latter throws waste energy into the former. This only happens when attention is controlled for a conscious purpose. If, in the beginning of his inquiry, Ribot had discarded the unscientific word "attention," and with it his feeble antithesis of association and attention, the truth would have shone out that the main phenomenon is emotional association, aided in certain cases by acts of inhibition.

The most interesting and valuable parts of the book are those devoted to corporeal concomitants of attention. Evidence is that in this act parts of the brain receive increase of blood. This must be due to stimulation of the vaso-motor nerves, belonging to the sympathetic system, under the influence of the desire in the interest of which attention is excited. Moreover, in intense attention the breath is held, and in every case respiration is slackened. There are, besides, certain muscular actions: in external attention, the eyebrows and the skin of the forehead over them are drawn up, the eyes opened wide and directed to the object, the jaw more or less dropped, and the whole body held immobile in an attitude as if approaching the object. In internal attention, the brow is contracted, the eyebrow lowered, the lid at least partially closed, the jaw clenched, the lips pursed up, the body usually immobile, preferentially in a sitting posture with the whole arms close to the trunk. There are, however, often motions, as walking up and down. These muscular states are indispensable conditions of attention. "It is impossible to reflect while running at full speed or climbing a steep ascent." "A child, seven years old," not able to breathe through its nose, owing to a tumor, "had succeeded in learning, during a whole year, only the first three letters of the alphabet. Having been operated upon for its adenoid tumor, the same child in a single week learned the entire alphabet."

According to Ribot, these muscular actions are not *aids* to attention, but constitute attention. The notion that we think with our muscles is very attractive to the whole new school. Ask why, and you are told, because "every act of volition, whether impulsive or prohibitory, acts only upon muscles and through muscles; any other conception is vague, incomprehensible, and chimerical." This little burst of emphasis signifies defective evidence. When positive evidence is at hand, it is calmly put in; when prejudices have to be addressed, warmth is in order. The truth is, all these physiological psychologists are "monists." For theory of connection of soul and body, they have struck a happy compromise between materialism and spiritualism, in bolding that mind and matter are simply two aspects of the same thing. If the balance were really preserved between the opposing tendencies, the result would be a doctrine in harmony with philosophic pessimism, but not easily reconciled with observed facts. But is the balance held even by the psychophysicists? They say, for example, that unorganized matter feels, if at all, very little. But when we expect them to balance this by cases in which mind is barely, if at all, connected with matter, they insist, on the contrary, that the attributes of matter do not admit of augmentation and remission, and that soul only exists as an aspect of that which otherwise appears as corporeal. What is this but making mind to be a special determination of that universal substance which is generally known to us as matter? And to make mind a specialization of matter would seem, metaphysical phrases apart, to be materialism. In our day, the charge of being materialist will scare nobody; and all the facts of life show dependence of soul upon body. Yet common sense will never admit that feeling can result from any mechanical contrivance; and sound logic refuses to accept the makeshift hypothesis that consciousness is an "ultimate" property of matter in general or of any chemical substance.

No philosophy will endure which does not freely allow to every reason, every fact, its full force. But this school is for ever exaggerating the resemblances of psychical and physical phenomena, for ever extenuating their differences. Ribot, for example, often speaks of the "mechanism of association," and even attempts to apply to it the physical distinction of potential and kinetic energy. But looking at the matter without prepossession, or with that of a student of mechanics, the analogy between the process of association and any mechanical motion does not appear to be very close. Both are operations governed by law, it is true. But the law of mechanics is absolute, prescribing (after two positions are given) the precise point of space where each particle shall be at each instant of time; while the force of association is essentially a gentle one (two ideas that have occurred together having a gentle tendency to suggest one another), and if it were made absolute, ideas would at once be rigidly bound together, and the whole phenomena of learning, or generalization, which is the essence of association, would be put to death.

Again, alike in the physical and the psychical world, we find trains of causation. In the latter, it is the past alone which directly and involuntarily influences the present by association; the future we only divine; and all our efforts are to make our present actions conform to our idea of that future. In the physical world, on the contrary, regard being had to the law of the conservation of energy, which denies any primordial force dependent on velocity, the past and the future are in relations to the present precisely similar to one another—a fact which appears from the circumstance that, in the equations of motion, the sign of the flow of time may be reversed, provided the signs of the velocities are reversed, the forces being unchanged, and still the formulæ will remain intact. We will not say that these distinctions between mental and mechanical actions are facts large enough to blot out their slight resemblances, for these latter should neither be overlooked nor disregarded; but the distinctions will certainly be prominent in a well-proportioned view of the subjects. Undoubtedly, there are physical phenomena in which gentle forces seem to act, and others which seem to violate the principle of energy; but these appearances are due to a principle different from a law of motion, namely, to the action of probability. The type of such phenomena is the viscosity of a gas; and the regularity of this, closely approximate but not strictly exact, is due to the countless trillions of molecules which are flying about in all directions with almost every rate of speed. That there is analogy between spreading of motion through a gas by viscosity and association of ideas need not be denied.

In regard to the doctrine that volition consists in, or is an aspect of, muscular contraction or inhibition, it is to be considered that considerable time elapses during the passage of the motor impulse down the nerve. During this interval we seem to be aware of a striving, like that of nightmare. At any rate, something has taken place in which the muscle had no part. The muscle might even be amputated before the impulse reached it. But if a motor impulse can thus be communicated to a nerve fibre to be transmitted over it, how can we be sure that this latter may not abut against a nerve cell instead of against a muscle cell?

Ribot's terminology sometimes seems open to criticism. Of the two forms of attention, that which is governed by the course of outward perceptions and that which is controlled from within by definite purposes, he terms the former *spontaneous*, the latter *voluntary*. Now, suppose a man in a sudden fit of anger blackguards another, can it be said that his speech was *involuntary* simply because it was not controlled? And if he wished to excuse himself on the ground of sudden provocation, would he say that his language was purely *spontaneous*? It would seem better to call every action which is subject to inward control *voluntary*, whether actually controlled or not, and to apply the term *spontaneous* only to those acts which are *not* reflexes from external stimuli.

The translation is sufficiently good, and the *Open Court* is doing useful work in publishing such books.

DANA'S LATEST PUBLICATIONS.

Characteristics of Volcanoes. With contributions of facts and principles from the Hawaiian Islands. By James D. Dana. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1890.

Corals and Coral Islands. Third edition. By James D. Dana, LL. D., Professor of Geology, etc. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1890.

It is now half a century since the author of the above-named works, then in his twenty-seventh year, made his first visit to the active and dormant volcanoes of the Sandwich Islands.

In spite of his youth, he already possessed a thorough scientific training, and, what is more difficult to obtain, a wide geological field experience. In 1834 he had visited the volcanic region of the Mediterranean, and made an examination of Vesuvius, of whose varied and destructive eruptions we possess an almost continuous record since the commencement of the Christian era, and of Stromboli, also classical in the records of vulcanism as being the only known volcano that has been in a constant state of activity during the past 3,000 years. In 1838 he had been appointed geologist of the Wilkes Exploring Expedition, and, before reaching the Sandwich Islands, had already visited the most important scenes of volcanic energy in the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. In 1841 the good ship *Peacock*, on which he was voyaging, was wrecked on the bar at the mouth of the Columbia River in Oregon, but the young geologist with his shipmates succeeded in reaching the shore of his native land at Cape Disappointment. After some investigations among the extinct volcanoes of the Pacific Coast, he returned to his professional duties at Yale College.

In 1860 Prof. Dana made another visit to Vesuvius, and in 1887, for a second time, he journeyed to the Sandwich Islands, and made further personal examinations of the Hawaiian volcanoes. Some of the scientific observations made during this last trip were published in the *American Journal of Science*, and to them, in a recent paper upon the Tertiary volcanoes of Scotland, read before the Geological Society of London, Prof. J. W. Judd, President of the Society, made the following striking allusion:

"Geologists all over the world may well hesitate as to which calls for the greater admiration—the vigor and enthusiasm which prompted our esteemed foreign member to undertake a journey of ten thousand miles in order to clear up difficulties left in his original studies of the district in 1840, or the new and valuable results obtained by the investigations of one who, after nearly a half-century of thought and inquiry, has returned to the field of his early observations."

Every student of geology is familiar with Dana's various text-books of geology and mineralogy which have long held the highest position in their respective branches, in Europe as well as in America. Every investigator and working geologist appreciates the great value of his theoretical views upon the larger problems in regard to the structure of our globe, which have been arrived at with great caution and after an immense accumulation of facts of personal observation, and hence have long stood the test of practical application to the phenomena of nature, where more brilliant and startling, but less well-founded, hypotheses have gradually been set aside. Moreover, in spite of his great modesty and entire absence of self assertion, it has fallen to the lot of few scientific men to find during their life-time such universal recognition of their great merits, as much among foreigners as by their own countrymen. He was one of the original founders of the National Academy of Science and of the Geological Society of America, and is honorary member of the foremost scientific societies of all the nations of Europe.

It will be with more than usual interest, therefore, that the first systematic enunciation of his views upon the most mysterious and interesting of all geological phenomena, the outward and visible manifestations of volcanic energy, will be greeted by the scientific world. No problem in nature has been more fruitful of speculative hypotheses than the cause and origin of the various phenomena of volcanic activity. Its solution involves the determination of the condition of our globe at the time of its first consolidation, of that of its interior at the present moment, and indirectly of the whole question of mountain building and the manner of formation of the earth's surface-reliefs. That it still remains so largely a purely speculative question is due in great measure to the fact that, at the critical periods of the manifestations of volcanic energy — that is, during active eruptions—close and accurate observations of volcanic phenomena are in most cases not only dangerous to human life, but physically impossible.

Dana early recognized that in the eruptions of the Hawaiian volcanoes, which are of the non-explosive type—that is, consisting of quiet outflows of molten lava unaccompanied by the destructive showers of rock fragments, scoria, and volcanic ash, which, in the explosive eruptions of volcanoes of the Vesuvius type, have caused the principal losses of human life—the most favorable opportunities were presented for an accurate scientific study of the phenomena of an active eruption. The main difference between these two types of eruptions lies in the characters of the respective lavas, those of the Hawaiian volcanoes being of a basic basaltic rock, which is extremely fusible, flowing with great freedom, and less readily choking its vents, while the explosive eruptions occur mainly with lavas of a more acid, and hence more viscous, nature; the hidden sources of energy and the forces which produce the eruption, however, being essentially the same in either case. The great drawback to such a study has been the distance of the Sandwich Islands from great scientific centres. Since his first visit to the Islands, however, Prof. Dana has kept up an active correspondence with intelligent residents, directing and advising the conduct of their observations, and the many scientific and semi-scientific visitors to these volcanoes in the last fifty years have, with a single exception, borne testimony to the correctness of his early observations and the aid which they have received from his advice. His book bears evidence of the zeal with which this work has been carried on, in the surprisingly complete record which it furnishes of the various eruptions, during this period, of the two great Hawaiian volcanoes, Kilauea and Mauna Loa (Mount Loa).

Searchers after first causes, and those who expect to find in every scientific work a complete and ready-made explanation of the phenomena of which it treats, will doubtless be disappointed in reading among his preliminary remarks the following frank statement of Prof. Dana: "The *origin of volcanic heat*, the *source of lava-columns* beneath the volcano, the *cause of the ascensive force* in the lava-column, are subjects on which science has various opinions and no positive knowledge." The position he thus takes is characteristic, and in marked contrast to that of another recent writer upon these volcanoes, who, though not having had a tithe of Dana's field experience, and having made only a single brief examination of the volcanoes, boldly attacks the most abstruse theoretical speculations which suggest themselves, and devotes an entire chapter to the discussion of the subjects which Dana dismisses with the above brief but pungent remark.

Although Dana devotes the principal part of his work to well-ascertained facts of observation, and, as above explicitly stated, does not enter into the discussion of theoretical questions which admit of no definite solution, he by no means avoids drawing general conclusions; but he frankly states their limits, and points out the direction in which future investigation may add to their confirmation or elaboration.

It is difficult to express in a few words the conclusions of so cautious and many-sided an observer as Dana, but it may be stated that he does not ascribe to the action of vapor of water so great a part in the production of volcanic energy as do Judd and others, although he regards it as a possible factor in increasing the action of the ascensive force in the lava column. This unknown ascensive force he regards not only as the means of supplying lava and heat, but also as an actual mechanical agent. Thus the ordinary work of such volcanoes as Kilauea and Loa is the gradual rise, in virtue of this ascensive force, of the lava in the interior conduit of the volcano, lifting up with it the floor of the crater, which in this case is partly covered with a thin lava crust, and in part is formed by lakes of molten, seething lava of varying size and form. At the time of the eruption, whether this eruption be an actual flow over the lip of the crater, or an escape of the lava through fissures opened in the flanks of the mountain (as has usually been the case in the later history of these volcanoes), the interior reservoir of molten lava is partly drained and the floor of the crater subsides, leaving portions of the hardened crust clinging to its sides. During the ordinary work of the volcano (in the time between the eruptions) the crater reservoir gradually fills again, and the floor of the crater rises. The elastic force of rising, expanding, and escaping vapors during this time produces jets and fountains of lava within the crater, and vesiculation, with consequent increase of bulk, of the lava.

With regard to the active eruption, he says: "In the preparation for a discharge the mountain has reached a critical state because of the elongation upwards of the fire-column; it is then only that the fracturing agency does its work; earthquakes are only a possible incident." But exactly what he considers this fracturing agency may have been does not clearly appear. Not the sudden access of water to the lava column, which he admits as the possible cause of ejective action, because fracturing is a necessary precedent of such access, and in some cases the lavas flow off quietly through the fissures thus produced, without any disturbing or ejective effect in the crater, showing that the access of water is not a necessary result of the fracturing.

To the question of fissure or massive eruptions, as such, Dana does not directly refer, although he shows that the volcanic vents on the several islands of the Sandwich group are evidently situated on two great and nearly parallel fissures, while the main lava flows of the present day emanate from minor fissures in the flanks of the existing volcanoes. It seems likely, and probably this is the view of Dana, that as the field of observation of those who are actively contesting this question widens, they will find, as in so many other vexed questions in geology, a part of the truth is involved in the view of either side and that both sides are partly right.

A considerable proportion of the illustrations are taken from Dana's original report on the Geology of the Wilkes Expedition, which, as he says, has been practically inaccessible to the reading public, since only one hundred copies of it were published by Government—an extremely niggardly number, as compared with those issued nowadays. His son, Prof. E. S. Dana, contributes a very valuable chapter on the petrography of the Hawaiian Islands, which is, however, of rather technical interest.

Dana's 'Corals and Coral Islands' has long been familiar to all who are interested in this subject. As is well known, his explorations in the Pacific Ocean followed in part the track of Darwin's voyage of a few years before. On his arrival in Sydney, Australia, he first saw in the papers a brief statement of Darwin's theory of the origin of atolls and barrier reefs, and, as he says in his preface, with the generous enthusiasm of the true scientist: "The paragraph threw a flood of light over the subject, and called forth feelings of peculiar satisfaction, and of gratefulness to Mr. Darwin, which still come up afresh whenever the subject of coral islands is mentioned." Dana's own observations not only confirmed Darwin's theory, but led him to consider it as more positively established than did its author, and his conclusions on other points, though arrived at independently, were for the most part the same as those of Darwin. In the present edition of Dana's book, which appropriately follows close upon the heels of the last edition of Darwin's 'Coral Reefs,' recently noticed in these columns, considerable new material in text, maps, and illustrations has been added to the last edition to bring it up to date. No little space, naturally, is devoted to a discussion of the objections which have recently been advanced against the theory of subsidence as a necessary corollary of coral-reef growth. Our author's conclusions may best be expressed in his own words:

"With the theory of abrasion and solution to make lagoon-basins and the deep channels inside of barriers incompetent, and also that of current-drift, all the hypotheses of objectors to Darwin's theory are alike weak; for they have made these processes their reliance, whether appealing to a calcareous, or volcanic, or pelagic-growth, or mountain-peak basement of the structure. The subsidence which the Darwinian theory requires has not been opposed by the mention of any fact at variance with it, nor by setting aside the argument in its favor; and it has found new support in the facts from the *Challenger's* soundings off Tahiti that had been put in array against it, and strong corroboration in the evidence of subsidence from the West Indies."

"Darwin's theory, therefore, still remains as the theory that accounts for the origin of atolls and barrier islands, which is not true of any other that has been proposed. Fringing reefs and isolated coral-reef banks may form in shallow water within the growing-depth of reef-making corals, and on any kind of bottom. But atolls, barrier-reefs, and coral formations of great thickness require, as a rule, the aid of slow subsidence, as has been true of nearly all the thick rock formations over the continents."

The only direct reference to the theory of the permanence of continental and oceanic areas which Dana has done so much to establish and build up, and which has found so much additional confirmation in the later investigations of deep-sea conditions, and of the distribution of fauna and flora, especially on islands, occurs in the first of the above-mentioned volumes, where a chapter is devoted to "Volcanoes and Deep-Sea Topography." Dana does not agree with Darwin in considering that the regions of volcanic islands in the Pacific are areas of elevation, and in this chapter he shows that facts do not uphold the theory that volcanic action has been predominant in determining the position of deep-sea troughs, although, by undermining the crust, it may have caused some local depressions within a score of miles of the scene of activity. Erosion, and the loading of the crust by accumulation of sediment, he shows to be even less available as causes for producing the great oceanic depressions. The reader is, however, left to draw his own inference, that the relative distribution of the greater depressions and elevations of the earth's surface, as represented by its continents and great oceanic areas, was determined very early in its history, probably during the early movements of the first consolidated crust, and that while there have been relative elevations and depressions, in its subsequent history, of different portions of its respective areas, the broader features of the two have held a permanent relative relation.

The chief arguments brought forward at the present day in favor of the permanence of the ocean basins are: First, the higher specific gravity of the earth's crust beneath those basins, as inferred from pendulum observations, and the further inference that the greater density has obtained since the original consolidation of the earth. Second, the fact that almost all islands in the ocean tracts are formed of volcanic material, and not of the sedimentary rocks resulting from the abrasion of neighboring land-masses, which constitute the bulk of our continents. Third, the absence of rocks of deep-sea origin in continental areas. Finally, the distribution of plant and animal life, both recent and fossil, agrees in the main with the present distribution of land areas.

Leaves of a Life. Being the Reminiscences of Montagu Williams, Q.C. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890.

THE administration of justice under the common law has always excited the amazement of the laity. The arguments by which men are ordinarily convinced of the truth of propositions are to a great extent withdrawn from the consideration of juries, and the evidence that the law allows to be presented to them must be presented in accordance with rules that are, to say the least, highly complicated and technical. However wise these provisions of the law may be, their application practically causes the trial of an offender to become a game of skill—not that it is not also frequently a game of chance—in which the attainment of justice is only remotely considered. If the evidence is at all doubtful, and the prisoner's counsel is the more skilful, the odds in his favor are very heavy, unless the judge, either from a professional desire to see the game played "for all it is worth," or, occasionally, from a disposition to protect the interests of the public, chooses to take a hand, when the prestige of his position is apt to control the verdict.

No better illustration of the results of the judge's interposition—which is undeniably an impairment of the rigor of the game—can be cited than Mr. Williams's story of the trial of a pawnbroker for receiving stolen goods. His counsel, having secured a disagreement, gave himself little concern about the retrial, in spite of Mr. Williams's friendly warning, and relied mainly upon an alibi. The judge summed up, however, in the following deadly manner. After repudiating, in traditional forensic style, the suggestion that there was a prejudice against the prisoner on account of his being a Jew, he proceeded:

"It is said he could not have received watches 'A,' because the day on which they were said to have been purchased at his shop was his Sabbath day. It was a Saturday, which, as you know, is the Sabbath of that most ancient people; and it is said that this good man could not have received the watches upon that day because, at the time when they were alleged to have been purchased, he was at his synagogue praying. It is also urged in his defence that the day on which the watches 'B' were disposed of at his shop was a day of fasting and humiliation among the Jews; that he was very strict in his religious observances; and that it is the custom for Jews to pass that day in their synagogue in prayer. Witnesses have been called to prove this, those witnesses being his daughter and his son. Well, gentlemen, far be it from me to insinuate that it is so, but it is an observation that I must make that there is the natural inclination of the child to protect its parent. I don't for one moment say that they came here to state that which is untrue—that is a matter entirely for you. Then his foreman gave evidence. Well, gentlemen, there again, you know—he is a servant in the house, and is dependent upon his master for his daily bread—but that, again, is a matter entirely for you. One thing has struck me in the progress of this case, and I'm sure it must also have struck you. It is a piece of evidence that did not come to light on the previous trial, of which, by the by, you never ought to have heard. Certain documents were found in the prisoner's possession relating to dealings, of the nature of usury, which he has had with people of his native town. Now, while the learned counsel was addressing you, I was adding up the amount of interest which this extremely religious man was in the habit of exacting from his clients, and I find it amounts to the somewhat exorbitant sum of from 180 to 200 per cent. Now it has occurred to me—I don't know whether the same idea has occurred to you—that this is just the sort of man who, either going to or returning from his synagogue, might call in at his shop just to see how matters were going on; but that also is entirely a question for you."

It is unnecessary to say that the jury did not have to leave their seats to find a verdict, and there is nothing in the story to occasion discontent with the result. But in another case, where the judge insisted upon a verdict in opposition to an alibi testified to by the members of the prisoner's family, it was subsequently proved beyond question that the verdict was erroneous. The unfortunate victim was eventually pardoned, but, as his family had no support but his labor, they had in the meantime been sent to the almshouse, and his wife had died, while the man himself had become insane. Instances of this character justify the maxim that it is better that ten guilty men should escape rather than that one innocent man should be condemned.

On the other hand, Mr. Williams's feelings were not to be envied when he succeeded in procuring the acquittal of a man charged with committing a peculiarly atrocious murder, only to have him get drunk and go about the town boasting that he had done the deed. Many lawyers refuse to defend, in murder cases, where they are personally satisfied of the guilt of the accused; but it does not appear that Mr. Williams adopted this principle, or that it prevails at the English bar. Casuists may dispute about this, but it is clear that when one has undertaken the office of counsel, it is his duty to take every advantage that the rules of the game allow to his client. Any other rule would give rise to intolerable abuses; but it cannot be denied that the desire for success frequently leads counsel to take advantages that are not covered by the principle.

Under the English system of division of labor in the legal profession, the inducements to undertake criminal cases in court are much greater than in this country. The barrister is not required to come into personal communication with the accused, and he can try his case as a purely technical affair. The practice of going on circuit also unquestionably promotes an *esprit de corps* that is lacking here, and conduces, moreover, to the formation of intimate professional acquaintanceships. Of his intimacy with Douglas Straight, Mr. Williams says:

"On one occasion we had been fighting a case against one another before an Alderman at Guildhall, and, on leaving the building, we linked our arms and proceeded together in the direction of 'The Garrick,' where we proposed to have lunch. I shall never forget the remark that fell from one of the by-standers as we passed up the street: 'Lor', Bill,' we heard him say, 'ain't we bin sold! Why, we thought

they was quarrellin' together inside, like cat and dog. It's all a put-up-job, Bill. Just look at 'em now, arm-in-arm, and roarin' with laughter like two old pals.'"

Mr. Williams had a varied training. After leaving Eton, of which he has some good stories to tell, he became a master in the Ipswich Grammar School, and then obtained a commission in the army. Tiring of this, he tried the stage, and married an actress, but soon determined to take up the profession which he followed with distinguished success until he was obliged to choose between certain death and the bare possibility of life afforded by the operation for the extirpation of the larynx. The result was fortunate, and, as he was unable to resume his practice, his friends secured his appointment as Metropolitan Magistrate as well as Queen's Counsel. Considering the nature of his training, it is rather surprising that he should have lost his head in trying his first case, which was a prosecution for horse-stealing. Upon hearing the verdict of acquittal, he says: "In my agony, thinking that a great miscarriage of justice had taken place on account of my stupidity, I jumped up, and, heaven knows why, exclaimed: 'My lord, what's to become of the horse?' Looking at me somewhat severely, the Judge said: 'What is that to do with you, sir? Don't you think you've done enough?'"

Of course, Mr. Williams went home and told his wife that he should never go into court again; but it was not long before he overcame the difficulties of the start, and he states that he has defended more prisoners than any other living man. It may be added that he had the satisfaction of prosecuting successfully a money-lender who had fleeced him when he was in the army, and a professional dog-stealer who had once made him pay £20 for the recovery of a favorite animal. In the latter case he drew two indictments, one for stealing a dog, which is only a misdemeanor, the other for the felony of stealing the collar, and by this device succeeded in giving the prisoner thirty months at hard labor.

As we have intimated, it is necessary to administer a sedative to the moral sense before the lay reader feels himself in harmony with the spirit of these anecdotes; but, this preliminary attended to, nothing but enjoyment awaits him. There is not a dull page in the book. The specimens of Mr. Williams's addresses to juries in the appendix do not give one a very exalted idea of his ability, and as to the frontispiece, we are at a loss to know whether it is intended as a portrait of the author or of one of the interesting persons that owe their liberty to his services.

Sewerage and Land-Drainage. By George E. Waring, jr. D. Van Nostrand Co. 1889. 2d ed. 4to, pp. 400, 29 plates and 75 illustrations.

THE underworld of drains and sewers is almost as important in the life of town-dwellers as the more manifest factors that are upon and above the surface; and that they are out of sight should not make them out of mind to the ordinary citizen, any more than they can be to the sanitarian. Sanitarians, perhaps only sanitary engineers, are those specially interested in working out the various problems of drains and drainage, sewers and sewerage; but we are all concerned in their being successfully solved. To architects we must intrust the building of our dwellings, but the average householder should know something about sites, walls, and ventilation, although never able nor required to draw up a working plan. So with sewers. Prosaic as the theme is, it is of daily and increasing importance for old towns and for new, and every resident on city ground should understand the principles if not the details.

This volume, which might have been a dry and technical discussion, fit only for engineers, is a clear and interesting account of its title-subject. Col. Waring's facility of expression has presented a popular view without losing sight of the serious facts. In part it is an appeal to the laity, but not at the sacrifice of honesty. One motive is to proclaim that the separate system of sewerage of which he is the conspicuous advocate, and which he does not hesitate to call Waring's system, is the best; but the treatment is not sensational or exaggerated, nor does it fail to credit other engineers with their work in these fields, and it discusses other than the small-pipe methods. The book is a distinct contribution to popular knowledge, and must be treated with respect by experts.

A considerable part of it is taken up with these engineering problems in various parts of the country, and herein lies its practical value to city boards and to individuals. Side by side with the theoretical explanation of what should be, is the narration of what has been accomplished and how it was done. Among these reports are descriptions of the great work that saved Memphis from abandonment, and of the costly trunk sewer that has relieved Buffalo. One of the most interesting solutions is that of the problem presented by San Luis Obispo. Across the water a system of sewerage in Havre has been arranged on this plan, and in Paris an experimental section was built. In addition to the question of sewers are the discussion of sewage-disposal, a practical chapter on house drainage, a fascinating one upon drainage in Holland, a most useful one upon land-drainage, and one upon malaria. Nor do these exhaust the contents. In relation to malaria we may not quite agree with all that is said, but the conclusion is unimpeachable that drainage is desirable. The references to bacteria, and especially the eulogy of *bacterium termo* and the bacteria of nitrification are abreast of late sanitary knowledge, whose circulation in this manner is very acceptable.

Many engineering problems and very much that belongs to sanitary science are yet debatable, and the author expresses himself on doubtful points, and may be said in some cases to create doubts, with the same freedom and force that have led to his advocacy of the small-pipe sewers. For example, he would generally lay drain-pipe from above downward, he would have no running trap in house-drains, he does not approve of trap-venting, and so forth. While not endorsing as unimpeachable every proposition advanced, we do frankly advise that this may be taken as general authority over the wide range it covers, and as such be admitted to an honorable place in every public library, and as a reference book for sanitary engineers, for officers of health, and for intelligent citizens.

History of the Girtys, etc., with a recital of the principal events in the West during these wars (1774–1795), drawn from authentic sources, etc. By C. W. Butterfield. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1890. 8vo, pp. 425.

THE centennial of the first settlement of Ohio called forth a number of books; the 'Old Northwest' was the first, and the volume before us is one of the many narratives of the pioneer days in the West which have followed it in less than twelve months. To most Eastern readers Simon Girty's name is hardly more than a well-remembered sound; even the Kentucky or Ohio boy, in his more copious draughts from the literature of tomahawk and scalping-knife, is not apt to learn much of Thomas, James, and George Girty, or their half brother, John Turner, who, along with the more notorious Simon, adorn our author's title-page, and have their deeds and their troubles faithfully chronicled in the following pages.

Simon Girty, the renegade, was an illiterate and a frequently drunken fellow, who, as a boy, was captured by the Indians, and thus learned their customs and the use of the Seneca language. After serving for a short time under the United States flag, at one time as an interpreter, at another as a lieutenant of militia, he deserted his friends and his country to sell himself to Gov. Hamilton, the British commander at Detroit, who nominally employed him as Indian interpreter, but really as an agent to stir up savage warfare against the Americans. Girty was thus the cause of great suffering, and naturally the object of the most intense hatred, throughout the Western settlements, in Pennsylvania, and in Virginia, which then comprised Kentucky. The commander at Detroit, very probably under instructions from his home Government, kept up the war in the Northwest, through his red-skinned allies, until the British garrisons were removed in 1795 under Jay's treaty; consequently Girty plied his infamous trade for twelve years after the conclusion of peace between Great Britain and the United States. He died, blind and decrepit, in February, 1818, near Malden, Canada, at the age of seventy-seven. Long before his death his wife (a white woman) left him on account of his brutal treatment and beastly drunkenness.

The one romantic incident in Girty's career is his saving the life of Simon Kenton, the noted Kentucky pioneer and Indian-fighter, when he found him a prisoner among the Shawanese. Everything else that is told of him, either by our author or by other historians whom he contradicts or criticises, is mean, dull, and sad. But highly realistic are the blood-curdling accounts of those unspeakable tortures with which prisoners among Girty's savage companions were put to death in his presence and with his full concurrence. The greater part of the volume before us is made up of extracts from previous writers and the comments of the author showing their want of accuracy. He first takes up a short sensational account of his hero, which appeared in 1814 in the *Missouri Gazette*, from which it was copied into various magazines and local histories. This account bestows upon poor Girty a heroic death at the battle of the Thames, which was fought in 1812, though in fact he was then alive, and survived his obituary for four years. Mr. Butterfield picks flaws no less glaring in a number of other "lives" and historic sketches, coming down to Theodore Roosevelt's 'Winning of the West,' which he quotes no less than thirty-four times, almost in every instance by way of contradiction.

The main object of our biographer in these controversies is to expose and correct the mistaken notion that Girty had in mind, habit, and tastes become an Indian, and that, in their fights against the whites of the borderland, he sided with them from a deep-felt sympathy with them. According to Mr. Butterfield, he simply turned "Tory," being seduced from his former loyalty to his native State and country by Capt. McKee, a much abler man than he; and his instigation of Indian raids and Indian cruelties against his white countrymen was simply the outcome of his Toryism. Simon

Girty has been called an "anomaly in Western history," and perhaps he was an anomaly in human nature; but it will be hard for the ordinary reader to interest himself in researches into the motives of such a low specimen of human nature as Simon Girty, the renegade. Yet the book, with all its notes, footnotes, copies of ancient documents, etc., is entertaining, and calculated to convey a lively conception of the baptism of blood and fire through which the Northwestern pioneers passed in Indian days.

Among the Selkirk Glaciers, being the account of a rough survey in the Rocky Mountain region of British Columbia. By W. S. Green. Macmillan & Co. 1890. 8vo, xvi, 251 pp. Illustrated.

In this book the Rev. W. S. Green gives an account of six weeks' mountaineering in the Selkirk Range, with a companion, the Rev. Henry Swanzy, during the summer of 1888. The object of these gentlemen was not merely to enjoy an outing in a little-known Alpine region, for which they were well fitted by previous experience, but to add their mite to geographical knowledge by mapping the area explored. The book is an agreeable, straightforward narrative, and offers an excellent epitome of the way in which even a brief holiday may be made profitable as well as pleasant to those who enjoy outdoor life, mountain scenery, and brisk exercise.

The Selkirk region abounds with fine glaciers which, though they lack the marine element that gives such charm to the coast glaciers of Alaska, are much nearer to the comforts and conveniences of civilization. There is perhaps no congeries of large glaciers in North America as accessible as that of the Selkirks, and no other, certainly, which possesses the advantage of being but a few hours from an excellent hotel. The account of our travellers' walks and climbs is happily destitute of any catastrophe, though having the usual proportion of minor misadventures. On the whole, however, the work of the summer was remarkably successful. Mr. Green's narrative is fresh and breezy, without gush or egotism, and may well stimulate others to follow his example.

A word of caution is appropriate here for those who may have had no Alpine experience. Were it not for their previous forays on the New Zealand and other Alps, the success that, in this book, seems to follow their efforts so naturally, would probably have been wanting, or marred by some serious accident. Mountaineering has its science as well as its (often tiresome) slang, and beginners, especially in glacier work, should beware of rashness.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Born Coquette. F. F. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Allen, R. Miss Eaton's Romance. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
American Digest (Annual, 1889). St. Paul, Minn.: West Publishing Co. $8.
April's Lady: A Tale. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Arbuthnot, F. F. Arabic Authors: A Manual of Arabian History and Literature. London: William Heinemann.
Boldrewood, R. The Miner's Right: A Tale of the Australian Goldfields. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Brooks, Mrs. Sarah W. English Poetry and Poets. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $2.
Calm, Marie. Bella's Blue-Book. Worthington Co.
Dallas, Mary K. The Devil's Anvil. Belford Co. 50 cents.
Dickson, R., and Edmond, P. E. Annals of Scottish Printing. Macmillan & Co. $13.
Dillon, J. F. Commentaries on the Law of Municipal Corporations. 4th ed. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $12.
Dorsey, Anna V. Betty. F. F. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Ford, W. C. The Writings of George Washington. Vol. VI. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
Fox, H. F., and Bromley, Rev. T. M. Models and Exercises in Unseen Translation. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.40.
Gerhard, W. P. The Disposal of Household Wastes. D. Van Nostrand Co. 50 cents.
Gautier, T. Juancho, the Bull-Fighter. Cassell Publishing Co.
Greswell, Rev. W. P. History of the Dominion of Canada. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Imbert de Saint-Amand. The Happy Days of the Empress Marie-Louise. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Jevons, Prof. W. S. Pure Logic, and Other Minor Works. Macmillan & Co. $2.50.
Lytton, Earl. The King of Amasis. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Maartens, M. Joost Avelingh. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Mario, Jessie White. Scritti e Discorsi di Agostino Bertani. Florence: G. Barbèra.
Marryatt, Florence. Blindfold. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
McCarthy, L. P. The Annual Statistician and Economist. 1890. New York: F. E. Grant, 7 W. 42d St. $4.
Monteflore, A. Henry M. Stanley, the African Explorer. New York: Fleming H. Revell. 75 cents.
More, Sir T. Giovanni Pico della Mirandola. London: David Nutt.
Morgan, A. The Society and the "Fad." New York: N. D. C. Hodges.
Morris, Lewis. Works. Longmans, Green & Co.
Patten, Prof. S. N. The Economic Basis of Protection. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Pavements and Roads, their Construction and Maintenance. New York: *The Engineering and Building Record*.
Rudall, H. A. Beethoven. Scribner & Welford. $1.
Samuels, E. A. With Fly-Rod and Camera. New York: *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co. $5.
Saunders, T. B. The Wisdom of Life (from Schopenhauer's 'Aphorismen zur Lebensweisheit'). Scribner & Welford. $1.
Seymour, M. F. Trovata. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Shilleto, Rev. A. R. The Works of Flavius Josephus. Vols. IV., V. Scribner & Welford.
Shortland, Vice-Admiral. Nautical Surveying. Macmillan & Co. $5.25.
Slack-Davis. London, and Other Poems. Pittsburgh: J. R. Weldin & Co.
Smith, L. L. The Transfer of Negotiable Paper as Collateral Security. Philadelphia: T. & J. W. Johnson & Co.
Sommer, H. O. Le Morte Darthur. Vol. II. London: David Nutt.
Stephen, Sir J. F. A General View of the Criminal Law of England. 2d ed. Macmillan & Co. $3.50.
Stevens, T. Scouting for Stanley in East Africa. Cassell Publishing Co. $2.
Stuart, E. Kestell of Greystone. F. F. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.

SUMMER READING.

Mr. Harold Frederic has given us in 'The Lawton Girl' a graphic and remarkably realistic picture of a prosperous manufacturing town in Central New York. The story is of an unfortunate girl, Jessica Lawton, who returns to the scene of her disgrace with the determination to live it down. It is an unusually strong and interesting narrative, dealing with real people and events in a simple, natural way. The characters are clearly and distinctly drawn, and the development of the story is very skilfully managed. It is one of the most noteworthy novels of the season, and will largely advance the reputation of the author, whose earlier work, 'Seth's Brother's Wife,' met with such general favor. (Charles Scribner's Sons. 12mo, cloth, $1.25; paper, 50 cents.)

'Expiation,' by Octave Thanet, is a story of Arkansas life at the close of the war when the country was infested with "gray-backs." The book is full of dramatic situations, fine characterization, weird pictures, and touches of pathos and humor; while the pictures of Southern life are carefully and faithfully drawn. Intensely exciting and absorbing, it retains the reader's interest throughout, while it is valuable as picturing a part of the country to which many in the North are strangers. The illustrations, by A. B. Frost, are spirited and excellent. (Charles Scribner's Sons. 12mo. Illustrated, cloth, $1.00; paper, 50 cents.)

Under the curious and interesting title of "Day and Night Stories" have been gathered a collection of tales by Mr. T. R. Sullivan, which will be found most delightful reading for summer leisure. There is a sweetness and purity of sentiment and a refinement of expression, in these romances that is very attractive while the fanciful, weird, and fantastic nature of the plots fairly fascinates the reader. (Charles Scribner's Sons. 12mo. Cloth, $1.00; paper, 50 cents.)

No more agreeable companions for the idle summer hours could be desired than the popular issues of the delightful "Yellow Paper Novel Series" published by Charles Scribner's Sons. No collection of books put out in popular form and at a low price has so much to commend it to the public as this series. It includes some of the best-known works of Robert Louis Stevenson, Frank R. Stockton, Frances Hodgson Burnett, G. W. Cable, Joel Chandler Harris, and other popular authors. (Circulars sent to any address by the publishers.)

Readers interested in New England types of character will find much to attract them in 'The Broughton House,' by Bliss Perry. Out of natural and ordinary incidents the author has evolved a striking life drama of extraordinary power, full of shrewd, sympathetic, and observant character studies. It is a genuine and vivid picture of summer life in a New England town. (Charles Scribner's Sons. 12mo, $1.25.)

'Bright Skies and Dark Shadows,' by Dr. Henry M. Field, is a charming narrative of a trip through the Southern States to Florida. It is one of those very entertaining records of travel which give so much pleasure to those stay-at-homes who must take their journeyings in books. It is full of just such entertainment as readers desire in the coming months of piazza and hammock life. (Charles Scribner's Sons, 8vo, $1.50.)

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 26, 1890.

The Week.

THE plain, simple record of proceedings in the House of Representatives at Washington on Thursday, is remarkable reading. When the journal of the previous day had been read, Mr. Mills objected to its approval, on the ground that it had not been read in full. The Speaker observed that the clerk had only omitted to read such parts as it was customary not to read, but that he would have him read it in full. The clerk proceeded to read the omitted portions, which disclosed the fact that the Silver Bill, which had come back from the Senate on the previous day, had been referred to the Committee on Coinage, in accordance with what the Speaker was pleased to call the "automatic working of the rules." During the reading which made this disclosure, Mr. Mills had remained standing in order to retain the floor. Mr. McKinley had arisen during the reading and was also standing at its close. Both endeavored to "catch the Speaker's eye" at the same time, but the Speaker could only see Mr. McKinley, who moved that the journal be approved and demanded the previous question. Mr. Mills protested in vain that he was entitled to recognition, since he had questioned the reading of the journal and wished to move to correct it. Mr. Springer raised the point of order that the journal contained the record of something which had never happened, and which could not, therefore, be in it.

Throughout these proceedings common sense and justice were on the side of Messrs. Mills and Springer, and nothing but arbitrary and dictatorial power was on the side of the Speaker and Mr. McKinley. The former was clearly exposed before the House as having been guilty of a misleading statement when he said that only those parts of the journal had been omitted which it was customary not to read, for he knew very well that no such record of "automatic reference" as he had caused to be placed there had ever appeared on the record until he became Speaker. It was not surprising that even the Republican majority were incapable of sustaining Mr. McKinley in his effort to have all discussion of such a proceeding shut off by the previous question, and that enough of them united with the Democrats to defeat that motion, and subsequently to remove from the journal the record of the "automatic reference." The incident is of great value as revealing the fact that there is a limit of partisan abuse of power beyond which even this Republican Congress cannot be driven, and as indicating also that the Speaker's autocratic course is creating dissensions in his own party which are certain to increase rather than diminish as time goes on. There are signs, also, that the people are watching with constantly increasing interest the reckless career of the party in power, and are preparing for the day of reckoning which is to come in November.

On Saturday thirteen Democrats in the House decided that a technical triumph over Speaker Reed might be bought at too high a price. They accordingly cast their votes so as to refer the Silver Bill to the Committee on Coinage, as Mr. Reed himself had referred it under what he held to be the rule of the House. Whether Mr. Reed was technically right or not in assuming such authority—and upon this point able arguments were made *pro* and *con* by Mr. Cannon, Mr. Mills, Mr. Springer, and others—it was for the public interest decidedly that the bill should go to that Committee. The thirteen Democrats who helped to send it there acted wisely and patriotically, and they have done their party no harm. There may be too much "skirmishing for position" on the top of a powder magazine. It should be borne in mind, also, that the Democrats have an issue in the tariff question on which they have staked their fortunes in the approaching campaign and also in the campaign of 1892. They cannot shift the issue from the tariff to silver, even if they desired to do so, but it is quite possible to give so much prominence to silver as to lose the advantages they have gained by the debate on the McKinley bill. It would be most unwise, in a party point of view, to substitute anything else in place of the issue which has been carefully and studiously prepared, upon which the party is united East, West, North, and South, and for which the leaders have been training themselves for years. We presume that it was some such consideration as this which led Mr. Carlisle to abstain from voting on the final passage of the Free-Coinage Bill in the Senate. Probably he perceived the danger that exists of changing front in the midst of an undecided battle. This danger is all the greater if, as seems likely, the result of passing the bill should be to make the Democratic party a tail to the kite of the fifteen Republican Senators who have thus far attracted the larger share of public attention, and who would surely carry off most of the honors to be gained by the joint victory.

Senator Wolcott's attack on the Administration for its attitude on the silver question, for which he received such abundant applause in the galleries and on the floor of the Senate, is not very brilliant in print. It amounts merely to this, that in the campaign of 1888 Wolcott and others understood that the Republican national platform meant free coinage of silver, and so told the people in their stump-speeches; that the people were so fully impressed with this notion that they gave large majorities for Harrison, and that if they had not so understood the matter, Harrison would not have carried Colorado and some other Western States, and would perhaps not have been elected. But since a lot of other people did not understand the platform that way, and since the platform was in fact ambiguous and was intended to be read both ways, Mr. Wolcott's syllogism is good for nothing. It is a jingle of words which may serve to tickle the ears of the listeners while the speaker is on his feet, but it has no lasting properties. *Stat magni nominis umbra* is a phrase that will never be applied to Mr. Wolcott unless he says something better than this.

While the young Senator from Colorado is not yet a full-fledged statesman, he at least shows signs of growth, and that is always encouraging. We accord him this much praise after contrasting the speech which he delivered at the New England dinner in this city on December 22, 1887, with his speech on silver in the Senate this week. In the course of his remarks to the New Englanders he said, speaking of the Coloradans: "We are a plain people and live far away. We find all the excitement we need in the two great political parties, and we rather look upon the talk of anybody in either party being better than his party as a sort of cant. The hypercritical faculty has not reached us yet, and we leave to you of the East the exclusive occupancy of the raised dais upon which it seems necessary for the independent voter to stand while he is counted." This is the same party slave who electrified the Senate last week by saying:

> "If the Windom recommendation, approved by the President, could have been announced before the election, it is my humble opinion that not a single State west of the Missouri River would have given a Republican majority. Not because the large majority of the citizens of those States were not and are not and will not always be true and stanch and earnest Republicans, loving the traditions of the party, and true to its principles, but because they would overwhelmingly rebuke a party that selected as its standard-bearer one unmindful of the interests of the country and disregardful of the wishes of the majority of its members."

Behold the change! The vasty West which, two years and a half ago, would have flocked to the side-tent of a circus that had an independent voter among its curiosities, would have swarmed with "kickers" in the following autumn if its Republican voters had not thought that the financial policy of their party was to be handed over to them for moulding.

The Senate has only done what was expected in concurring with the House in the passage of the Dependent Pension Bill as it was agreed upon by the Conference Committee. The most striking feature of the discussion was a characteristic display of demagogism by Mr. Ingalls. Senator Gorman had presented a careful estimate of the great expense involved in the bill, which he prophesied would make the outgoes of the Government exceed its income. Mr. In-

galls sneered at "frugal patriots," expressed his regret that the bill did not put every surviving soldier on the pension roll, declared that he was in favor of this policy, "whether it cost one hundred millions or a thousand millions," and advocated the removal of the limitation in the act of granting arrears of pensions—a most gigantic job—insisting again that he did not care whether this would cost one hundred millions or a thousand millions. This blatant demagogue, it must be remembered, is the man whom the Republican majority of the Senate have honored by conferring upon him the office of President *pro tem.* of that body.

The danger of a deficit in the national Treasury at an early day becomes more and more clear. Senator Plumb of Kansas objected on Saturday to the passage of a bill to apply the proceeds from the public lands and the receipts from certain land-grant railroad companies to the further endowment of agricultural colleges, on the ground that "in eighteen months from now whoever proposes the addition of a million of dollars to the annual budget will have to provide with it the means of raising the revenue to pay it," and that consequently none of the revenues ought to be segregated so that they cannot be applied to the running expenses of the Government. "It seems to me," he went on, "that this is an unwise time to enter upon an indefinite expense of this character, and that if there ever was a time when we ought to determine carefully and prudently what we shall do with the public funds, it is now. We may need, as we clearly shall within a very brief period of time, much of the Pacific Railroad fund to piece out the expenses of the Government, which are going to overrun the revenues, and we shall need similarly to take from the funds derived from the sales of public lands. And yet, sir, we are going ahead with expenditures, and with propositions for additional burdens upon the people, just as though we were in the heyday of that surplus about which we have heard so much in the last few years, but which has been vanishing like a snow-bank under the rays of the summer sun, until now it practically has no longer any existence." The public has grown so accustomed to reckless talk and extravagant appropriations that it comes with the shock of a surprise to find a public man suggesting that economy is, after all, a good thing.

It is not yet entirely clear whether the Senate Finance Committee's tariff bill is better on the whole than the McKinley bill or worse. It is better in some parts and worse in others, and probably there is not much to choose between them. It reduces the duty on steel rails to $11.40 per ton, and makes a slight reduction in the earthenware and glass schedule, but not more than sufficient to counterbalance the duties levied on crates and coverings in the Administrative Bill. It reduces the duty on barley in the McKinley bill by five cents per bushel, but still leaves it at twenty-five cents as against the present duty of ten cents. It increases, as has been previously stated, the duty on refined sugar, and puts back works of art in the dutiable list at 30 per cent. ad valorem, the McKinley bill having put them on the free list. This is utterly disgusting. If ratified by the Senate, it will sink that body in the estimation of the educated classes almost as much as its vote for the bedlamite Silver Bill. The only change of importance in the wool and woollen schedule is the insertion of amendments, which the House rejected on a yea-and-nay vote, increasing the duties on yarns and cloths costing not more than 30 cents per pound. The duty on tin plate seems to be left as in the McKinley bill.

The National Wool-Growers' Association met at Galveston, Texas, on the 12th inst. A letter was received from the Hon. Columbus Delano, President of the Association, saying that "the exigency of the case" demanded his presence in Washington, as he had been instructed by the Ohio wool-growers to formulate and present some important and very necessary amendments to the McKinley Tariff Bill. As he could not be present, he desired to be instructed by his constituents, and in order to spare them any trouble in this matter, he enclosed a set of resolutions which he desired them to adopt and telegraph back to him at Washington. This was done. One of the resolutions demands that all samples of wool now in the custom-houses of the United States for purposes of classification be removed and new ones substituted, so that any cross of merino or English blood in carpet-wools shall subject the whole lot to duty as clothing or combing-wools. The Texas wool-growers, who happened to be holding a meeting at the same time and place, passed resolutions affirming that "the existence of wolves, coyotes, and other wild animals is at present the principal reason why we cannot produce wool as low in this country as in others," and that "the removal of these destructive agents would result in a saving of about eight cents per pound, which is the present estimated cost of having shepherds to guard sheep." Evidently these resolutions did not come from Mr. Delano, for we all know that he holds that the reason why we cannot produce wool as cheaply as other countries is the insufficiency of the tariff. Moreover, he would be the last man to talk about dispensing with the labor of shepherds when the very object of the wool tariff is to furnish employment to that worthy class.

The taking of the census has been the cause of much heart-burning in the West. Chicago has been determined to overrun the one-million line, but fears are openly expressed that the census-takers have been remiss. If the number returned should be less than a million, the evidence of remissness would be conclusive. St. Louis made a much lower mark, putting her ambition at 450,000, but the enumerators have not come up to this modest demand. It is considered that they have overlooked about 20,000 people, and steps are to be taken to have a new and correct census made by private enterprise. Of course, nobody can object to this, but the difficulty of getting the private census put into the national records will be so serious that, when the subscription paper to provide for the expenses is handed around, it will perhaps be deemed cheaper and equally effective to simply pass a resolution that the population of St. Louis is 450,000, and save the money.

The working of the new ballot law in Rhode Island, which applied to all except municipal elections, has been so satisfactory to everybody that the Legislature, in special session, has extended its operation to municipal elections. There is no longer any opposition to it which is worth considering, since everybody, save the political workers who made their living by "handling" the corruption funds for both parties, is convinced of its wisdom. The Republicans have been obliged every year to increase a little more the size of their campaign fund in order to buy a majority, and they were convinced by their experience at the last election that the use of money to buy votes under the Australian system of balloting is a shameful waste of moral power, since there is no visible return for the money. As Elder Shepard said of the $150,000 of good Republican money which was paid for the support of "three movements" in this city in 1888, the Rhode Island Republicans discovered by the returns that they had "been buying experience and not votes," and they will not make further investments in that line.

The interesting fact has been brought out, in the Massachusetts legislative investigation, that Mr. Joseph O. Burdett, Chairman of the Republican State Committee, has been employed as a lobbyist in behalf of the West End Railroad Company. The discovery prompts these remarks by the Worcester *Spy*, a Republican journal: "It seems clear that the occupation of a lobbyist and the position of Chairman of the Republican State Committee are incompatible, and that the usefulness of Mr. Burdett in the latter capacity is at an end since the publication of this testimony, and we trust that he will see the propriety of resigning his place on the Committee. If he should not, the other members of the Committee will probably not lose much time before suggesting to him that they would prefer another Chairman." But why should the Republicans of Massachusetts object to the retention of a lobbyist as Chairman of their State Committee when the Republicans of the United States consent to the retention of a thief as Chairman of their National Committee?

Further light was thrown by last week's testimony upon the methods employed by corporations to secure legislation in their interest. The counsel of the West End Company testified that Theodore C. Bates, a

prominent Republican politician of Worcester County, was retained last summer and promised that, if he did all that was expected of him, he should receive $10,000. The examination then proceeded as follows:

Q. Was anything done by Mr. Bates to influence votes or the election of members of the Legislature from Worcester County?
A. I received a note from Mr. Bates saying that the Ames-Shepard people were acting there to secure the election of members, and asking for $500 to be used to secure nominations of men in favor of the West End and opposed to the Ames-Shepard.
Q. Did you send it?
A. I did, and I know nothing more about it except that I believe the money was to be used in paying for carriages and other expenses connected with the caucuses.

Corporations thus begin work by employing the chief managers of the dominant party to "set up" caucuses in their favor, and complete it by employing other lobbyists to "capture" after their election those members of the Legislature whom they do not already own.

If the passion for stealing foreign books which has recently shown itself among the ministers continues to spread, we shall have to stop ridiculing the poor blacks at the South for the separation which they are said to maintain between religion and morals. Mr. Mansfield, Presiding Elder of the New England Methodist Conference, is trying to get the ministers of his denomination to join him in stealing a book on Egypt, belonging to an English publisher, and the only excuse he has to offer is that the book has interested him, but is too dear, when honestly purchased from its owner, for the convenience of the Elder and his brethren. It also contains much matter of moment to religious people, and he thinks that, on the whole, it would be a good thing to steal it and sell it cheap in this country. Another theft, almost more odious than that of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' was advertised by the religious firm, Hunt & Eaton, who have charge of the Methodist Book Concern in this city, and printed a very amusing, because very brazen, advertisement in the *Christian Advocate*, containing their account of what they propose to steal, and also an advertisement for Sunday-school teachers to take orders for the booty and "make money." What gives the offence a certain air of drollery is that the property they covet and mean to seize is the Oxford Bible. Of course the Bible *per se* is not private property; but, as will be seen by their circular, this edition of the Bible contains about 56,000 references, indexes, maps, a glossary and dictionary, and a large number of learned illustrative articles, which have cost the owner a large amount of money. Of all this Hunt & Eaton deliberately announced their intention to plunder him, and to have it peddled through the country as their own, by Sunday-school teachers who want to make money! Fancy the diffusion of religious ideas through the medium of stolen Bibles, sold by religious teachers! How like it is to that story of the negro revival meeting in one end of a barn, while water was boiling in the other end to scald a stolen hog.

One cause of the extreme irritation between the French and the Newfoundlanders has just been somewhat modified. So exasperated were the latter at the bounties given by the French Government to their fishermen on the Newfoundland coast that the St. Johns Government attempted to retaliate by requiring all foreign vessels wanting bait to take out a license. This license laid a tax of one dollar per ton and was limited to twenty-one days. As bait cost about a dollar a barrel, a vessel of 100 or 200 tons burden requiring 25 or 50 barrels of bait incurred an expense practically prohibitive. It was hoped, however, that a revenue of $100,000 would be derived, and this sum it was proposed to give to the Newfoundland fishermen to enable them to compete with the bounty-nourished Frenchmen. But this scheme has unexpectedly met with two or three serious obstacles. One is the smuggling of bait to foreigners, carried on by the Newfoundlanders themselves. Another is the refusal to buy bait on the part of the French, who have sought to supply themselves elsewhere, and it was while engaged in this business that the trouble reported on Saturday from St. George Bay occurred. The third is the protest of the Canadian and United States Governments against the license. In consequence, the St. Johns Government has decided to modify the license. Now it is only required that a tax of one dollar be paid per barrel of bait, the amount of bait to be limited to forty barrels at each baiting, which is a far different thing from the original license.

By the Anglo-German settlement over Africa, Great Britain has got full control of the Zanzibar coast-line which seemed at one time in danger. There has been much other give-and-take in matters which, as long as they were African, the British public were not likely to understand or take much hold of; but it would seem as if Lord Salisbury had seriously weighted the agreement by the cession of Heligoland, which is under the British nose, so to speak, and, though a little insignificant place, somewhat like Block Island, has long been dear to Englishmen of a Jingo turn as a place on which the Union Jack appeared to wave on foreign soil. It is really German territory in a geographical sense, and it therefore tickled British pride to have the flag there, as it tickles it to have it in Gibraltar and the Channel Islands. It would not be surprising if the settlement broke down on this point by the refusal of Parliament to assent to the cession. Seeing the indignation it excites when made by Salisbury, we may guess what the indignation would have been if made by Gladstone.

In the Bohemian Diet of 1886, the Czechs refused to take into consideration the demands of the German minority, to the effect that "the language regulations be abolished; that a distinction be drawn between the German and Czech portions of the Province; that the High Court of Justice and Councils of Education and Public Worship be divided into two; and, finally, that German should be spoken in the Diet instead of Czech." The rejection of these demands caused the withdrawal of the Germans from the Diet at that time, and since then the question has been fought with increasing bitterness, proving a curse to both races, and often checking the activity not only of the "Prager Landtag," but even spreading its influence as far as the Imperial Austrian Assembly. In the conferences held under the leadership of the Government, which closed at the beginning of this year, the same attempt was made towards equalization as in the Diet of 1886. To this the Old Czech or Ultramontane party, who are more inclined to a reasonable consideration of the matter than the immoderate Young Czech majority, gave their consent, seeing a possible means to reinstate themselves in their former position, from which they had been pushed by the younger parties. But the Government and Old Czech party, overrating their own power to effect an equalization, excluded the Young Czech Nationalists from these conferences. Taking advantage of the suspicion with which the equalization project is regarded by the masses of the Czechish people, the Young Czechs seized this opportunity to enroll very largely the popular feeling on their side.

In the last session of the Landtag, which closed, after many long and profitless debates, on June 3, only one of the four equalization proposals mentioned above was accepted. The proposition to divide the Council of Education into two national sections was adopted at the third reading by the Diet, according to which in the German section only German and in the Czechish only Czech are to be spoken, while in the combined session each member may speak his mother-tongue. Hitherto it has been usual to speak German out of consideration for the German members, few of whom understand Czech. The Czechs insisted, moreover, that the representatives of the religious confessions belonging to both sections (namely, two Catholic priests, one Evangelical minister, and a Jewish divine) must understand both languages, which practically excludes the German clergy from the council. In addition to this a very significant resolution was put forward by Dr. Starda, with a strong support, to the effect that the Government announce to the Landtag its exact position with regard to the Czechish language in the proposed new organization of the courts. The Czechs have always been desirous to establish their language as the official medium in their own districts, and we may foresee in the near future a struggle on their part with this end in view. As the carrying of the proposition concerning the division of the Educational Council, which is the least offensive of all to the Czechish side, took fourteen days of uninterrupted discussion, it seems quite probable, considering the limited time allowed to the Landtag, owing to the long annual session of the Reichstag, that several years must elapse before the entire question will be settled.

LEGAL TENDER IN THE SENATE.

THE debate in the Senate on June 17, when the Silver Bill was passed, was under the five-minute rule, which had been adopted for the particular purpose of disposing of the measure that day. Under the operation of this rule, two amendments were proposed and adopted of momentous importance. One was offered by Senator Teller, making the silver certificates legal tender for all debts, public and private. This was amended and reamended until it was made to include all silver and gold certificates heretofore issued or hereafter to be issued, and in this shape it was finally adopted by 34 yeas to 22 nays. The other was offered by Senator Plumb, and was adopted without a division and without a word of comment. It provided that the certificates should be issued on the bullion deposited and before the corresponding coins were produced. The Senate of the United States has thus, under the five-minute rule, leaped a tremendous chasm. It has engrafted on the policy of the country, so far as that body is concerned, the principle that Congress may make not merely tickets of deposited coin, but also tickets of the material of which coin is produced, legal tender. It makes one's head swim to see the only deliberative body in the nation taking such a leap. The House has ceased to be a deliberative body, and has become a mere Gatling gun, to be loaded and discharged by the Speaker, with or without a quorum. Yet it has done nothing so reckless and indefensible as the short work that the Senate performed with the legal-tender question.

Senator Gray of Delaware tried to draw the attention of his fellow-Senators to the gravity of the step they were taking. He quoted the last legal-tender decision of the Supreme Court, and showed that it did not include the kind of paper that it was now proposed to make, and that the ground upon which that decision rests—the power of the United States to borrow money—is quite a different thing from the ground upon which the bill proceeds. The United States does not borrow money when it issues a silver certificate. It becomes a custodian of other people's property—a bailee in law—and gives a receipt for the property taken on storage. This receipt, the Senate says, shall be legal tender in every part of the country for all debts, public or private, whether the property on storage be coin or bullion. No exception is made of contracts specifically payable in gold, or even of the Government's own contract to redeem its gold certificates in gold. These paper things are to be taken under compulsion of law for every pecuniary claim of every kind.

Perhaps the courts would construe this Legal-Tender Law as not applying to contracts payable in a particular kind of money. Leaving that feature out of view, some people may contend that no practical harm is done by making the certificate equally available with the coin itself, since all that the holder of it needs to do is to draw the coin and tender it to his creditor. But it does make a vast difference to both public and private finances, whether all the silver in the world that can be hurried to the United States Mint shall become at once legal tender by means of paper certificates, or whether it shall be first coined. In the one case the standard of value is lowered immediately by the full amount of the difference between silver and gold, whatever that may be. In the other the lowering will take place gradually, as it took place at the beginning of the war, when specie payments were suspended.

But is it of little consequence how and in what manner the Senate of the United States deals with the question of legal tender? Have we not gone to the verge, and even beyond it, when the rule is established that the Government may make its own promissory notes legal tender between individuals, for past as well as future contracts, in peace as well as in war? Shall we go on adding to the legal-tender powers of a transient majority in Congress, and doing this under the five-minute rule? A new legal-tender law redistributes the property of all the people. It takes from A, and it gives to B. That is what it intends, and that is what it does. It is a socialistic contrivance of gigantic proportions, and its effect always is to take from the poor and ignorant and to endow the rich and cunning. It throws property into hotch-potch, to be grabbed by the various social classes, according to their several capacities. The wage-workers, the farmers, the widows, the non-capitalists always come off second best. It was so during the war, when the Legal-Tender Act was first put in operation. The capitalists and the smart fellows saw what was coming. They feathered their nests, and the feathers came from the laboring classes, including the soldiers in the field. The power to make legal tender is the next thing to omnipotence. True, it cannot create anything; it cannot create one blade of grass or the value thereof, but it can change the values of all debts throughout the length and breadth of the land. And can anybody set bounds to the extension of legal-tender laws when once the precedent is established that not merely coin, not merely the United States notes, but anything that Congress considers valuable shall be accepted in payment of debts, both as to the past and as to the future? If certificates of deposited bullion are to be legal tender, why not certificates of deposited grain, or certificates of mortgaged land? Both these are even now at the door of Congress demanding their "rights," just like silver bullion; and if silver gets hers, they will get theirs in due time.

MR. BLAINE'S TRIANGULAR VOYAGES.

PRESIDENT HARRISON has transmitted to the Senate a long letter from his Secretary of State, the Hon. James G. Blaine, proposing such changes in the pending Tariff Bill as shall enable the President to admit wool and all other products from any country in the American hemisphere free of duty in case those countries, or any of them, shall admit our products free of duty. As a preliminary step to the carrying out of this plan, he urges that raw sugar, now on the free list in the McKinley bill, be put back on the dutiable list, in order to have something to trade on when we come to negotiate with these countries. Cuba is included in the proposed scheme of reciprocity, and as Canada and the British West Indies are not excluded, it is to be presumed that whatever arrangement is open to other countries will be open to them also.

Here is a very comprehensive system of free trade. It embraces several of the things about which there have been heated controversies in Congress and in the press, and which are still going on; viz, wool, silver-lead ores, iron ore, sugar, fish, coal, lumber, and copper. It embraces so much that, if the plan were once adopted, it would, according to the testimony of many of the protectionist organs, bring general free trade upon the country with a rush. The organ of the Manufacturers' Club in Philadelphia has repeatedly said that wool is the corner-stone of the tariff, and that if it is admitted free, woollens and everything else will be admitted free very soon after. The country of the La Plata is the greatest wool-producing region of the world, unless Australia may be its rival. If we admit the wool of the Argentine Republic and Chili free, there will be no reason for putting duties on any other wool. If we admit the iron ore of Cuba free, there will be no reason for excluding that of the Mediterranean countries; and it is not to be supposed that the latter would be excluded for many months after the former was put on the free list. If we admit the copper ores of Chili free, there will be hardly any copper ores left that it will be worth while to exclude If we admit the argentiferous lead ores of Mexico free, there will be nothing left to fight about on that score. And what will become of the poor Gloucester fishermen, whose right to a tax of one cent per pound we have been fighting for so gallantly ever since the Washington Treaty was thrown over at their instance? Will life be worth living after Canada is taken in under the ægis of reciprocity? We had almost forgotten the orange-growers of Florida and California, who made such a valiant push last winter and got their duties raised 50 per cent. in the McKinley bill. Are there any countries so well situated to inundate us with oranges as the West India islands and Central America? Give them a few years to get their orchards in bearing condition for a market like ours, and oranges will be as cheap as tomatoes in every Atlantic port.

We endorse Mr. Blaine's plan, and recommend it to the favorable consideration of Congress, not because reciprocity is ideally the right thing, but because it promotes international trade and thereby increases wealth, removes ignorant prejudices, and leads inevitably to the breaking down of trade barriers erected by selfish interests for private greed. But we cannot adopt all of Mr. Blaine's arguments. Indeed, some of his arguments are calculated to weaken his position materially. He says, for example, that the "chief obstacle" to an increase of our South American trade has been a lack of shipping facilities

for reaching those markets. We quote this part of his communication:

"The lack of means for reaching their markets has been the chief obstacle in the way of increasing exports. The carrying trade has been controlled by European merchants *who have forbidden an exchange of commodities.* The merchandise we sell in South America is carried there in American ships, or foreign ships chartered by American commission houses. The merchandise we buy in South America is brought to us in European vessels that never take return cargoes, but sail for Liverpool, Havre, Bremen, or Hamburg with wheat, cotton, and corn. There they load again with manufactured goods for the South American markets, and continue their *triangular voyages*, paying for the food they are compelled to buy of us with the proceeds of the sale of their manufactures in markets that we could and would supply if we controlled the carrying trade."

If it is not the tariff, but a mere lack of shipping facilities, why does Mr. Blaine send this appeal to Congress to enable the President to abolish the tariff on wool, oranges, etc., produced in this hemisphere? If the European merchants have given orders to all the ship-owners in the world to make "triangular voyages," and not on any account to run on direct lines between ports of the American continent, why may not the wool-growers say in reply that the remedy is not to be found by admitting Argentine wool free, since that would not change the minds of the European merchants or their injunctions to the ship-owners, but would probably lead them to repeat the injunctions in more positive language? Triangular voyages would still be the order of the day. The kind of triangle that we see most plainly in Mr. Blaine's letter is one of which the three corners are occupied, the first by the Administration, the second by the McKinley high-tariffites, and the third by the tariff-reformers of all grades. They will make their first triangular voyage in the coming autumn elections.

EXIT THE "PRACTICAL MAN."

An attempt is being made in some quarters to dissuade or frighten men of the class of Bishop Potter and Dr. Heber Newton, who have initiated the New York citizens' movement, from active participation in municipal politics, by representing them as wanting in political experience, and therefore sure to be in some manner hoodwinked or brought to naught by another class known as "the practical men." But one of the first things which every one who desires to improve the government of our great cities should do is, to clear his head of the old canting dread of the "practical man." If the new ballot act has any value or efficacy whatever, it has put an end to him and his business, and has at the same time put an end to the state of things which made a minister, or any other quiet and respectable citizen following an honest calling, somewhat ridiculous when he tried to make his influence felt, either in making the nominations or in voting for his candidate at the polls.

There is no more curious or discreditable chapter in our political history than the seizure of the nominating machinery of our political parties in the great cities by the class of professional politicians—largely men who had failed in respectable callings—and their success for nearly half a century in persuading decent people that the seizure was a legitimate operation, and that there was no remedy for it except the attendance of the intelligent and respectable classes at the primary meetings. The way in which people's mouths were stopped with this advice by the newspapers, as well as by the practical politicians, at last became a joke, and has for the past twenty years been one of the best practical jokes extant. If the minister or lawyer, or decent and industrious man of any calling, went to the primary under a mistaken sense of his duty to the public, he found that the proceedings had been all carefully arranged beforehand by the members of the local machine, and that any interference on his part, any suggestion of change or amendment, naturally excited the merriment of those who had prepared the programme or were in the secret. The more he sought to make himself felt, the more ridiculous he became to the managers, and if he was at all persistent, he ran some risk of insult, if not of personal violence.

It was very natural that under these circumstances the "fixing of primaries" should have become a regular trade followed by trained men, and that attendance on them should have been almost wholly abandoned by the great bulk of the voters, and that everybody who did not follow the trade should, in the field of politics, have incurred the contempt which regulars feel for militia, or experts in any calling for amateurs. This contempt was deepened by what subsequently occurred at the polls after the nomination was made. There, even more than in the caucus, the outsiders made what politicians considered a telling display of their incapacity. Supposing they succeeded at the caucus in getting their man nominated, they had still to employ the practical men to look after the details of the election, and were often induced to pay large sums of money for this purpose.

The most important of these details was the distribution of the ballots. In the earlier days, before there was any registration, and before our present system of counting the votes, the Practical Man could foil the virtuous either by employing large bodies of repeaters or personators, or by stuffing the ballot-boxes with bogus tickets. When these facilities were taken away from him, he still retained the distribution of the ballots, and out of this he made his calling a very lucrative one, and was able to extract a good deal of excuse for the fun he made of the amateurs. There were two ways in which he could cheat them. He could either fail to provide their ballots at the polls at all, or in sufficient quantities, or he might "run out" the ballots of the other side in their place. When all was over, and the good men's candidate was defeated, he could use it as a fresh illustration of the silliness of amateurs in meddling in things they did not understand. It was in his skill in these criminal and semi-criminal devices that the superiority of the Practical Man as a politician over the rest of the community consisted. It was not in knowledge of the city's needs, or of the work of administration, or of municipal law, or in the art of persuading people to take this or that view of public questions. It was not, in short, in anything which civilized men are in the habit of considering either useful or respectable.

Now, the whole art of the Practical Man, as we have described it above, has, in our belief, been swept away by the Ballot Act. The primary, which we used to feel so uneasy in our consciences for not attending as our chief "political duty," is gone. The business of cheating at the polls is gone. Respectable men who think they have something useful to suggest to their fellow-citizens can have a primary of their own. They do not need, after they have made their nominations, to hire a Johnny O'Brien or a Mike Cregan to look after their interests at the polls. The State supplies the ballots and sees that they are properly distributed, free of expense. The normal working of free democratic government in this city is restored. Every honest man who has something to say about the city government which he thinks will be useful, has a chance to submit it to his fellow-citizens. Every such man is now a practical man. Bishop Potter is a practical man. So is Dr. Newton. So is every clergyman in the city who is willing to come forward and make his voice heard, and take a man's part in putting an end to the régime which has now for forty years made New York the shame and scandal of free government. There is hardly a decent citizen, who knows how to read and write, who is not fitter to be listened to about municipal affairs than the wretched creatures who now fill so many of our offices, and to whose "guff" about municipal government we have hearkened so long with complacency, as if it really was the voice of experience, or knowledge, or public spirit, or common honesty.

MISS FAWCETT'S TRIUMPH.

The remarkable feat of Miss Fawcett, the Newnham College girl, in beating the Senior Wrangler at Cambridge, continues to be the sensation of the day in England, and will probably make a deeper and deeper impression as time runs on. The Senior Wrangler is, to the great honor of English society, one of the personages of each year, and goes down to London in the middle of the season with a halo round his head such as is given by no other academical distinction. Moreover, the distinction launches him in professional life with more or less éclat, and if he attains any eminence, no account of his career fails to put it forward as the beginning of his greatness. One of Macaulay's feats of memory was the repetition of the names of the Senior Wranglers through a long period, and there was not one of which he was more proud. Of the great severity of the examination by which this honor is won, we have before now spoken. It is one of the severest tests to which the youthful mind is ever subjected in our day. It carries the competitors into that empyreal region of mathematics which the young seldom enter at

all, and which is but very scantily peopled even by the veterans of science. Moreover, it is the field of all fields in which the opinion of civilized men from the very earliest times has pronounced women least fitted to excel. Women's difficulties with elementary arithmetic have furnished some of the oldest jokes against the sex, and their appearance as bookkeepers and cashiers in French shops and cafés was, during the earlier part of this century, one of the surprises of foreign travel for most Englishmen and Americans.

That the first really successful assault on the intellectual supremacy of men should have been made on the mathematical side of the male fortress is certainly one of the most surprising events of the century, and is producing an effect in England, of course far inferior in degree, but of somewhat the same kind as the appearance of Darwin's great hypothesis. It is true that this is not the first victory of young Englishwomen in the collegiate arena over male competitors. Nor is Miss Fawcett the first distinguished female mathematician, for Mrs. Somerville reached the highest heights. Miss Prideaux won the Gold Medal for Anatomy some years ago, and Miss Ramsay more recently took a First Class in Classics at Oxford, and nine years ago another lady, Miss Scott, was bracketed with the Eighth Wrangler at Cambridge. These, however, were mere skirmishes which produced comparatively little impression. The eighth wranglership startled people a little, but the classical and medical triumphs were won in part by qualities of mind, such as memory and quickness of perception, which have never been denied to women.

What has been denied them most emphatically has been the power of abstract and continuous ratiocination, which Miss Faw cett has displayed in so high a degree, and its revelation by her has had somewhat the effect of the revelation of the existence of a new power in civilized society. The great power, the motive power, of civilized society is, after all, brain power, and this has hitherto been supplied by but a very small number of the members of one sex. It is with great difficulty that society brings it into play. All the immense and costly educational machinery of each country is devoted to what may be called a search through the population for cases of exceptional mental capacity. Both the State and the schools may be said to be engaged in a perpetual effort to find out who among its youths can give the community the service of the most potent intellectual apparatus. Hitherto this search has been carried on only among one-half of the human species, and in the honest belief that it would be useless to carry it on among the other. Of late years this belief has been shaken by a variety of exertions on the part of women, in a number of comparatively small ways, to assert their intellectual equality with men, but none of them before Miss Fawcett has challenged and beaten the masculine mind in a trial of strength in the field in which it felt surest of superiority, and in which the human mind is called on for the display of some of its highest powers. So that social philosophers are now asking themselves whether the denial of equal opportunities of intellectual training and social activity to both sexes has not resulted in diminishing the intellectual resources of the race by about one-half.

This question, however, cannot as yet be answered in the affirmative. It is still generally acknowledged that the qualities of mind which make great mathematicians are not those which make men fit to save or rule the state, or to weave successfully the great web of human affairs. The most important gift, after all, of a citizen in such professions as politics, or law, or medicine, or teaching, or war, is the ability in the selection of the premises from which the solution of the various problems of life is to be extracted. In fact, soundness of judgment and clearness of perception in collecting and arranging these premises is a large part, and by far the most important part, of each man or woman's work in the world. On this judgment and perception great mathematical achievements make no demand whatever. The mathematician's data are all provided for him with the utmost precision, and he is forbidden to add thereto or take away therefrom one jot or tittle. Consequently it is possible to be a very great mathematician indeed and be at the same time a very ordinary person in most other fields of mental activity, and especially in what may be called—using the term in its largest sense—the transaction of human business.

That this argument should be used freeely to minimize the effect of Miss Fawcett's triumph and to break the force of Mr. Gladstone's complaint that these displays of feminine capacity should not bring women a share in the material advantages offered by the great universities, is what was to be expected. But it will be impossible hereafter to satisfy the world that the revelation of the mathematical power on the part of some, or even two women, does not indicate the near presence of various other kinds of capacity in the whole sex. The probabilities are all against the theory that Miss Fawcett is a *lusus naturæ*, and that more careful and prolonged search, and wider opportunities of display, will not reveal among her sisters most of the other qualities of mind which we now describe by the epithet "masculine."

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION AND STARVATION IN ITALY.

ITALY, June, 1890.

ACCORDING to the latest reliable statistics, not yet published,* it appears that the population of Italy, which, according to the census of 1881, stood at 28,459,628, numbered on December 31st, 1889, 30,947,306, showing an increase of nearly one million and a half in nine years. These figures take no account of emigration or immigration. The birth-rate exceeds the death-rate by 11 per thousand in 1887, by 9.81 per thousand in 1888, whereas in France, for a series of years, births have never exceeded deaths by 3 in a thousand. The number of illegitimate children is greatly on the increase: 49 per thousand in 1863, they reached 73 per thousand in 1889. The maintenance of these now falls almost exclusively on the communes and the provinces; and now that the system of the *ruote* (the placing new-born infants in the turnstile of the foundling hospitals) is abolished in two-thirds of the communes where it formerly existed, the waifs abandoned by the "authors of their being," duly registered by the *sage femme* as born of unknown parent or parents, in cases where neither father nor mother chooses to acknowledge them, fall on the taxpayers of the communes and provinces. Owing to the enormous mortality in foundling hospitals — in former times attaining to 90 and 95 per cent. in some of the largest—the system of boarding out has been largely adopted, and in cases where the mother chooses to own her illegitimate child, the province allows her so much per month for suckling it. Hence a large reduction in the mortality of infants under one year of age. Marriages among the very poorest classes are also more numerous than heretofore. Sanitary provisions, though far from being perfect, have helped to lessen the death-rate. Pellagra and typhus make fewer ravages; even smallpox, the greatest permanent scourge, is being successfully grappled with. All these are excellent things in their way, but the result is an increased pauper population, and, as the years go by, numerous additions to the ranks of "unskilled" workingmen and workingwomen.

The progress in instruction is creditable if we merely compare the Italy of twenty years since with the Italy of to-day. The most promising feature is the infant school, because in these "asylums" the very poorest children are received, housed in healthy edifices, kept clean, taught to exercise their faculties and limbs, and, in most of these schools, a good meal—soup of rice or maccaroni—is provided in part at the expense of the communes, but chiefly by private subscription. The children enter at three years, and must produce the certificate of vaccination. At the age of six they pass to the elementary schools, where instruction is compulsory and gratuitous for all classes of the population. To such children as produce a certificate of their parents' "poverty," books and writing material are furnished, but no clothing and no food. The numbers of children instructed have increased from 1,722,947 in 1872 to nearly two millions and a half in 1889.

From the elementary schools the children, who go through the course in four or five years, may receive gratuitous instruction in the technical schools when their parents can afford to clothe and feed them without receiving any profits from their labor. But, with the exception of skilled operatives, very few parents in the towns and cities where these schools exist can afford to do so; in the agricultural districts next to none. The State spends for elementary instruction about $10,000,000; its expenses for technical schools, for gymnasiums, lyceums, universities, and special schools and colleges, are great, but these benefit only the upper classes, commencing with the skilled workmen and small tradesmen, and ending with the wealthiest and the gentry, whose sons and daughters can complete their university career with a very small outlay on the part of their families for their maintenance, and the payment of the insignificant taxes for admission, examination, degrees, etc. It is true that all the educational establishments are open to all classes, but the largest and poorest class cannot avail themselves, because as soon as a boy

*I quote from the proof-sheets kindly furnished by Director-General Bodio of his forthcoming volume of statistics for 1890.

or girl is ten or eleven years old he or she must work or starve. Nearly twenty years ago, when the discovery of the "seventeen millions of unlettered Italians" produced one of those spasmodic agitations which from time to time aroused the dullest and laziest, and the system of compulsory and gratuitous instruction was initiated, Prof. Villari, in an article entitled "The School and the Social Question in Italy," to those who vaunted the number of elementary, technical, and drawing schools opened, made answer:

"This is the veriest irony. What is the alphabet to those who have neither air nor light, who live in filth and stench, whose wives and children have but the street for their homes? You will just effect nothing. And if you succeed in teaching the multitudes to read and write, leaving them in their present condition, you will have prepared one of the most tremendous of social revolutions. It is impossible that the masses, when they comprehend their situation, shall remain tranquil."

These words were written after the unity of Italy, with Rome for capital, was an accomplished fact. The starving masses, or a large portion of them, have been instructed, have sat for four or five consecutive years on the same school benches with the well-fed, well-dressed sons and daughters of merchants, manufacturers, landed proprietors, and capitalists; they have learned to read and write, to cast up accounts, a smattering of history, geography, and physical science; have been taught that all are equal, that all have equal rights and equal duties. Many a ragged urchin has carried off the prize or the "honorable mention" from the rich dullards; the family, generally the mother, has slaved a little harder to buy boots and breeches, dimly hoping that all this learning will enable the children to make their way in the world. But when the last examination is passed, and the common-school door closes on these lads or lassies, they find their children in the same condition as their parents before them, with, however, an extremely different estimate of what their condition is and of what it ought to be. In a country where "charity" of the rich to the poor is traditional, it is really inexplicable that only in a few isolated cases are there any provisions for teaching children trades, for helping them to find work when learnt; yet there are very numerous societies for helping "culprits who have finished their term of imprisonment" to find employment.

Who fill the prisons? Chiefly the unoccupied and now discontented masses, who, unable in a legitimate manner to satisfy what they have been taught to consider their "legitimate aspirations," either help themselves to other people's property, or commit deeds of violence for which the penalty must be paid. If the "prison population" has diminished since 1880 (when it stood at 80,000) to less than 70,000, this is due less to the actual decrease of crime than to the greater celerity of trials and to bail being more frequently granted. Had there been in each centre an industrial school such as that established and carried to perfection by Alfonso Casenova of Naples, the numbers might have been reduced to at least half. And at one time there was a very settled determination to establish generally such schools. But, as the Prussians used to say to the poor French peasants when they requisitioned cows, geese, ducks, and turkeys, "Plébiscite, plébiscite!" so in Italy every sin of omission and commission must be laid at the door of armed peace and African policy.

I have said that Italy spends $10,000,000 on elementary instruction and stops there, as far as the "masses" are concerned; but what does she expend on the whole is the question, and how is the chief part spent? In 1871, the first year that the whole country was united in Rome, the revenue derived from all sources amounted to $193,000,000, her expenditures to $202,000,000; showing a deficit of $19,000,000. Only in the year of grace 1884–5 do we find income and expenses evenly balanced. Then set in Italy's so-called necessity for armaments on a grand scale and her mania for foreign colonists. Here is her balance-sheet for 1888–9: Revenue $300,000,000, expenditure $347,000,000; deficit $47,000,000. For this enormous expenditure she can show an enormous standing army and a magnificent fleet, her African colony, and the Triple Alliance, which consume more than 27 per cent. of the entire revenue. All the money comes out of the pockets of the taxpayers, in one form or another, the land is overburdened, commercial and industrial enterprise stagnates, while the tax on consumption levied by the State, the province, and the commune raises the price of every article of food. The manufacturers cannot increase the number of hands nor raise wages, the landlords and farmers cannot improve their lands nor give more than starvation wages. Hence, especially during the last two months, the general agitation, the strikes, the dismal processions of the unoccupied.

I should be the first to admit that the discontent of the masses which does exist is fomented and rendered permanent by professional agitators, who go about among the people preaching to them of their misery, urging them to strike; by political wire-pullers who, in public and through the press, assure the people that "it is all the fault of the Government if they are not well fed, well clothed, well housed." The world-wide demonstrations of the 1st of May found their echo in Italy, but scarcely any disorders occurred, and the Government took proper precautions to prevent them.* But strikes since then have been the order of the day. There was actually a strike in the Orlando establishment at Leghorn, where the skilled and unskilled workmen receive better wages and are better treated in every respect than in any other large dockyard in Italy. The masters yielded to all the reasonable and to some of the unreasonable demands rather than close their workshops or summon men from other parts of Italy. In another large foundry the men have struck because the owners, who have large stock unsold, *refused to allow their men to work more than eight hours.* The sulphur-miners in the Romagna struck because the sulphur-work wage in Sicily, owing to the rise in the price of sulphur, is higher than theirs, though they well knew that, rather than close the mines during the winter, the owners had worked at a loss, and at last year's prices had pledged all this year's output. At Ravenna the bakers struck for a rise of two dollars per month; this granted, they struck for four dollars. These strikes we place among the unreasonable. But the clamor for work or bread of thousands of unoccupied men and women in several provinces cannot be attributed to any other cause than the fact that the promised works have not been commenced in time, and that bread is literally wanting. The sad catastrophe of Conselice is a case in point. This little town, thirty-seven kilometres from Ferrara and thirty from Ravenna, was the birthplace of Felice Foresti, whose name is not yet forgotten in New York, where, when released with Silvio Pellico from the Spielberg, he spent many years of exile. Returning as American Consul to Italy, he there died and was buried,

"Wrapped in the flag which now illumes the West."

Conselice is one of the seven communes of Lugo, in the province of Ravenna, throughout which the beneficial system of *mezzadria* has almost disappeared; hence the enormous increase of the *braccianti* (day laborers). When the men get full work for all the working days in the year, it was shown by the Marquis Tanara, the Commissioner for the provinces of Forlì, Ravenna, Ferrara, Modena, Reggio, Emilia, and Parma, that their earnings rarely exceed 350 francs ($70). Of this, one-third is earned in the harvesting months, whereas in January and February five cents per day is the utmost they can hope for. The women earn less than half that sum. On working days some "small wine" is distributed; their house-rent (for huts and hovels "which form a sad contrast to the magnificent stables of the cattle") costs $10 per annum. The land, especially about Conselice, is low and marshy; the chief produce fodder and rice. This year there has been next to no work. The proprietors of the soil, who own from thousands to ten or less acres, have not gone in for any new works, the exportation of cattle being nil; the cultivation of rice, owing to the enormous importations of inferior quality, has not been extended. The Romagnole as a whole do not take kindly to emigration. They go out in bands to other provinces where work is to be had, but this year none was to be heard of anywhere, and the mayors of the entire province had repeatedly warned the Prefect that the people would not long consent to "starve quietly."

About the middle of May things came to a climax. Unoccupied men sent deputations to the mayors asking for work. On the 19th the Royal Commissary of Conselice (where the Town Council has been dissolved) distributed a thousand francs' worth of maize flour to families who were literally without a meal. Meanwhile the rice-weeding season commenced. This is women's work, and very unhealthy and toilsome. From 5 A. M. to 7 P. M., with three hours' rest, the women, many of whom live at two, three, or even five kilometres' distance, work ankle deep in fetid water under the burning sun, eating what they bring with them, drinking such small wine as the "master" sees fit to furnish. Many of the proprietors this year have paid 1 franc per day; the Duke Massari's agent offered but 65 centimes. The women and girls, on whose earnings the disoccupied men have this year to live, demanded a franc, and were refused. They struck, and sent a deputation to the Royal Commissary at Conselice, where the disoccupied men were clamoring for work. The Commissary telegraphed to the agents of the Duke to get permission for the rise; it appeared that this was granted, but when the women, at 5 A. M. on the morning of the 21st, went to work, they were offered only 80 centimes. They all struck, and marched in a body to Conselice, where the disoccupied men again were assembled.

The delegate of police, fearing disorders, had summoned carbineers from Lugo, a company of the line from Ravenna, and these were drawn up in the market place. The Royal Commissary received a deputation of the women, and assured them that the Duke's agent had misunderstood the telegram; that the franc would be accorded. Then the male deputation made for the staircase of the town hall. The lieutenant of the carbineers refused access; the men insisting, he ordered arrests and himself sprang down the steps to lay hold on a ringleader. A stone flung from the crowd stunned him and he fell; one of his men fired and killed a young woman whose back was

* The Constitution admits the right of public meetings, but the Government has the power to forbid them when public tranquillity may seem in danger.

turned in flight; then, without any order from their captain, the soldiers of the line fired into the crowd; result: three killed, seventeen wounded. The lieutenant of the carbineers broke his shoulderblade in his fall; others were contused with stones. On the morrow the Duke Massari granted the franc, and has been lavish of money and food to the wounded and the families of the dead. The Government licensed a number of public works without waiting for all the red-tape formalities to be performed, and work there is now ample and sufficient for the unoccupied until the reaping season begins.

These are the "facts of Conselice" out of which the Radicals, anarchists, and rowdies in general hoped to make sufficient capital to overthrow the Government. On the other hand, the Conservatives clamored for a return to their policy, affirming that, but for Crispi's radicalism and the presence of Fortis in the Government, no disorders would have occurred, forgetting that the facts of Conselice are but a faint reproduction of the grist-tax riots in 1874. Fortis insisted on being thrown overboard, and resigned. A speech from Crispi which took all the ultras by surprise, was followed by a vote of confidence in the Government of 328 to 61. Bonghi, who had caressed the hope that by his means Crispi was to be led into the Conservative fold, after listening to the "yeas" of many pillars of the Conservative church, poured out his lamentations in an article entitled "Finis Dextrae," but the opinion of the country ratifies the vote, and once more Crispi has the power for good or evil in his hands. There is peace in Europe, and, with the ripening crops, there is work for the unoccupied, bread for the hungry. But with the fall again the terrible question will arise—the question stated for England by Carlyle in his 'Past and Present':

"Behold us here so many thousands—millions—and increasing at the rate of fifty every hour. We are right willing and able to work, and on the planet earth is plenty of work and wages for a million times as many. We ask you if you mean to lead us towards work? Try to lead us by ways new, never yet heard of till this new unheard-of time; or, if you declare you cannot lead us, and expect that we are to remain quietly unled, and in a composed manner die of starvation, what is it you mean to do with us? This question, I say, has been put in the hearing of all Britain, and will be again put, and ever again, till some answer be given." J. W. M.

THE SALON AT THE CHAMP DE MARS.

PARIS, May, 1890.

THE opening of the new Salon in the Champ de Mars has been the event of the year in the art world of Paris. That it should far surpass in interest and distinction the old Salon in the Champs-Élysées is a surprise to no one; its artistic success was assured by the names of the men who, with M. Meissonier as their leader, deserted their old headquarters to form for themselves a Société Nationale des Beaux-Arts. But that it should prove, as it has, one of the most brilliant and masterly exhibitions held for some years, even in France, is to many an unexpected, and therefore delightful, revelation of the strong vitality of the modern art, not merely of France, but of the world—for many leading Scandinavians, Americans, Germans, and Englishmen, as well as Frenchmen, are represented.

At the old Salon, though to any one fresh from the London exhibitions the general average seems very high, the most striking fact is the small number of pictures of note. As at the Royal Academy, few stand out with prominence. The leading artists who remained stanch in their allegiance to it have, one might think, been almost paralyzed by the unfortunate schism. Bonnat is strangely wooden and stiff in his portrait of President Carnot. Benjamin Constant comes very near a failure in his big monochrome, one might call it, of Beethoven playing his Moonlight Sonata to his friends; Henner adds little to his reputation by his "Melancholy" and a portrait, though in each is the same richness of color which distinguishes all his work; Laurens somehow fails to be interesting in his elaborate portrait of a lady in a richly decorated room; Jules Lefebvre is academically correct, but artistically insipid, in a vast stretch of canvas representing Lady Godiva riding naked through the streets of Coventry. Munkácsy is exhibiting here for the first time in twelve years, but his chief exhibit is a large ceiling for the Museum at Vienna, which, as it hangs on the wall, instead of being seen, as it is intended to be, above one's head, can only startle one by the rapid perspective of its architecture and the curious foreshortening of its figures. Really, if one mentions a charge of an artillery regiment of the Second Empire by Detaille, in which he shows less consciousness than usual of the requirements of the reproductive process to which his paintings are eventually submitted, and therefore greater breadth of treatment; a spirited Roman chariot-race by Checa; a strong study of sunshine, nominally the entry of President Carnot into Agen, by Henri Martin; one of Jules Breton's stately peasant women in a quiet landscape; a very bright, rich study of a white cow by Jules Dupré—one has almost exhausted the list of important contributions. I do not mean that there is not much good work besides these few things to be found in the innumerable galleries of the Palais de l'Industrie. But there is little else that compels notice for originality in conception or execution, or challenges criticism by marked individuality in style, technique, or color. The collection shows admirably how very high is the standard of art that prevails in France; it reveals little, however, of the genius or talent of any one man.

On the other hand, at the Champ de Mars there is scarcely an exhibitor who does not command special attention. The brilliancy of the exhibition as a whole is not more marked than the strong and individual character of the work of almost every artist represented. Here each man seems to have painted the pictures he sends, not merely because he had mastered the technique of his art, but because he had something to say to which he could only give expression in paint. Either he wished to record some fact in nature hitherto unrecorded, or else his own particular impression of some effect of light or color or some phase of human character. This collection is a proof not merely that there are good masters and intelligent students in French *ateliers*, but that among modern artists are men of undoubted genius and innovators of daring originality. This result of their exhibition will justify the seceders from the old society in at least one of the reasons for their secession. For it is certain that much more can be learned of the methods and qualities of a painter when half-a-dozen or more examples of his work can be studied, than when only two are to be seen, as at the old Salon. One may complain when Academicians and Associates monopolize the line at the Royal Academy in London; but no one objects when a Carolus-Duran, a Besnard, or a Lhermitte claims the same privilege. And, moreover, in the Palais des Beaux-Arts but limited space is found for incompetence or mediocrity. There are, of course, canvases that might have been dispensed with, but these are in a very large minority. The quality of their work, and not election into a royal institution, gives the exhibitors their right to as much space on the walls as they demand. Not only is the number of pictures hung (there are but 910) very small in proportion to the thousands accepted at the old Salon, but the proportion of contributors is still smaller. Consequently the new Salon really represents a picked body of artists, and these not of any one school or clique, but of methods and styles as opposed as those of Besnard and Ribot, of Meissonier and Boldini, of Montenard and Billotte.

It is also worth noting that the arrangements for exhibiting this unusually fine collection are unusually good. They prove how much the general effect of a picture exhibition depends upon artistic thought and care in the hanging. There is no senseless piling of frames above frames; often there is but the one painting on the line; except in the black-and-white and water-color rooms, works contributed are never hung more than two deep. As a rule, all the examples of one man are grouped together. A fine ceiling by Besnard for the Hôtel de Ville is shown, not senselessly on the walls, as is the case with Munkácsy's at the old Salon, but where one can really look at it with pleasure—on the ceiling of a gallery set apart for a "Conversation Room." Galland's decorations for the same building are also in their proper places, and the large decorative design by Puvis de Chavannes, destined for the Museum at Rouen, is set up on the wall at exactly the same height at which it will eventually be seen, and in a framework very similar to that which is later to enclose it.

This work is one of the most important in the show. It is called "Inter Artes et Naturam," and is very charming in color and fine in decorative feeling. A row of apple-trees, laden with fruit, interlace their branches to make an effective frieze-like arrangement in the foreground. Under their shade, and on soft turf, over which are scattered here and there pale-blue and pink blossoms, are the figures of men and women and the ruins of Gothic and classic buildings which explain the allegory; while in the distance is that marvellous view of Rouen, its cathedral towering above its clustered house-roofs, the Seine winding its way through the green valley towards it, which one sees from the hills just outside the town, and which Flaubert has described for once and all in 'Madame Bovary.' The old Tuscans and Venetians themselves did not make better use in their frescoes of the landscapes they knew and loved than the modern French artist has done of the lovely country that lies round that city, one of the principal buildings of which it is his privilege to decorate. What specially strikes one is the beauty of the quiet color, so eminently adapted to the purposes of decoration. With the faint mist that shrouds foreground and distance alike, softening the greens of the foliage, the red of the ripe fruit, and the violets and pinks of the draperies of the female figures, the whole composition is very restful and pleasant to the eye.

M. Puvis de Chavannes is not the only modern Frenchman who understands the value of soft cool tones in large decorative designs. M. Binet also makes good use of them in an enormous panel for one of the rooms in the Hôtel de Ville, which has for subject an attack of artillerymen upon the ramparts of a town. And gray is the prevailing color in M. H. Lerolle's two designs for the Church of St. Martin in Paris, one representing the saint

sharing his cloak with a beggar, the other his vision of Christ and his angels.

M. Meissonier, though he is President of the new Society, has contented himself with contributing only one example of his careful work, "October, 1806." It is somewhat larger than his usual canvases, and shows Napoleon descending towards the battle-field, in the very heat of the conflict. It is distinguished by the well-known beauty of finish and accurate rendering of detail, so characteristic of his painting. But it must be confessed that, compared to the vivid and intensely true impressions of men of a more modern school, it seems lacking somewhat in life and genuineness.

The exhibition is very strong in portraits, in which the London shows are so weak. M. Carolus-Duran has perhaps never been seen to greater advantage, except last year at the General Exposition. He has no less than four full-length portraits, as well as three small ones, and a masterly study of the nude. Nothing could be more charming than a girl in gray, with pink sash and fichu, who stands, her gloved hands clasped a little below her waist, as simply and as gracefully as Holbein's Christina of Milan, against a curtain of a darker gray. The face is admirably painted, the pose delightful, and the color scheme a fine harmony. In striking contrast, by the same master, is a lady in red velvet, just throwing back a fur cloak, as rich and voluptuous in color and suggestion as the other is quiet and restrained. His study of the nude makes one wish he would oftener give us proofs of his skill in flesh-painting: the girl, with auburn hair drawn up in a mass on top of her head, sits, with her back turned towards you, on red cushions in front of a red curtain, just pulled aside to give a glimpse of a green landscape beyond, the brilliant reds bringing out in strong relief her beautiful white body, which is drawn with consummate knowledge and treated with great refinement. M. Roll has a very attractive subject in Mme. Jane Hading, whom he shows in a black evening dress, her head, with its golden hair, resting against a fur robe thrown over the back of the large chair in which she is sitting, and, as if to bring out still more forcibly her grace and elegance and the luxury of her surroundings, he has hung close by a study of a grim, hard-featured peasant woman, who has never known the meaning of the word rest, and whose life has been one of coarse manual work. He is happy, too, in his Coquelin Cadet in the very act of reciting, with that familiar gesture of the hands which suggests his greater brother, and that irresistible expression of simple folly that makes his *Pierrot* so delightful. Very strong is M. Lhermitte's portrait of Ste.-Claire-Deville in his laboratory, surrounded by his assistants and pupils; each vigorously modelled head is a portrait in itself, and all the details, the table, with its jars of chemicals, its glass dishes and phials, its apparatus for experiment, are worked out with the utmost care, and yet always well subordinated to the figures upon which interest centres. This is good, honest, straightforward work. Another portrait group which is attracting attention is Gervex's of the staff of *La République Française*, but it has not quite the strength or power of Lhermitte's work of the same kind.

Mr. Sargent has sent his wonderful portrait of Miss Ellen Terry as *Lady Macbeth*, exhibited last year in the New Gallery, and another of a lady in white evening gown; and Mr. Dannat covers a corner of one of the galleries with portraits, of which the smallest are the best. I do not think I have ever seen a child more satisfactorily painted than in a portrait by M. Edelfelt, the Scandinavian painter, of a little boy in his nursery; he has just turned from the table where he has been playing with tin soldiers, and is looking up with that half-ashamed, half-pleased expression of children suddenly interrupted in their play. The painting is filled with the right feeling of childhood, and not with the sentimental prettiness which Sir John Millais has made popular in England.

Another strong feature of the collection is the number of successful studies of sunlight and open-air and atmospheric effects. Figure subjects are studied out of doors, or, if represented in an interior, they are seen in the strong light of a lamp or fire, or of the sun shining through open doors and windows. Nothing could be truer than M. Besnard's impressions of these effects, startling as they at first seem. He has a picture of his own family assembled in a bright sunny room, in which the values are marvellously given, while the color is at once brilliant and refined; and his "Vision de Femme," a semi-nude female figure in a sunlit garden of pink and white oleanders against a mass of golden green foliage, is simply dazzling. Still more blinding is the light in M. Dinet's "Snake-Charmer," performing to a group of Orientals in the full glare of the Eastern sun. But it is really impossible here, in the small space at my disposal, to enumerate all the strikingly fine examples. I can just mention, among the most conspicuous, Montenard's beautiful renderings of Provençal effects; Dubufe's series of sketches in Capri, in which he gives most admirably the staring white roads and villages of Italy; Thaulow's studies of snow, in which he does for Norway what Segantini does for the Italian Alps; Courtens's woods in autumn, delightfully rich, with all the golden trees reflected in a quiet stream, where a man in his boat rests on his oars; Sisley's Monet-inspired French landscapes. The broad feeling which has influenced the Hanging Committee in its work is nowhere better emphasized than in the contrast between these brilliant impressions and the gray, shadowy work of Carrière and Billotte.

I have said nothing of the very strong showing made by M. Alfred Stevens, of the portraits by Boldini, so startlingly realistic that they seem indeed to overstep the boundaries of realism in art, of the landscapes by Mr. Alexander Harrison, lovelier in color than almost anything this artist has yet painted. I have not even referred to the fine pastels by M. Carrier-Belleuse; to the drawings by M. Renouard, to whom there is question among his Parisian friends of giving the cross of the Legion of Honor; to the powerful and awful "Death" by the sculptor Desbois. I have not as much as mentioned the names of Jean Béraud, Uhde, Liebermann, Louis Deschamps, Cazin, Dagnan-Bouveret (the latter, however, has nothing of great importance). But the truth is, that whereas in most exhibitions it is always easier to point out the few good things, at the Champ de Mars the simplest task would be to give the list of the bad work. Much as one regrets that there should be any discord among French artists, one cannot but realize that, from the evil, good, in the form of this exceptionally interesting exhibition, has come.

A NOBLEMAN OF THE OLD RÉGIME.—II.

PARIS, June 12, 1890.

WE left Baron des Cars in Prussia, witnessing reviews on the staff of Frederic II. and visiting battle-fields. He became acquainted with Prince Henry, the brother of the King, who was a great lover and admirer of France and French manners. On his return to France he found the country in the first commotions of the French Revolution. He took sides with the most ardent Royalists against M. Necker, against the *Tiers* of the States-General. He speaks of "the horrible, infamous, and for ever execrable day of the *Jeu de paume*, which must be considered the forerunner of the infernal tribunal which, some years later, assassinated the most just of Kings." He was in harmony with the ideas of the Comte d'Artois, considered Necker as a traitor and the States-General as rebels. The Duke of Orleans had had himself appointed a deputy of the *Tiers*, as the bailiff of one of his estates. Des Cars asked him what advantage he, a prince of the blood, could find in appearing in the States-General as a village bailiff. "Oh," said the Duke, "I have been exiled; when I wished to go to England, I have several times been forbidden to go. I don't care what the States-General may do; but I wanted to be in it, so as to secure individual liberty, and to give my vote for a law which will allow me to sleep at Raincy if I have a fancy to do so, and not to sleep at Villers-Cotterets when I don't want to go there. I don't care a bit for all the rest."

Necker was dismissed for a few days, and then recalled under the growing pressure of public opinion. The Comte d'Artois was already gone. He wrote to Louis XVI.: "You ought to send me Baron des Cars; he knows foreign countries well, and is known in them; I think he will be more useful abroad than at home." Neither the Comte d'Artois nor Louis XVI. knew exactly at that time what sort of help they wanted. The King bade Des Cars "go and join my brother," and Des Cars left for Spa, where the Comte d'Artois then resided. He had been appointed Minister to Berlin a little before; he hardly knew himself what his mission was to be in Germany. Everything in France was in a state of complete confusion. Des Cars had so far only studied Germany from the military point of view; he had now to study it from a political standpoint—not an easy task, for the Treaty of Westphalia had left Germany in a very confused and complicated state. He remained some time in Cologne, in Mayence at the court of the Elector, with the Princes of Würtemberg and of Bavaria at Stuttgart and at Munich, with the Prince Cardinal Bishop of Passau. He gives graphic accounts of these little courts.

At Vienna he saw the Emperor Joseph, who recalled to him all the suppers they had had together in Paris, and spoke of the famous representation of Gluck's "Iphigénie" at the Opera, when the singer had to repeat twice the beautiful air: "Chantons, célébrons notre reine." Alas, the times were changed; the Queen was now very unpopular. The Emperor thought that Louis XVI. had made a great mistake in allowing the departure of the Comte d'Artois and the Princes of Condé. "It would have been better to send them to the provinces, and to form camps in order to preserve the troops from being corrupted and to keep them faithful. Your Constituent Assembly commits many follies, but it is right in attacking the clergy. I myself set the first example of it." News of the troubled days of the 5th and 6th of October arrived in Vienna. The Emperor Joseph was sorry to see the King and the Queen prisoners of the Parisian mob, but he found great fault with the King's behavoir, and his sentiments with regard to Marie Antoinette were very cold. His health was broken. He was more busied with the affairs of Belgium and Turkey than with those of France. Joseph expired on the 20th of Feb-

ruary, 1790, and his brother Leopold became Emperor.

Kaunitz is admirably described. In order to gain his notice and affection, it was necessary to go and see him ride in his riding-school. His servants prepared his horses for him, and he finished them off before a great looking-glass. He held in the evening a real court, and rendered despotic judgments on literature and the fine arts. He always kept the Papal Nuncio on his right, an ambassador on his left, and he named every evening the four or five persons who were to complete his circle. Des Cars often had that honor, and sat down while many marshals, generals, and knights of the Golden Fleece were standing behind him.

Des Cars was in constant unofficial communication with the new Emperor. He describes him in these words:

"Leopold, under a bourgeois and bonhomme exterior, had contracted in Tuscany an Italian dissimulation. His policy would, I believe, have been more adroit if it had been more frank. He pitied Louis XVI., but reproached him for his weakness of character. He would have preferred modes of seducing and corrupting the Constituent Assembly to the warlike remedies which were often proposed to him. But when, adopting his ideas, I offered to substitute for the cost of a campaign the sacrifice of a few millions, which his ambassador, who was still in Paris, might have distributed in the Assembly, he hesitated between the two systems."

He often said that he would not decide on war as long as he was not sure of Prussia; and finally he determined Prussia, a year after, to make common cause with Austria. He used to show to Des Cars the infrequent letters which he received from his sister, Marie Antoinette. Sometimes she seemed full of confidence in the Comte d'Artois and in Monsieur, sometimes she seemed afraid of their action. Leopold was very anxious that Louis XVI. should escape from Paris and go, for instance, to Valenciennes. "Once there, the Assembly will treat with him and become reasonable."

The French emigrants were much divided: Calonne was in favor of an armed and extensive emigration; Des Cars saw the dangers of this policy: "Being a soldier, and knowing the French officers, I was opposed to the idea of raising out of France an army composed merely of officers and of gentlemen." Such an army, even if the emigration were universal, could not but be small; the National Assembly would arm the whole of France. M. de Calonne offered to reconstitute outside of France the regiments of the King's household. "You are very sure of the King, or very bold," said Des Cars to him, "if you propose to the Comte d'Artois to reform, on this side of the Rhine, regiments which the King himself has destroyed." At the end of this conversation, which took place at Arras, the Bishop of Arras said, with a stentorian voice: "I thought that M. des Cars was a Royalist; he is only a *monarchien*."

The news of the flight to Varennes, and of the arrest of the royal family, caused great consternation in the camps of the emigrants. For a moment they had hoped to see Louis XVI. at Lille, or Valenciennes, summoning near his person all his faithful subjects; now he was a prisoner, and, for a King, the distance is not great from the prison to the scaffold. Among the sovereigns, the most ardent in the defence of Louis XVI. was Gustavus III., King of Sweden. He was of a romantic disposition, very eager, but unfortunately very unpopular with the Swedish nobility. Des Cars was sent to him; the Comte d'Artois had assured him at Dresden that he would find in Sweden a squadron all ready to transport an army to the Norman or Breton coast; that the King of Spain was to grant a subsidy of four millions on the day the expedition left the Swedish port; that Russia also offered a subsidy. Des Cars found things in a very different state: no army, no navy, no money. The Estates were very much indisposed to give Gustavus the means for a new war; the King and two or three favorites of his were the only people who thought of playing a part in the restoration of the French monarchy. The King looked upon France as being the oldest and most faithful ally of Sweden, but his country had been exhausted by the enormous expenses of the Finland war, and he could ask no more from his subjects. Des Cars was a witness of all the events which preceded the assassination of the King at a masked ball at the Opera; he saw the King before his death, who gave him a last message for Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette. One of the assassins, Ankerström, was executed; the four others were also condemned to capital punishment, but, to the surprise of all, the Regent commuted the penalty to perpetual banishment. Ribbing came to France, where the Jacobins lionized him. Des Cars says that he saw him afterwards with horror in Paris, where he was called "le beau régicide." Des Cars was no friend of the French Jacobins; still he writes:

"I will make bold to exculpate the French Jacobins from an imputation, which I have often heard, of having contributed to the assassination of the King of Sweden. During a long sojourn in that country, I was able to understand well the spirit of the court, of the city, and of the nation, and I repeat that the Swedish nobility needed no auxiliaries; that after the promulgation of the 'Act of Union and Surety' and the arrest and imprisonment of eighty noblemen, there had hardly been a day when Gustavus's life was not in danger. The Jacobins of France applauded this crime, but I say that it belongs completely to Sweden alone, and to the order of its nobility."

Des Cars did not believe in the sincerity of Catherine of Russia's offers of service to the King of Sweden, in the French cause; he considered her as only seriously preoccupied, under cover of this cause, in bringing about the consummation of her ambitious views with regard to Poland. Des Cars left Sweden, not without pleasure, and resolved to plant himself somewhere in Germany, with the small resources which he still had (his father-in-law paid him very exactly 50 louis a month, wherever he was, and he had about 50,000 francs' worth of diamonds). His wife had died of consumption at the Mont d'Or, during his absence, and he met at Berlin Mme. de Nadaillac (born Rosalie de la Ferrière), whom he married in 1798. Here his memoirs end. He lived in Berlin for a while and came back to France under the Empire; he resided at the Château de la Ferrière, which belonged to his wife. Mme. des Cars spoke too freely on the subject of Napoleon; she was arrested and conducted to the Island of Ste. Marguerite, where the Iron Mask had been imprisoned. She was, after thirty-three days of detention, allowed to go to Nice, and afterwards to Lorraine.

On the return of the Bourbons, Des Cars was appointed Lieutenant-General, and he entered on his functions of first maître d'hôtel to Louis XVIII. He presided, in that capacity, at the table of the King's guests. His brother, to whom he was always much devoted, died in 1815, and he succeeded to his title of Comte des Cars. During the Hundred Days, he went to England; an attack of gout had hindered him from going to Belgium while the road was still practicable. On his return to France Louis XVIII. made him a Duke. He died on the 9th of September, 1822, leaving no issue, and his cousin, the Count François, became the head of the family. He had a twin sister, married in 1767 to M. Paris de Montmartel, a rich financier, who became afterwards the Marquis de Brunoy. The union was not happy, and by mutual consent a separation took place. Mme. de Brunoy had a salon and was a person of great culture. She died in 1823, the same year as her cousin, the Comte François des Cars, who had been gentleman-in-waiting to the Comte d'Artois, and had lived with him during the emigration.

Correspondence.

FORT TICONDEROGA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am at a loss to account for the information you received regarding the disfigurement of the walls of Fort Ticonderoga.

On visiting the Fort last week, I found the west wall still covered with the staring white letters of an advertisement as described by Mr. W. Morton Fullerton in the May *Fortnightly*.

Very truly yours, H. S. H.

Boston, June 18, 1890.

AN INQUIRY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is charged by people who ought to know, that Congressmen are in the habit of turning over to their private secretaries the public documents falling to their lot, and that the latter, instead of holding these documents for distribution to the public, sell them to book-dealers in Washington for their personal profit. While this, if true, is not the most crying abuse of the hour, it is worth calling attention to. I wish we might know if it is true, and, if true, stop it.—Very truly,

R. L. E.

Crete, Neb., June 19, 1890.

PENSIONS AS LIFE INSURANCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent has recently had his attention called to a humorous feature of the pension business which will perhaps be as new to your readers as it was to him. It is the frequency of the marriages between the old soldiers and the young women of this neighborhood. An enterprising girl from the poorer classes of Appomattox or one of the adjoining counties sends her photograph to the Soldiers' Home at Hampton, Va., a veteran responds, and the knot is tied. No less than twenty such marriages are reported within a radius of five miles of this place. There would be an element of romance in this surrender of the old soldiers to the charms of beauty, on the spot where Lee's army capitulated, if it were not for the purely business nature of the transaction. A soldier with a pension is a gold mine, and his death, which must take place soon in the course of nature, leaves the young widow in the enjoyment of his pension for the remaining years of her life. A. J. McKelway.

Pamplin City, Va., June 21, 1890.

WORDS NOT IN THE DICTIONARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The letter from Dr. J. A. H. Murray, in your issue of June 12, on the subject of the word *colin*, impels me to express the hope that he will have the word—similar in lettering and in sound, though wholly unlike etymologically—*colen*, in the next volume of his Dictionary. It would naturally be supposed that it would be there, as a matter of course, for it occurs no

less than three times in Joseph Rodman Drake's 'Culprit Fay,' each time as the first half of a compound word, appearing thus in the third line of the tenth stanza :

"Then plucked a crimson *colen*-bell,"

the word being repeated in the nineteenth stanza, and used with this slight variation in the twentieth :

"And held his *colen*-goblet up."

The reason for fearing that Dr. Murray may not get hold of the word lies in the fact that the voluminous 'Century Dictionary,' published on lines parallel with those of Murray's, does not contain it, and, what is more, neither the Century nor Murray's, both of which have got past that word, makes any mention of *bootle*. And yet that word, also, occurs in the 'Culprit Fay,' in the eighteenth stanza, as follows:

"An oar he shaped of the *bootle*-blade,"

and again in the nineteenth:

"The heavy strokes of his *bootle*-blade."

It seems to me that for two dictionaries which make the boast of containing every word ever used by any reputable author, these two omissions are very discreditable. Even if it be claimed and admitted that the words in question have no real meaning outside of the mind of the person using them, the fact that they appear in a poem of the exalted character and permanent reputation of the 'Culprit Fay' should entitle them to admission, if only for the purpose of classifying them as imaginary. It is obvious that the poet means by the word *colen* to indicate some flowering plant; can any of your readers give a hint as to the possible signification of *bootle* ?

Yours respectfully, WM. F. PECK.

ROCHESTER, N. Y., June 20, 1890.

Notes.

SIMULTANEOUSLY with the appearance in Europe of Mr. Stanley's 'In Darkest Africa,' Charles Scribner's Sons will issue the book in this country on June 28.

The Shakspere Society of New York will resume their Publications in a second series, consisting of unexpurgated reprints of the Old English Miracle Plays, Mysteries, and Moralities, as illustrating the growth of the drama up to Shakspere's time, together with the least-known and edited English plays contemporary with Shakspere's own work. These will be issued in the style of the Bankside Shakspere, from the Riverside Press, to the number of 250, printed from type and not from plates. Mr. L. L. Lawrence, No. 21 Park Row, will receive subscriptions to this series.

The Historical Printing Club, 97 Clark Street, Brooklyn, N. Y., announce that they have in press, edited by Worthington Chauncey Ford, a Revolutionary Orderly Book of General William Heath; and 'The Harrisburg Convention of 1788: A Study in Popular Government,' by Paul Leicester Ford. They also have begun a series, entitled "Winnowings in American History," to consist of original publications from MSS., reprints of rare tracts, and selections from old newspapers. Four numbers are in press, being 'An Account of a Plan for Civilizing the North American Indians, Proposed in the Eighteenth Century by John Daniel Hammerer,' printed from the only known copy; 'Report on the Management of Estates Sequestered in South Carolina, 1780–82, by John Cruden'; 'A Short History and Description of Fort Niagara, Written by an English Prisoner, 1758,' and 'Proceedings of a Council of War Held at Burke Jail, Georgia, 1779, with a Narrative of the Subsequent Proceedings and the Proclamation issued by Col. John Ingram.' Only 250 copies of each are printed.

Mr. W. H. Goodyear, 145 East Forty-ninth Street, New York, sends us a prospectus of his 'Grammar of the Lotus; being a New History of Classic Ornament as a Development of Sun Worship.' There will be 1,200 illustrations in 500 plates, and 200 pages of text, small atlas size. The work will be issued to subscribers.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have in press 'European Days and Ways,' by Alfred E. Lee; 'In and Out of Book and Journal,' by Dr. A. Sydney Roberts, illustrated by Van Schaick; 'Classical Picture Gallery,' 144 plates of choice European examples, edited by Prof. von Reber and Dr. Bayersdorfer; 'Historic Note-Book,' by the Rev. E. Cobham-Brewer; and 'Gleanings for the Curious from the Harvest-Fields of Literature,' by Dr. C. C. Bombaugh.

The new volume of the "Book-Lovers' Library" will be on 'Newspaper Reporting in Olden Time and To-day,' by John Pendleton, and will be published by A. C. Armstrong & Son.

A. Lovell & Co. announce as forthcoming additions, respectively, to the Camelot Series, 'Northern Studies,' by Edmund Gosse, with two essays on Ibsen's poems and dramas; to the Great Writers' Series, lives of Browning and Byron.

A 'Complete Lexicon to the Latinity of Cæsar's Gallic War,' by E. G. Sihler, will be issued during the summer by Ginn & Co., and will be greeted with satisfaction by the student youth looking collegewards, and not less by teachers.

The "Students' Series of English Classics" (Leach, Shewell & Sanborn) aims to furnish annotated editions of the authors required for admission to many colleges, and is prepared by teachers experienced in the work. Miss Katharine Lee Bates of Wellesley College edits the present issue, a 'Ballad Book,' a collection of fifty of the most famous Scotch and English ballads, arranged topically under the heads of Superstition, Tradition, and Romantic and Domestic Ballads. The text follows the best sources with great care, and each ballad is briefly annotated at the end of the volume. A painstaking introductory essay discusses the history and literature of the subject, and elaborates methods of study for pupils many of which, as it seems to us, would be a weariness to the flesh; but, apart from these overwrought suggestions, the volume is a convenience in bringing the best ballads easily before youthful minds.

The Earl of Lytton has brought out a revised edition of a youthful romance, 'The Ring of Amasis' (Macmillan), being led thereto by the popularity of the work in America, where, he is told, "cheap reprints" of it are still circulated. He thinks that "the United States contains the largest and least sophisticated reading public," and is vexed that so imperfect a work should have been so long wandering "about so important a portion of the human world," and therefore he has rewritten every page and made the story substantially new. He seems oblivious of the potent cause of these "cheap reprints," and confounds piracy with that approval of foreign nations which used to be fame. He says very frankly that the romance was a poor work, and has been entirely forgotten in England, and so it furnishes an excellent example of the way in which literature is fostered by our present system, which causes the survival of the worst, or at least of inferior, English books which do not have to be paid for. 'The Ring of Amasis' itself in its new form is a romance of an antiquated kind, not without strength in the story and some psychological interest, but entirely without reality. It is curious rather as an illustration of the Egyptian tale of a generation ago, in distinction from Rider Haggard, for example, than for any other reason; but we remark in it, as in the reprint of Moore's 'Epicurean,' a refined and masculine English style, a pure literary taste, which one looks for in vain in our contemporary romances of this nature.

The so-called 'Ruskin Library' issued by John Wiley & Sons comprises, in a neat box, the 'Crown of Wild Olive,' 'Ethics of the Dust,' 'Queen of the Air,' and 'Sesame and Lilies.' The volumes are of moderate size for the hand, and in print and binding seem to us much the best of the reprints of Ruskin associated with this firm.

The latest of the "Knickerbocker Nuggets" of the Messrs. Putnam is a collection, by Paul Leicester Ford, entitled 'The Prefaces, Proverbs, and Poems of Benjamin Franklin,' as originally printed in Poor Richard's Almanacs for 1733–1758. Mr. Ford supplies an agreeable introduction, with curious bibliographical details concerning the vogue in all lands and tongues of the preface to the Almanac for 1758; and the pretty volume is embellished with a portrait of Franklin, and with facsimiles of the title-pages of the issues for 1733 and 1748 ("Poor Richard Improved").

The 'Annual Register' for 1889 bears for the last time the imprint of the Messrs. Rivington at the head of the associated firms who publish this long-lived record of current events. Nearly a hundred years, and still more nearly a hundred volumes, ago, namely, in the 'Annual Register' for 1791, issued in 1795, F. & C. Rivington supplanted J. Dodsley as the publishers, "in consequence of Mr. Dodsley's advanced time of life (whose zeal and assiduity in effecting a regular publication of many preceding volumes will not, we trust, be forgotten by the public)." But while the cares of publication were transferred to No. 62 St. Paul's Church-yard, the 'Register' was "sold also by J. Dodsley, Pall Mall." Hereafter, we suppose, the Messrs. Longman will have at least the leading imprint. The present volume calls for no other special remark, unless it relate to the fulness and care bestowed on the section dealing with the United States. To the regular features of chronicle of events, obituary, and reviews of literature, science, and art, is added a valuable account of the Parnell Commission's proceedings and findings. Pigott's examination is partly reported verbatim.

It speaks well for patriotic memories that new books telling of the sacrifices for the Union continue to be prepared. The latest, 'The Honors of the Empire State' (A. Lovell & Co.), compiled under the conviction that "forgiveness and forgetfulness are widely different," is a fragmentary and not very well-arranged sketch of what New York did in the civil war, with lists of men and places. Its motive is the best, and, barring some inevitable inaccuracies, it presents in a new form the names of heroic men and brief accounts of heroic deeds. The author, Mr. Thos. S. Townsend, also tells of what New Yorkers did as civilians to help the national cause.

A stout volume worthy of general attention, considering the subject, 'Pavements and Roads, Their Construction and Maintenance,' has been compiled from the files of the *Engineering and Building Record* by E. G. Love, Ph.D., and is published from the office of that journal in this city. It is well classified and is

perhaps sufficiently indexed; and there are a few diagrams and other illustrations.

Two Salons, two official illustrated catalogues. That of the exhibition in the Champs-Elysées we have already noticed; that of the seceders, the 'Catalogue Officiel Illustré de la Société Nationale des Beaux-Arts,' in the Champ de Mars, comes next to hand (Paris: E. Bernard & Cie.). The later volume matches the earlier in size; the pictorial memoranda are more generally direct from the canvas. As the first record of the probably lasting schism in the ranks of French art, and of a magnanimous experiment in fraternization, this catalogue possesses an interest which makes it well worth preserving. The examples chosen for reproduction are in the main attractive and well calculated to stimulate desire to see the originals. The American reader will also derive a gentle amusement from the English rendering of the French titles, which practice will no doubt improve.

Prof. F. A. Leo of Berlin, the well-known Shakspere scholar, has privately printed a large-paper edition of fifty copies of his article on "The Autographs of Rosenkranz and Güldenstern," contributed to the *Jahrbuch der deutschen Shakespeare-Gesellschaft*. It is a short description of a "Stammbuch," or album, recently discovered in the royal library of Stuttgart, which, the librarian believes, may have belonged to Duke Frederick I. of Würtemberg, and which appears to be an emblem-book, every other page being left blank for autographs, published by Christopher Plantin at Antwerp in 1571. On the blank pages are a large number of autographs collected by the owner in his travels. The first is that of the Emperor Maximilian II. of Germany, immediately followed by that of Frederick II. of Denmark and the leading German rulers and princes. Among the many less distinguished names are to be found Borgia, Fugger, and the astronomer Tycho Brahe. The main interest of the book for Shaksperian students is on page 70, where are the names and mottoes of the immortal Danish courtiers: "1577. In utraque fortuna ipsius fortune esto memor. Jörgen Rosenkrantz.—1577. Ferendum et sperandum. P. Güldenstern." Prof. Leo conjectures that the English actors who made a tour in Germany and Denmark during the latter part of the sixteenth century became acquainted with the two inseparables, and it was from their "vivid description of the behavior of the two court-clowns that Shakespeare was able to mould those immortal characters." An excellent zincographic reproduction of this page is given. We may add that not only do we find these names together in Shakspere and in the album, but also on the list of the students at the University of Padua at the common epoch.

African travel and exploration is the subject of the three papers contained in the June Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society. The place of honor is naturally given to Mr. Stanley's address before the Society on the geographical results of his expedition. This is followed by an interesting account, by Dr. Hans Meyer, of his repeated ascents of Kili ma-njaro in the fall of 1889. He, with a single European companion and a coast negro, spent sixteen days on a plateau at an altitude of 14,270 feet, but reached by a slope so gentle that one could drive a carriage up it. Here and for a thousand feet higher grew lichens and flowering plants, yellow and violet being the predominating colors. Upon these come to feed great numbers of elands from the northern plains. The birds were represented by stonechats and swallows, who feed upon beetles, wasps, and flies, as well as on a "small black spider which lives far away up in the volcanic cinders." The mountain itself is about 19,700 feet in height, being capped by a "coat of icy mail more than 6,000 feet in height, and about the same in breadth," and forming "a spectacle probably not to be met with elsewhere on the earth's surface in similar grandeur." The third paper is by the Rt. Rev. G. W. H. Knight Bruce, the Bishop of Bloemfontein, giving notes of a recent journey through Mashonaland to the Zambezi, in which he carefully refrains from treating the political question of its ownership or its "supposed mineral wealth."

Two parts of vol. ii. of the *National Geographic Magazine* have been put forth by the Society at Washington. In addition to the annual reports of officers, there are three papers of permanent value, viz., in No. 1, "On the Telegraphic Determinations of Longitude by the Bureau of Navigation," by Lieut. J. A. Norris, U. S. N.; and in No. 2, "The Rivers of Northern New Jersey," by Prof. Wm. Morris Davis, and a "Critical Review of Bering's First Expedition, 1725–30," with a translation of his original report upon it, by Dr. Wm. H. Dall. Prof. Davis's paper is capitally illustrated by his own hand; Dr. Dall's is accompanied by Bering's chart with the true coast-lines superimposed in red.

There come to our table at the same time a pamphlet entitled 'The New Era of Phonography: A Few Facts concerning the Gabelsberger Shorthand System,' published on the one-hundredth anniversary of the inventor's birth (New York: E. N. Miner, 70 Broadway), and a circular announcement that the venerable Isaac Pitman has opened an office at No. 3 East Fourteenth Street in this city for the sale of his shorthand publications. The admirers of the Bavarian stenographer declare his system superior to all others. Our readers must be left to inform themselves in this controversy.

From the account of the close of the first academic year of Clark University, which occurred last week, without public exercises of commencement, and from the annual register, which has just been published, it appears that during the year 28 lecturers have given 33 courses, and that the members of the University now represent 48 different colleges; that two journals are now published in connection with the University, the smaller printing about 600 pages a year; that the library now receives about 200 periodicals, and has more than 10,000 volumes on its shelves. The plans of the Chemical Laboratory (built throughout of brick, and finished in cherry and birch) are now published for the first time. They show a total of 68 rooms, while the main building contains 90. The foundations of another department building are laid. The policy of receiving advanced students only is strictly adhered to. Ten fellowships, yielding $600 a year, and ten yielding $400, with ten scholarships yielding $200, making in all thirty appointments, have been established by the founder. Among these positions a few vacancies still remain. It should be remembered that all these appointments cover only the group of five scientific departments so far established by the University, whose policy, just reaffirmed by the trustees, is to strengthen departments already established before proceeding to new ones. Moreover, "while ability in teaching shall be held of great importance, the leading consideration in all engagements, reappointments, and promotions shall be the quality and quantity of successful investigation."

—The eighth volume of Dr. Furness's Variorum edition of Shakspere, devoted to "As You Like It" (Lippincott), follows the same plan as its predecessors: the folio text, with variant readings and explanatory notes from all sources, makes the body of the work, and the appendix discusses the date and sources, reprints Lodge's 'Rosalynde' and the 'Tale of Gamelyn,' touches on the actors and costumes, and collects the more important literary criticism of the play. The editor expresses with frankness the great pleasure he takes in this drama, and especially in *Rosalind*, and the whole series of commentary is lighted up by occasional flashes of this enthusiasm. He regards it as a peculiarly English play, and remarks on the difficulty foreigners have in appreciating it, and he brings out with much satisfaction the different interpretations of *Jaques*. He inclines to the view that Shakspere did not write from Lodge's novel, but remodelled a play out of which, he thinks, survive in the text the Clown of the earlier scenes, whom he will not identify with *Touchstone*, and also some parts of the last scene and a few inconsistencies in minutiæ. The text, with its notes, does not offer anything that calls for examination at this time, except that the cautious and sound judgment of the editor ought always to be praised in those instances where he ventures an opinion upon the merits of the commentators' suggestions in disputed passages; and the literary criticism of the play is not of sufficient proportions to be itself reviewed at length. We observe that the preface contains no promise for the future, but we hope that this is not an unfavorable sign with regard to the continuance of the editor's invaluable work.

—A novelty in periodical literature has appeared in London under the name of *Subjects of the Day*, "a Quarterly Review of Current Topics," edited by James Samuelson, each number of which is to be entirely given up to a single topic, and to form a volume in itself. Number one, for May, consists of 176 octavo pages devoted to State Education for the People, and contains twelve articles besides a bibliography and an index. The articles vary in length from the editorial summary of eight pages to an essay of twenty-four pages by Sir William Wilson Hunter on Education in India. The second article in point of length is an interesting one of twenty-three pages on Education in the United States, by the Rev. E. F. M. Maccarthy, Head Master of King Edward's Grammar School, Birmingham, who also writes on Education in Canada and Australia, and who seems to have been more successful in gathering correct information than most of his countrymen who have written on the United States. He finds much to praise in our system, but points out that the head scholars of an American high school have had five or six years' less teaching in Latin and Greek than those of an English high school, and adds that "most of the classical work that would be shown up by the scholars of the first class of an American high school, aged seventeen or thereabouts, would only pass muster in an English public school for boys of fifteen." Another remark he makes is, that "Latin or Greek verse composition is unknown; the Professor of Classical Literature at John [*sic*] Hopkins University (Baltimore) told the writer that he thought he was the only man in America who could write Greek Iambics, and he was an Oxford man." Very justly he finds fault with our excessive slavery to text-books and with a deficiency of properly trained teachers.

—Mr. Maccarthy's picture is not wholly black:

"But there are two institutions which must

be excepted from most of the foregoing criticisms on American high schools—the Latin High School and the English High School, at Boston. That city is, as everybody is aware, the nursing mother of American national education. *Noblesse oblige*, and whatever Boston does in the matter of education is always worthy of its traditions and its enlightened educational faith. It has recently (1881) erected for the Boys' Latin and English High Schools, under one roof or series of roofs, what may be indeed called a school-palace, vying in the completeness of its equipment and architectural fitness with anything of which Vienna—that city of school-palaces—can boast. The late Bishop Fraser visited (in 1865) the English High School when it was in its old premises, and said of it even then, in his report to the Schools Inquiry Commission, that 'it ought to be put in a glass case and carried over to England,' as a specimen of what a school for the training of the English middle class for professional and business avocations should be. Would not his heart sink within him in despair at England ever rising to the same lofty conception of what is true wisdom in regard to the education of the middle classes, if he saw this school as it is now, in all the magnificent surroundings of its new home, with the most perfect class-room arrangements, with science lecture theatres, laboratories, and gymnasium, and with every newest device for securing the orderliness, health, and efficient instruction of its pupils?"

There is also a very lively article on the Education and Status of Women, by Mrs. Emily Crawford, who likewise has something to say about the United States; Sir Philip Magnus writes on Technical Instruction; there are separate articles on Education in England, in Scotland, in Ireland, on the Continent. One remarkable feature is, that all the writers disclose a general drift all over the world towards the American idea that all education should be offered by the State free of charge; and there seems to be a strong tendency in England to extend this principle to the higher education instead of limiting it to elementary schools. This is the more worthy of notice as being contrary to the conservative English theory.

—The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for June opens with an interesting account of the disputed territory to the north of Lake Nyassa, by the Rev. D. Kerr Cross, a Scotch missionary. A part of the region, apparently not yet reached by the slave-hunters, is of almost idyllic beauty. "Landing on the sandy beach, you enter a grove of banana trees and walk along a perfectly level plain, as in a palm section of a botanical garden. All weeds, grasses, garbage, and things unsightly are swept away by little boys who spend their morning sweeping, while, hidden away among the trees, are the circular houses of the natives. Each house is built of bamboo, with clay worked by the women into little rounded bricks. The roof is of thatch, which greatly overlaps in mushroom form, while the door is so large that a man can walk in upright. The door-posts are often painted with designs in red, yellow, and other colors, and altogether there is an air of comfort and plenty. . . . Nor is this character of cleanliness visible in their villages confined to the outside. All their cooking-pots and drinking-cups are kept scrupulously clean and sweet, and the insides of their houses free from dirt—a rare quality in the native African. The people themselves in every respect accord with the scene. They are all stalwart, muscular, and well-developed." One may travel for days "through valleys terraced with well-tilled gardens, thickly planted with banana groves and well-watered, but generally treeless." The ear is constantly filled with the tinkle of the cow-bell and the rude music of the herd-boys' reed flute. A few miles, comparatively, to the westward, across a mountain chain, the country wears a bleak and desolate aspect. The few villages are stockaded and surrounded by a ditch, and "are simply abominable from filth of every kind." To this "unnatural existence" the natives are driven by the raiders. Yet some of these harried tribes are industrious and skilful. In one region "iron abounds, and is smelted and extensively wrought into spears, hoes, axes, etc. Wild cotton grows plentifully and is woven into pretty patterns of cloth. Every village boasts of two or three looms." The northern limit of the journey of Mr. Cross was Lake Rukwa, which had been seen by but one explorer previously. He believes it to be about eighty or ninety miles in length, and to have no outlet.

—Following this paper is the first part of a very valuable list of the "best maps at present available for every part of the world," compiled by Mr. John G. Bartholomew. Only those for Central Europe are here given, the character of each map being designated as belonging to one of three classes, viz., those from "detailed topographical surveys," "detailed maps," and "general maps." There is also given the scale, number of sheets, date, and price. Accompanying the list is a folded map of the world, so colored as to show at a glance to what extent the earth has been mapped. From this it appears that "of the whole land-surface only one-seventh has been exactly surveyed." The portion thus trigonometrically surveyed includes nearly the whole of Europe (Turkey, Spain, parts of Russia and Scandinavia being excepted), India, a small strip on the Atlantic in this country, and a large block in the West, northern Algeria, Egypt, and Palestine, and the island of Java. In South America, besides a narrow strip of the coast, the Argentine Republic alone has "topographical maps, the result of general, but not detailed survey." In this category, it may be added, is to be found the greater part of the United States.

TWO WORKS ON RUSSIA.

The Story of Russia. [The Story of the Nations.] By W. R. Morfill, M. A. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons; London: T. Fisher Unwin. 1890.

Russia: Its People and Its Literature. By Emilia Pardo Bazán. Translated from the Spanish by Fanny Hale Gardiner. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1890.

MR. MORFILL'S book is one of the most valuable of the series to which it belongs. His success is in some respects remarkable. Here are a thousand years and one-sixth of the habitable earth brought within the limits of a story-book; and yet the result is not a dry outline of names and dates, but a living picture. The following paragraph from page 23 is an apt description of the author's method: "It is these very interesting stories which constitute the difference between the work attributed to Nestor and our own Anglo-Saxon Chronicle. The latter is rigidly historical, and lacks the fresh, charming sagas which are found in the old Slavonic books." Not only the sagas (*bylíny*), but whatever of historical fact his intimate knowledge of the subject has offered him as fit to vivify the picture, Mr. Morfill has skilfully employed.

A distinguishing merit of the book is its impartiality, in fulfilment of the promise in the preface:

"While I have not intentionally concealed the darker shades of the picture, I have endeavored to avoid drawing my sketch from an English standpoint only. Still less have I felt inclined to indulge in any of the claptrap abuse with which some Western authors season their books on Russia. All nations have been aggressive in their way, and therefore it is idle to talk overmuch about Russian aggressions; all nations have some blood-stained pages in their annals, and therefore it is something like hypocrisy to be struck with especial horror at Russia's misdeeds."

In speaking (p. 318) of the writings of Koloshikhin, who, in 1664, left his country for his country's good (as so many in later times have done), Mr. Morfill says: "His work abounds with graphic details, but, perhaps like all renegades, he is too severe upon his native country."

So much for the spirit in which the book is written. We have no space for any analysis. In externals there is ground for criticism. It is quite evident that the final proofs were not read by the author; and it is due to our readers that we should note here some of the more important corrections needed. On p. 3, for "Cheskna" read Sheksna, for "Verkhoianskoi" Verkhoianski, and for "Yablonoi" Yáblonni (or Yáblonovi)—but this is another name for the Stanovói range just mentioned, not another range. On p. 4, for "Irtysk" read Irtysh, for "Obi" Ob (as on p. 87), and for "Tanakai" Tarakai; p. 5, for "Duchinski" Dukhinski; on the same page we have: "the western governments Minsk, Pinsk, and others," but Pinsk is a city and district of the government Minsk; p. 25, for "in 855" in 957; p. 44, "Mindog" Mindovg; p. 50, "Toktamish" Tokhtamish; p. 72, "Osep [Osip] Napea"—Karamzin says "Iosif Nepea"; p. 75, "Sovin" Savin; pp. 94 and and 122, "Wisniowiecki" Wiszniowiecki; p. 109, "Ismaelov" Izmaĭlov; p. 120, "Zapovozhski" Zaporozhski; p. 132, "*rozriadnie* [*rozriadnia*] *knigi*," p. 153, "Sozha" Sozh; p. 169, "Kotishikhin" Kotoshikhin; p. 190, "Bironovtschina" Bironovstchina; p. 224, "Maeiejowice" Maciejowice; p. 313, "Skurlatovich" Skuratov (see p. 71)—Mallŭta-Skuratov's patronymic was Lukĭanovitch, not Skuratovitch; p. 314, "*aprakos*" *apraksos;* p. 320, "*Zertsalo Bogoslovii* [*Bogoslovia*]." On p. 312 the compound letter *zh* (French *j*) is divided by a hyphen.

The rapidity of his narration has sometimes destroyed the perspective of the author's picture, as on p. 105: "About the end of September, 1609, the Poles . . . invaded the country, defeated Shuiski at Klushino [this took place June 24 (O. S.), 1610] . . . and sent him as prisoner to Poland." And on p. 35 is this passage from Vladimir's 'Po-uchenie': "I have made eighty-three campaigns and many expeditions"; in which "campaigns" is too large a word (taken in its usual sense). According to Pogodin's notes on this 'Po-uchenie,' the number of campaigns proper was twenty-three. But here are Vladimir's words more literally: "Of my [military] excursions there were in all 83, and others of little importance I do not remember."

On page 176 Mr. Morfill says: "The brief reign of Catherine is distinguished only by two events which added any glory to Russia. The Academy of Sciences was founded in 1726 . . ." Most of the credit thus given to Catharine belongs to Peter, as is shown by the following extracts from the Academy's publications (the dates remaining in old style): "In June, 1718, Peter the Great resolved to found an academy." "1721, J. N. Delisle was invited by Peter to St. Petersburg [from Paris] to the future academy." "In the beginning of 1724 L. Blumentrost formed a plan, by order of Peter, for the Academy of Sciences." "January 12, 1724, Peter approved the plan. . . ." "November 6, 1724, an *ukaz* of Peter relating to the Academy. . . ." "January 28, 1725,

Peter died." "February 23, 1725, an *ukaz* of Catharine I. to Prince Kurakin upon inviting academicians from abroad." "August 15, 1725, the first audience of Catharine, [and] December, 1725, speeches at the first public meeting of the Academy." In the table on p. 374 Mr. Morfill writes: "1724, the Academy of Arts founded." On p. 246 the Princess Dashkoff is said to have been "appointed President of the Academy of Arts"; but it was the "Imperial Russian Academy" over which she was placed, not the "Imperial Academy of Sciences." (The two were united in 1841.)

One more subject demands notice before Mr. Morfill's book is dismissed. At the end of his preface he says: "An attempt has been made throughout the work to spell the names accurately and on a fixed plan, and to put an end, as far as possible, to the chaos which still prevails among us in these matters." It was with pleasant anticipations that we read this; but we must confess to some disappointment—not so much in the plan adopted as in its application. In passing, let us say a few words of the plan. We very much miss the Polish *y* commonly used, as Mr. Morfill says in his Russian Grammar, to represent a certain vowel sound. For the English *y* we would in all cases use *i*, as do the Italians and French. Mr. Morfill thinks (see his Russian Grammar) that the *y* we advocate is confusing; but it cannot be more so than *i*, which he uses for two quite distinct sounds. (The best phonetists class the sound in question with the *u*-, not the *i*- sounds.) It should be said that in this book Mr. Morfill has used for this sound in three or four cases *î*, and a few times (inadvertently) *y* (*e. g.*, Irtysh, p. 4). Again, the compound letter *shtch* (*sh-tch*) is written *stch* by Mr. Morfill; whereas the two elements are written (when separate) *sh* and *ch*. It is true that a loose, imperfect articulation of *shtch* is common, which may be expressed by *s-tch*; but we should not reproduce it in transliterating.

The imperfect application of Mr. Morfill's plan is illustrated below by one example of each kind (the correct form, as we view it, standing first). In "Matveïev" and "Rileyev," the originals of the italic letters are identical in name and sound; so also in "*Ye*katerina" (Iekaterina) and "*Ev*dokia," "Koltovska*ia*" and "Russka*ya*" and "*Ja*rensk," "Pisemsk*i*" and "Vasil*ii*," "Apra*k*sin" and "Alexandrovsk," "Irt*y*sh" and "Pel*i*m" and "Volî*n*ski," "*G*edímin" and "Tur*g*ueniev" and "*Gh*ilyaks," "Razin" and "Beresina." There may be spice in the variety of form given to the same name, as "Amur" and "Amour," "Bulba" and "Boulba," "Chavchavadze" and "Tchavtchavadze," "Gedímin" and "Guedímin," "Sakhalin" and "Saghalin."

One of the difficult questions of transliteration is this: Shall the name of a Russianized foreign family retain its original form? Shall we write *Hertsen* or *Herzen?* Mr. Morfill writes of Gen. "Diebitsch"—that was his father's name. But if the General's name had been written with its honorary suffix, would it have been Diebitsch-Sabalkanski, or, as seems necessary, Dibitch-Zabalkanski?

Not much space is left for the Spanish work, which really deserves extended notice. Its four books are devoted to "The Evolution of Russia," "Russian Nihilism and Its Literature," "Rise of the Russian Novel," and "Modern Russian Realism." The first is the least satisfactory. Doña Bazán disclaims all direct acquaintance with Russia and with its language, but professes to have "read everything written upon Russia in every language with which [she] is acquainted." (At the end of her first chapter she promises to give us at the end of the book a list of these works; but her translator has omitted it.) Doña Bazán's views are in the main just and enlightened; on ecclesiastical matters, however, she writes as a Spanish Catholic, and some of her dicta are simply astonishing. Passages of this kind that we had marked for quotation must be omitted, but room must be found for a few words of hers upon the emancipation of the serfs—an "event the greatest, perhaps, that the present century has known" (p. 94): "To my mind the best praise to the Russian nobility is for having offered less hindrance to the emancipation of the serfs than the North American democracy to the liberation of the slaves" (p. 103). Her comparison would have been more effective if she had added numbers and dates: twenty-three millions of serfs set free two years before the four millions of slaves. Concerning the Emancipator, as his countrymen style him, she asks: "Where is there a person of nobler desires and projects than Alexander II.?"

Whatever may be the shortcomings of Doña Bazán's treatment of Russian politics and history, they are more than atoned for when she has told us of Russian literature. In her own country she stands in the first rank of novelists, and here she brings into play all her critical and descriptive power. She was the pioneer of the new Spanish naturalism, and we know of nothing of its kind more eloquent than her chapters upon "Modern Russian Realism" and its comparison with modern French realism.

The translator will receive (at least tacitly) the thanks of every intelligent reader. However, it is a pity that she could not have found a shorter cut to Russian names and titles than through the Spanish and French. Some of the transformations are wonderful: *vodka* becomes "*wodka*"; Iaroslav becomes "Yaroslaus"; Shtchedrin is both "Chtchédrine" and "Tchedrine"; Iliá of Murom is "Ilias de Moron"; Araktchéïeff is "Arakschef"; 'Ruslan and Liudmila' becomes "Russia and Ludmilla"; 'The Story of the Expedition of Igor' becomes "The Song of the Host [in another place 'the Tribe'] of Igor"; and "Puchkine" could not be pronounced *Pushkin* in accordance with the phonetics of any language to the writer known. Why should Slav and all its derivatives be made "Sclav," etc.? On p. 75 the types have played a trick that may happen to any of us, where "effeminacy" is said to characterize "the employées of government."

THE UNIFIERS OF ITALY.

Italian Characters in the Epoch of Unification. By the Countess Evelyn Martinengo Cesaresco. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1890.

THERE are many interesting parallels between the recent condition of the United States and of Italy. Both countries within the past thirty years have come through a tremendous struggle, whereby in one case national union was preserved, and in the other case created. This patriotic conflict, whether in Italy or in the United States, demanded the fortitude and heroism not of a few conspicuous men only, but of multitudes; it required that the character of the whole people should be stirred and sublimed, to enable them to endure the long tests of courage and self-sacrifice. In both cases the people responded to the call of conscience, made the endeavor, fought the good fight, and conquered. So long as the object to be attained—national existence and liberty—was concrete, Italians and Americans were equally zealous, equally patriotic and admirable; but when war had been crowned with success, and peace came with the stern, unromantic duties of reuniting different sections, of regulating finance, of making wise laws, and of fostering prosperity, both nations fell below the high level to which enthusiasm for a great cause had lifted them. Both countries suffered an irreparable loss in the untimely death of the one man upon whom each could have relied to make peace not less glorious than war; our loss in Lincoln's assassination, Italy's in Cavour's almost tragic death, can never be overestimated.

With us, the conduct of the Government for more than twenty years fell into the hands of the party associated with the suppression of the Rebellion; the opposition was charged, however unjustly, with lack of patriotism; everywhere, both in the national and State Legislatures, soldiers were law-makers. And along with the financial disturbances which the war caused, there came inflation, speculation, and all sorts of wild and corrupt schemes—greenbackism, silverism, Crédit-Mobilierism. High taxes, levied of necessity in the thick of the contest, were retained, were even increased afterwards, for the enriching of a few at the expense of the many; until at the present time we seem to have reached a point where the Congressmen of the dominant party sit at the Capitol merely to pass laws for the benefit of special interests, and to keep themselves in power. We have come to the pass when patriotism is a by-word and reproach—a mere pretence for getting a pension. The degradation of the public conscience was never lower, if we gauge it by the character of men tolerated in high positions, and by the brutal frankness with which those men announce their partisan and nefarious purposes.

Italy has suffered likewise in her post-bellum period; it seems to be the law of the ebb-and-flow of national life that, after the high tide when great deeds are launched, the waters must recede, leaving bare slime, and ooze, and stagnant pools. In Italy, too, a "patriotic party" monopolized the Government offices, but with more reason, because the Opposition was composed only either of irreconcilable clericals and Bourbons, or of imprudent agitators. Indeed, groups rather than a party governed, and government by groups has never yet been satisfactory. Again, the Italians had had no experience in governing; from the condition of political serfs under a papal or an Austrian despot, they rose suddenly to be citizens of a constitutional State. So the legislators had themselves to teach, at the very time when they were called upon to settle the most difficult problems—how to restore an equilibrium in finance; how to spread education; how to fuse the various sections into a single, homogeneous nation; and, most difficult of all, how to deal with the papacy, an enemy more uscrupulous and subtle than any temporal enemy. It must be admitted that Italy has, on the whole, met her difficulties bravely, triumphing against great odds. She, too, has had to struggle against the incompetence or the bad judgment of military men in the Chamber and the Cabinet; above all, she has had to play the rôle of a first-class Power while having the resources of only a second-class Power. But she has not, so far as we are aware, been forced to blush, as honest Americans have been, at the general corruption of her public men. It is significant that a constitutional monarch like King Humbert, or his illustrious father, does not dare, like the American President, to offer the highest positions in his Cabinet to men of damaged reputations. Italy's standing army costs her less than our army of pensioners. Her taxes are high, but no Italian Secretary of Finance could hold office for a day should he propose to augment

them beyond the actual needs, or to take the burden off of such luxuries as tobacco and spirits, and add to that on the necessaries of life.

These parallels might be indefinitely multiplied, and they are most instructive, because they furnish material for that comparative study of history from which we draw our most accurate knowledge concerning the character and temperament of different races. Our own recent history and that of Italy prove that it is much easier for a nation to face and overcome the danger of war than to deal wisely with the abstract questions of finance and legislation—questions which the greed of interested parties on the one hand, and the ignorance of the public on the other, cloak and pervert. Another striking point of resemblance between these two countries is found in the immense mass of material—histories, documents, biographies, and reminiscences concerning the men and events of the national struggle—which have been showered from the press during the past four or five years. The great actors in our civil war and in the unification of Italy are almost all gone, and we collect and preserve whatever relates to them, as if conscious of the pettiness of the men who now stand in their places.

Of books concerning the men who made Italy free and united, that by Countess Martinengo Cesaresco is one of the most interesting we have seen. We take it that the author is an Englishwoman, married to an Italian nobleman who was a conspicuous worker in the Italian movement. She leaves to more formal biographers to tell the story of the leaders—Cavour, Victor Emanuel, Garibaldi, and Mazzini—although in the course of her sketches she gives us glimpses of these, too, and treats of the men who coöperated with these, and often were only less renowned because they worked in a smaller sphere. Her choice is judicious, and as it includes men of every province, she illustrates the different phases of the struggle and of the Italian character. As we read about Manin, we learn the conditions at Venice; the account of Ricasoli naturally introduces us to Tuscany, and that of the Poerios and Settembrini to Naples. There is hardly one of these sketches which has not the interest and charm of a romance; and there is added something better than romance—the sense that these strange vicissitudes and sufferings and this heroism were real; that only a little while ago, in a country roughly deemed civilized, brave men had to endure tortures, both of mind and body, and to overcome difficulties belonging to a barbaric age.

The station in life and the temperament of the men here portrayed differed widely; but we are struck by the fact that many of them sprang from the aristocracy, and that nearly all of them were men of superior intelligence. As Garibaldi was never tired of lamenting, the Italian plebs furnished few leaders to the patriotic cause. The desire for independence and the conviction that it was their unescapable duty to liberate their country, came first to the patrician and educated class. It is remarkable also how many of these were truly religious men, who devoutly believed the cardinal teachings of the Catholic Church, but were just as earnest in casting aside the superstitions and arrogant pretensions which the Papacy, for its mundane purposes, had long foisted upon it. Ricasoli, the Tuscan dictator, had the stern integrity and piety of a Covenanter; Ugo Bassi, the priest-patriot, had the enthusiasm, the unworldly idealism of a mystic; Manin, the glorious but unfortunate defender of Venice, was of that almost sombre religious cast which, in an earlier age, inspired St. Bernard. Settembrini, doomed by King Bomba to perpetual confinement in a loathsome prison, writes in his journal on the third anniversary of his captivity: "Oh, my God, Father of the unfortunate, consoler of those who suffer, oh save my soul from this filth, and if Thou hast written that I must here end my sorrowful life, oh! let that end come soon! Thou knowest grief does not frighten nor subdue me: I bear my cross; even on my knees I drag it after me; but I fear to become vile, I fear my soul growing perverted; even now I recognize it no more. How can I come before Thee thus?" From such spiritual deeps welled up that patriotism which, in the middle decades of this century, converted Italians into heroes and martyrs.

Scattered through Countess Cesaresco's book are many descriptions of the life and customs of the people, many incidents which usually pass unrecorded, and all help a foreigner to the better understanding of the condition amid which Italy was regenerated. Her style is easy, almost talkative, like that of one who recounts events which he has witnessed, or which he has heard about from those who took part in them; and while this method tends to diffuseness, it contributes to the variety and vivacity of the narrative. Sometimes, indeed, she is both concise and happy in her phrase, as when she says of Alessandro Poerio: "He was considered eccentric by the world, because, for one thing, his principles had none of the graceful curves of popular morality"; or of Ugo Bassi: "If he was not a child, he was a man of an age when the world was less old"; or when she describes Pius IX. as "the Jeremiah not of the downfall but of the resurrection of his country." In her sketches of Constance d'Azeglio, of Signora Poerio and Signora Cairoli we meet with types of the Italian women whose patriotism was no whit inferior to that of their husbands and sons who fought on the battle-field or languished in prisons. We regret that in so valuable a work as this no references are given to the authorities from which the information has been drawn; such an omission is inexcusable at this time, when our conscience in regard to historical writing can be satisfied only by the citation of the *pièces justificatives*. As is common in English books, the foreign names are sometimes misspelled, as Hapsburgh for Hapsburg, Gottingen for Göttingen, Piazzi for Piazza, and Hamburgh for Hamburg. On p. 92 Louis IX. should be Louis XII. In conclusion, we can recommend this book to Americans as the best accessible to those who do not read Italian. Not only will they find it interesting because of the charm of the careers depicted, but also because it furnishes means for comparing the character of the leaders of the Italian movement with our own leaders prior to and during the civil war.

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

William Charles Macready. By William Archer. [Eminent Actors Series.] Longmans, Green & Co.

Mademoiselle Clairon, d'après ses correspondances et les rapports de police du temps. Par Edmond de Goncourt. [Les Actrices du XVIIIe Siècle.] Paris: Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern.

Dramatic Opinions. By Mrs. Kendal. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Au bord de la Scène. Par Frédéric Febvre. Paris: Ollendorff; New York: Christern.

It is not often that a conscientious critic of literature has occasion to compare two pieces of literary work, one done in France and the other in England, to the advantage of the book of British authorship; but we doubt if any one capable of judging cautiously would hesitate to declare that, of the two theatrical biographies mentioned above, Mr. Archer's is very much better than M. de Goncourt's. Both books have been written out of the fulness of knowledge, and both writers are absolute masters of the subject, having spared no pains to get at the exact facts. Both writers impress the reader as knowing all that there is to be known about the careers of their heroes from the cradle to the grave. But Mr. Archer's biography is dignified and scholarly, and M. de Goncourt's is affected and perverse. A comparison of the simple and direct construction of the Life of Macready with the nerveless and fragmentary manner of the Life of Clairon is not at all to the credit of the French author.

Mr. Archer's 'Macready' is one of the best theatrical biographies in existence. It is worthy to be set beside Prof. Lounsbury's memoir of James Fenimore Cooper—the model of the brief biography at its best. The material is ample: there is the interesting autobiographic fragment edited by the late Sir Frederick Pollock, with its accompanying diary; Lady Pollock's more personal 'Macready As I Knew Him'; the acute paper of George Henry Lewes; and really no end of criticisms and recollections scattered here and there in books and magazines and newspapers. All these Mr. Archer has mastered, and he has availed himself of them in due measure; no biographer has ever been more conscientious in his preliminary preparation. In the writing of the book, however, there is no parade of this investigation, and no vexatious bickering with preceding critics. Mr. Archer gives us the full story of Macready's life, setting forth the growth of his powers as an actor, describing his honorable ventures as a manager, and verifying every detail and every date. Not only is there the full list of parts played, which is an indispensable adjunct of every histrionic biography—for it is only by knowing what characters an actor assumed that we can judge his powers—but this list is divided chronologically, one instalment being given at the end of each chapter, so that we may trace the steady increase of the actor's reputation. More than this, Mr. Archer has searched the advertisements in the daily papers, and he has compared the play-bills preserved in the British Museum, and is thus enabled to add to these lists of parts the exact number of times each part was acted by Macready. So far as we know, this is a labor as yet unattempted for any other tragedian or comedian. It is characteristic of Mr. Archer's unhesitating thoroughness.

For the rest, the book is entertaining; the character of Macready is sympathetically depicted; we meet with an abundance of enlivening and pertinent anecdote, together with frequent quotation of contemporary criticism; nor is there any attempt to conceal Macready's obvious defects as a man or his deficiencies as an actor. The account of the Astor Place riot is impartial and final, and is, moreover, the first founded on a complete investigation of all the facts. From Mr. Archer's pages it is evident that the late John Forster was as dangerous a friend to Macready as he was to Dickens.

The chief authority for Clairon's life has hitherto been her long autobiography, which M. de Goncourt shows to be as incomplete and insincere as autobiographies are wont to be. He has supplemented and corrected her own

story by the information derived from those of her letters which have been preserved and from the police reports of her time. The police spies took a very different view of "Frétillon" from that which Clairon gave of herself; and M. de Goncourt, with his passion for documents, believes rather the spies than the lady herself. His biography is much what might be expected from the author of 'La Faustin': it is hard, emphatically unsympathetic in its tone, brutal in its frankness and lacking in imaginative insight, while not free from purely fanciful suppositions.

Nowhere does it contain a portrait of Clairon. There are plenty of little niggling touches, but there is no full-length picture, such as the reader has a right to demand from a biographer. Not only is there no summing up, but the little touches leave vague and almost contradictory impressions. M. de Goncourt's style is more offensive than ever and less effective, and his manner is even more offensive than his style. His tone towards Clairon is condescending where it is not contemptuous. His attitude indicates apparent delight whenever he succeeds in proving that his heroine was no better than she should be and much worse than she said she was. A good biography must needs be a labor of love; M. de Goncourt's is a labor of hate, and therefore it is not good.

Mrs. Kendal's little book of 'Dramatic Opinions' seems to have been dictated to a stenographer, like the late Lester Wallack's 'Memories,' and, like that empty volume, it is scrappy and conceited. A reported interview revised by the interviewee may have its place in a periodical, but it is quite unworthy of the dignity of a book by itself. "Autobiography is what biography ought to be," said Longfellow, and Mrs. Kendal's autobiography would be interesting if it were faithfully and carefully prepared; but the stray bits of her biography here set down are but little more than mere gossip. Mrs. Kendal is an estimable woman and an accomplished artist, but she takes herself a little too seriously. She errs in saying (page 44) that Mme. Favart appeared in "Les Danicheff," in the part really played by Mme. Pasca. So she refers (page 45) to the long monologue in "Don César de Bazan," where she obviously intends the long monologue of *Don César de Bazan* (in the fourth act of "Ruy Blas"). The little book is pleasant and easy reading, and not without charm.

The volume of theatrical sketches with the punning title of 'Au Bord de la Scène' is introduced by a prefatory letter by M. Jules Claretie, now the manager of the Comédie-Française, of which noble company of comedians the author, M. Frédéric Febvre, has been a prominent member for now nearly a quarter of a century. These sketches have more substance than Mrs. Kendal's and more variety. Two or three are short stories; as many are papers of reminiscence; as many more, essays on special topics. Perhaps the best is "Chez Thalie: étude à propos de la mise en scène"—a sketch of baffled art and thwarted ambition; and the most valuable is an essay on "Le Costume au Théâtre." Of M. Febvre's volume we can say, as we said of Mrs. Kendal's, that it is pleasant reading, and we can say it more heartily.

MISS WILLARD.

Glimpses of Fifty Years; the Autobiography of an American Woman. By Frances E. Willard. Woman's Temperance Publication Association. Pp. 704.

So many people have been moved by Miss Willard's oratory, and so many people have admired and loved her on account of her whole-souled devotion to various unpopular reforms, that a Life written by her own hand, even though it is exceedingly voluminous, will doubtless be widely and quickly read. This autobiography is very far from being put together with any skill or with any feeling for literary effect. There are repetitions without number, the narrative wanders backward and forward with very little regard for order, and the style is "undress" to the last degree. The book was written and revised and the proofs corrected in three months, and the original twelve hundred pages had to be cut down to seven hundred. The consequence is that it can only be read for the intrinsic interest of the story, and not for any æsthetic pleasures to be got by the way.

But the intrinsic interest of the story is very great. There are so few women who are not content with a very monotonous existence, and a very narrow field of activity, that when a marked exception presents itself, one is very curious to know how it has come about. Miss Willard spent most of her childhood on a farm in Wisconsin, and she had the rare good fortune to have a mother who knew how to respect her children's idiosyncrasies, and who did not think that every human being should be cast in a common mould. There was another daughter, a very lovely girl—the subject of 'Nineteen Beautiful Years'—whose tastes were more after the ordinary feminine pattern, but Frances led throughout her youth the life of an active boy. Instead of being forced into housework and sewing, which she hated, she took part in all her brother's sports, and thus she laid the foundation for that inexhaustible store of energy that has stood her in good stead in later life. When at last her mother judged it necessary to make her do up her hair and put on a long dress, she felt such aversion to these restraints that she formed a plan for running away. Her discontent was aggravated by the fact that at the same time her brother, who had reached the age of twenty-one, dressed up in his best Sunday clothes one day and drove away, in the big wagon, with their father and the hired men, to vote for John C. Frémont:

"My sister and I stood at the window and looked out after them. . . . I said: 'Wouldn't you like to vote as well as Oliver? Don't you and I love the country just as well as he, and doesn't the country need our ballots?'"

The sister admitted this, but begged her not to speak in that way, for fear of being called strong minded. The plan of running away was not carried out, and it was soon afterwards confessed to the mother, who said: "You must go to school, my child. Your mind is active; you are fond of books and thoughts as well as of outdoors; we must provide them for you, to make up for your girlish good times." And so, without any scolding, this wise mother turned her daughter's superabundant energies into fresh channels. At the same time Frances found herself ready, to a certain extent, to assert her own independence. On the evening of the day when she was eighteen years old she took her seat at the table and began to read Scott's 'Ivanhoe':

"Father was opposed to story-books, and on coming in, he scanned this book while his brow grew cloudy. 'I thought I told you not to read novels, Frances,' he said. 'So you did, father, . . . but you forget what day it is.' 'What day, indeed! I should like to know if the day has anything to do with the deed!' 'Indeed it has—I am eighteen—I am of age—I am now to do what I think right; and to read this fine historical story is, in my opinion, a right thing for me to do.' My father could hardly believe his ears. At first he was inclined to take the book away, but that would do harm, he thought, instead of good, so he concluded to see this action from the funny side, and laughed heartily over the situation, Oliver doing the same, and both saying in one breath, 'A chip of the old block!'"

We have not space to follow Miss Willard through her later changes of circumstance. She spent several years in travel in Europe and in Egypt, and the utter emptiness and absolute slavery of the Italian women's lives did more than anything else to induce her to devote herself to the perfect freedom of women as one of the most urgent reforms of the day.

"'You say, signorina, that the women are so crazy as to set up for doctors in your country? It is a folly and a crime. I wonder that the priests don't interfere. Whatever will become of the buttons and the general housework?' Thus spoke an elderly Italian dame, the thinning ranks of whose own buttons I was even then contemplating with a somewhat startled glance."

She met one woman only who had been doing a little thinking for herself. This one said:

"Women are nothing in Italy, you know. Think of it! My brother is eighteen and I am twenty-nine; but on my father's death this boy became my guardian, and I take from his hand whatever he chooses to give me for my support. For him there is independence, for him there is brave work to do; for me there is—to twirl my thumbs and wait to see if the next life can possibly atone for this."

Miss Willard's devotion to her convictions, at any cost even of immediate influence, appears on more than one occasion. She gave up a professorship of twenty-four hundred dollars a year in the Northwestern University on account of a difference of opinion as to the best method of government for the women students, at a time when such professorships for women were almost unique, if they are not so now. Later, as President of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union, she carried her constituency over to the Prohibition party—a very shocking thing to do in the mind of many simple-minded Westerners, in whose eyes the Republican party is still the party of religion and of high ideals, is still the party from which self-sacrificing reforms may be looked for, and the party to injure which is still regarded as a sacrilege and a crime.

Miss Willard has delighted countless audiences in all the large Southern as well as the Northern cities, but there are still to be found people who look without sympathy upon her mode of life. When the Presbyterian General Assembly met at Madison, Wisconsin, some time ago, Dr. John Hall, among others of its members, accepted an invitation of the Temperance Union to attend a meeting, at which Miss Willard spoke. At the close of the meeting he asked to have an interview with her the next day. The interview took place, and lasted for more than an hour, and Dr. Hall said in substance:

"That he had been convinced I had a mission as a public speaker; that he wished to tell me this, and to beg me to confine my speeches wholly to the members of my own sex. He said the Bible plainly taught this, and he believed it to be his duty kindly to urge this truth upon my attention."

Miss Willard does not say that the incident reminded her of the Italian woman's desire that the priests in this country should arouse themselves to their duty towards too ardent women, but the reader cannot help calling it to mind.

There is an admirable portrait—the portrait of a very refined face, full of sweetness and strength.

History of the Seventh Regiment of New York, 1806–1889. By Col. Emmons Clark. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1890. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. 498, 543. With many illustrations.

Boston, Newport, Philadelphia, and Savannah have military organizations of greater age, but New York excels all through the size, vigor, and celebrity of its Seventh Regiment. The First City Troop (Philadelphia), with its Revolutionary record, alone leads it in campaigns, but it in turn is surpassed by the greater numerical weight and the consequent effective force of this famous infantry.

The history of the Seventh runs side by side with that of New York for the last eighty years, and it has excursions and episodes that are at one with important passages in the nation's course. Military men generally consider the enrolled militia to be chiefly valuable as so much very raw material; but those same judges, while looking upon some of the uniformed National Guard as an uncertain quantity, give to certain States and to particular regiments a very high place. It is the function of these citizen soldiers to foster military feeling, generally under adverse surroundings, and to hold at the command of the State an armed body for the enforcement of the laws and the suppression of tumults that the civil officers fail to quell. They are also nurseries for officers who may organize active forces. Derision of State troops is usually confined to those who are their daily associates as civilians, and who either fail to appreciate the public spirit that leads them to expend time, the equivalent of money, and money itself, or to those who see their necessary weakness in the field, and forget the sacrifices by which they cultivate the military art and transform it from theory into practice. We certainly speak within bounds in saying that the regular officers are those who look most leniently upon the foibles of the uniformed militia, and most sincerely admire the men who give time, and study, and money to their self-assumed duties. Doubtless formerly much that the militia did was farcical, but of late years the brigades of instructed men that can be concentrated without delay at any reasonable point are the best evidence of this latent power. One of the lessons of Gen. Grant's funeral was that the seaboard States at least had thousands of trained armed men ready to suppress anarchy or municipal violence. The dangerous classes saw in those columns that their millennium of riot was still far enough away. The concentration of the State militia in this city at the Washington centennial was a similar object-lesson taught yet more plainly.

By general admission the Seventh New York has always led, and, however closely zealous rivals may follow, it still furnishes the highest type of rank and file and the best illustration of instruction and discipline. The city has good reason to honor the regiment that contains so many of her best sons, who have loyally responded to every call of duty. Col. Clark, himself one of the most conspicuous examples of the evolution of the citizen soldier, who wore the Seventh's gray for thirty years, has crowned his military career by this comprehensive history of the regiment, and has laid New York under new obligations by the fulness with which he has told its story. But no printed page can show the care or the labor that he and his comrades have expended that the organization may stand where it does to-day.

The first four companies were organized in 1806 as artillery, and in fact, for more than forty years, the regiment was technically of that arm, although always carrying muskets. At the beginning the battalion was part of the Third Artillery, in 1812 it was known as the Eleventh, in 1824, increased to six companies with the distinctive title of National Guards, it became first a part of the Second and afterwards an independent battalion, and in 1826, having grown to eight companies, it was recognized as the Twenty-seventh Artillery. It remained the Twenty-seventh Artillery, with its special title of "National Guard," until 1847, when it was transformed into the Seventh New York State Militia as infantry, and in 1862 lost its descriptive name of National Guard, which then was extended to the militia throughout the State. In 1838 it acquired a troop of cavalry that became the Ninth Company ("I"), and in 1849 an engineer corps was organized that became the Tenth Company ("K"), both in 1860, and soon afterwards these were armed and drilled as the others.

We could not give space for these details were not the Seventh more than a mere city regiment. It is of New York, but it belongs to the country. Originating in patriotic resistance to England's alleged right of search, in 1807, the four companies promptly volunteered under President Jefferson's call for 100,000 men. In 1812 the regiment again volunteered, and for three months was on active duty in the harbor forts. Naturally the Mexican War made no draft upon it, but in 1861 the action of the Seventh was an important physical as well as moral element in the set of the Union tide. Those days are now so long past that men not yet forty-five must appeal to such records thoroughly to understand what then was done; and the patriotic story cannot too often be told. Its response to Sumter led New York, and it went to the front again in 1862 and 1863.

The Seventh's usefulness as a regiment in the field is, however, far surpassed by the service it renders as a perpetual school of devotion to the public interest, in the cultivation of military knowledge, and on occasion in the fearless discharge of disagreeable and dangerous duties in preserving the peace. Its riot service runs back to 1834, and has always been efficient, and in its larger sphere McDowell was quite justified by the event when, on its muster-in in 1861, he characterized it as a regiment of officers. The Seventh contributed more than 600 commissioned officers, whose names are here given, to the army and navy during the Rebellion.

Admirable in drill and *esprit*, with an influential and wealthy constituency behind it, this regiment may fairly be taken as a model to be followed. But, critically examined, it is after all astonishing how far even so excellent a body as this differs from a regiment whose whole, not exceptional, duty is war. In omitting the rules therefor, Col. Clark presupposes a greater knowledge than the ordinary reader possesses as to how enlistments and discharges are effected and discipline is preserved in the National Guard. Recruits seem to be elected into companies, which thus partake of the nature of clubs, and we sometimes find such associations melting away as if at their own will. In the Seventh there appears to have been no physical examination of new members prior to 1886, and it was not until 1866 that the introduction of muster-rolls terminated the practice of exempt members swelling the inspection parades. What has been applied in sarcasm elsewhere seems true here—"It is to be managed, not commanded." Moral suasion is an important element in its administration, but it is only fair to add that this regiment has never lacked that higher discipline that has always made it prompt to meet and steady to oppose danger.

The author has added, under the name of maxims, a number of principles as to the place of the National Guard and for its development, to only one of which are we inclined to take exception. That is, that for war with a foreign nation, which is "almost impossible, there would be time for preparation." That is a delusion. There may be foreign war any year, and there will be no time for preparation. Those legislators and others who look to the National Guard for prolonged active service should take to heart that other opinion of this expert authority when, with more reason, he limits the Guard's efficiency to "the defence of law and order and the protection of life and property" from local violence. In precision in the manual of arms, in steadiness on parade marches and ceremonies, in *esprit*, and in the intelligence and social standing of its rank and file, the Seventh doubtless is unsurpassed by any regiment on the continent. But the immaturity of many of its men, its dependence upon caterers, its necessary unfamiliarity with the ways and means of bivouac, and its comparative helplessness if deprived of the resources of its regimental treasury, would be fatal to arduous field work. Its proper function, as Colonel Clark evidently appreciates, is the suppression of city mobs, and the moral effect of its existence for just such a purpose is yearly worth more to the city than all the public funds that have been allowed it. Its ranks are now overflowing, and we can only hope that the general Government will soon see its way clear to adapt its own organization and drill to three battalion regiments, and abandon the obsolete ten-company formation, that the militia may follow.

These volumes are so full as to be of interest to every one who has associations with the regiment, and the account is a particularly acceptable contribution to the history of the city. The general style is modest and clear, although if Col. Clark had not so often protested that one officer after another was "a thorough gentleman," the doubt necessarily implied would not so often arise. An introductory chapter upon the militia from the earliest Dutch times increases the value of the work. Another hand has added a well-written sketch of its author, who deserves much honor at the hands of the State. The appendix contains copious registers and rolls of the deserving, and the work is well indexed. No printer's name appears, but the book has issued from a press of the first order. The only typographical error we have observed is Bromford for Bomford (i., p. 71).

La Poésie Castillane Contemporaine (Espagne et Amérique). Par Boris de Tannenberg. Paris: Libraire Académique Didier.

The author of this book, as we learn from *España Moderna*, is a Russian who has made his home in France for many years, and who has of late been giving much time to the study of contemporary Spanish literature. His intellectual competence for the task is vouched for by the highest critical authority of Spain, and, indeed, is amply evidenced in this volume which gives the first-fruits of his studies. With M. Leo Quesnel (said to be a woman), whose articles in the *Nouvelle Revue* have conveyed much of the modern literary movement in Spain, the writer proposes to unite himself in the work of making known a literature which "is almost completely unheard of in France." He gives a pretty wide extension to

his adjective "contemporary," starting off with Quintana, who died thirty years ago, and including both Espronceda and the Duke de Rivas; but this is doubtless in the aim to give a certain poetical completeness to his study, since the names mentioned stand for eminence in branches of poetry in which no later rivals of their glory have arisen. Becquer also is included, though his death in 1870 was such a cutting off in the early flush of promise that he seems rightfully to belong to the present generation. Of the living, M. de Tannenberg names Zorrilla, Campoamor, Nuñez de Arce, Palacio, Valera, Pelayo, and (in a short appendix) Tassara, Aguilera, Selgas, and Campillo.

Over against these poets of Spain are placed the names of six Spanish-American cultivators of the muse—Olmedo, Andres Bello (undoubtedly the most distinguished writer yet produced in South America), Gutiérrez González, Batres, Heredia, and Andrade, representing respectively the countries of Ecuador, Chili, Colombia, Guatemala, Cuba, and the Argentine Republic. All of these writers are dead, some of them years ago, so that at least something like a definitive judgment may now be passed upon their works. Here again the author's choice has been guided by his sense of proportion, and the names are distributed in a poetical classification. Most just seem to us his observations on the rather surprising deficiencies of the Spanish-American poets in their nature-poetry:

"If the contemporary poets of America have been able to find an original note, it would seem that it ought to be in their descriptive poetry. Yet I must say that in general their descriptions are tiresome and monotonous; they do not seem to draw a single idea directly from the nature which is before their eyes; they are brilliant, if you will, with their sonorous epithets and lyric outbursts, but they sin in vagueness and generalities. Will it be believed that what they lack above all is local color? The picturesque finds little variety in them; certain names of exotic trees, always the same, several kinds of birds, and, finally, as a supreme poetic resort, the cordillera of the Andes, and the condor. Oh, the condor and the cordillera, how much they have been abused!"

All the more suggestive, in the light of this general remark, is M. de Tannenberg's praise of the pastoral poetry of González, whose poem on "The Culture of Corn in the Province of Antioquía" ought, he says, "without the slightest hesitation, to be set down as one of the masterpieces of Spanish poetry in this century." Very gratifying, at all events, is the advice which we find González's editor, Rafael Pombo, giving to "our gifted young men":

"Behold, I would say to them, what should serve you as a model for the production of original works. Flee, as from the worst enemy of your poetical fame, from the Byronic poetry which, in America, with our faith and our simple manners, our empires of uncultivated lands, our democratic societies, will always sound false. Have eyes to see what we see here, as our lamented González saw it; pray God to teach you how, like him, to transmute into the music of the soul the daily prose that surrounds us—and it seems to me that you will be on the best road to secure lasting renown, in Colombia or anywhere."

Without entering into any detailed account of the author's estimates of contemporary Spanish poets, we may say that he seems to us to have noted their chief characteristics with great accuracy and intelligence; certainly he is in accord with the best contemporary criticism in Spain itself. He has displayed rare good sense in steering his course among what he justly describes as "the throng of minor poets who crowd the Spanish Parnassus." It has been truly said that it is fatally easy to write Spanish verse, and that a fatally large number of people in Spain have leisure to devote to that pursuit. Those who take M. de Tannenberg for a guide may be sure, however, that they will be introduced only to poets of the first rank—unless fair warning to the contrary is distinctly given.

Annals of Scottish Printing, from the introduction of the art in 1507 to the beginning of the seventeenth century. By Robert Dickson, L.R.C.S.E., and John Philip Edmond. Macmillan & Co. 1890. 4to, pp. xv, 530.

WITH much curious information concerning early printing in Scotland, this beautiful book furnishes, in its documents, pertinent illustrations of one of the good things that printing has done in its reformation of spelling. How much this reform was needed may be gathered from the words of the patent of King James IV., dated 1507, in which he licenses the first printers of that country, Walter Chepman and Andro Myllar, "burgessis of our burgh of Edinburgh":

"James &c. to al and sindrij our officiaris liegis and subdittis quham it efferis, quhais knawlage thir our lettres salcum greting . . . to furnis and bring hame ane prent with al stuff belangand thereto and expert men to use the samyne, for imprenting . . . of the bukis of our Lawis, actis of parliament, croniclis, mess bukis, and portuus . . . with legendis of Scottis sanctis."

The prime mover in the matter seems to have been Elphinstone, Bishop of Aberdeen, who was seeking to give to Scottish people a breviary of his own, and to exclude the liturgical books of England. In pursuance of this plan, the print-letters and the expert men to use the same came not from England, but from France. Some time was spent in experimental work. The first productions of the printers were eleven petty pamphlets, containing from three to twenty-three leaves, of romance stories like "Golagros and Gawane," the "Gest of Robyn Hode"—all in French types, but unmistakably Scotch in their typographic uncouthness.

The 'Breviarum Aberdonense,' for which the art was introduced, did not appear until 1509, or 1510 by modern reckoning. It was a creditable bit of work—two thick cap-octavo volumes of 1,554 pages, in small black letter, with engraved initials and profusely rubricated. The printing was unequal—some pages beautifully sharp and clear, others most disagreeably blurred. Before the book was published, the King prohibited the entry or sale, under penalty of confiscation, of all liturgical books "of Salusberry." This seems to have been the first attempt in Great Britain to enforce a law of copyright, or rather a literary monopoly. The Breviary was not a successful venture, either as a book of sale or as a book of devotion. Chepman abandoned printing soon after its publication, and Myllar's subsequent work was insignificant. Scotch book-buyers did not want, and would not buy, any liturgical works of the Roman Catholic Church, whether stamped of Salisbury or of Aberdeen.

The record of books and printers before 1560 is scant. Thomas Davidson published about 1542 one notable book, 'The Hystory and Croniklis of Scotland,' which was in all points a good piece of typography. John Scot printed in 1552 the catechism of Archbishop Hamilton, and at later dates other books in the interest of the Roman Catholic Church, and occasionally one for the Protestants; but the number of religious books printed before 1560 is surprisingly small, considering the ferment of the people on questions of religion. The Catholic party controlled the Government, and printers feared its power. The Scotch Parliament of 1551-'2 had "devisit, statue and ordanit . . . that na Prentar presume attempt or tak upone hand to prent ony bukis, ballatis, sangis, blasphemationnis, rymes or Tragedeis, outhir in latin or Inglis toung in ony tymes to cum, unto the tyme the samin be sene vewit and examinet be sum wyse and discreit personis depute thairto." This censorship did not last long. The flood-tide of the Reformation was coming in with resistless force. In 1561 Scot printed 'The Confessionn of faith Profesit And Belevit Be the Protestantes vvithin the Realme of Scotland. Published be thaim in Parliament. And be the Estaits thereof.' After this ratification of Protestantism there was no lack of Protestant pamphlets. Indeed, the printers made little else.

The quality of early Scotch printing is distinctly inferior to that of contemporaneous work on the Continent. The facsimiles shown, which seem to be very careful copies of the originals, can be deciphered with difficulty. Worse printing was never done by Arnold ter Hoorne of Cologne, who has had for years, almost undisputed, this unenviable distinction. Scotch authors and booksellers who could do so had their books printed in France (for the prejudice against England was still strong), much to the disgust of the Scotch printers. John Scot makes this complaint against a rival edition of Sir David Lyndsay's 'Monarchy, which had been printed in France:

"Gentyll redaris, I wyll aduertets yow that thare is of thir Bukis, Imprentit in France. The quhilkis ar verray fals. Ant wantes the tane half, and all wrang spelit, and left out heir ane lyne, and thar twa wordis. To Conclude they ar all fals and wantis mekle that this buke hes as may be sene, quha lyste tyll luke thame baith over, they sall fynd my sayingis verray trew and wors no I do say preuve and se, than ye wyll geue me credence. they ar nocht worthe ane plake."

The practice of good printing in Scotland began with Thomas Vautrollier, a learned Protestant Frenchman who, after a sojourn and practice in London, began to print at Edinburgh in 1585. His books compare favorably with the best works of Continental printers. Yet he had little influence on his successors. Thrifty Scotsmen seem to have been entirely content with the rude work of Scotch presses for more than a hundred years after Vautrollier's death. Then a change came. Beginning with the Ruddimans, father and son, and followed by the brothers Foulis, there has been ever since an uninterrupted succession of able printers, of whom Clarke, Blackie, and Blackwood are fair present examples of the men who have made Scotch books irreproachable specimens of typography. The contrast between the facsimiles in these Annals and the work of Scotch printers of this day is an object-lesson worthy of study.

The first twenty chapters are written by Dr. Dickson; the concluding eighteen by Mr. Edmond. Mr. William Blades contributes a careful review and collation of one of the early books. It is a grief to read of his recent death, and to think that we shall have nothing more from the pen of this exact and acute bibliographer.

The Criminal. By Havelock Ellis. [Contemporary Science Series.] Scribner & Welford. 1890.

WHAT is confidently spoken of in this book as the science of criminal anthropology does not seem to admit of very exact definition. It is not easy to describe criminals otherwise than as persons convicted of breaking penal laws,

but from a moral and even from a social point of view this description is not satisfactory. The law presumes that all men know the penal code, and that all men are responsible beings. The latter presumption may be overthrown, and with it the former, and the law has never seen its way clearly to the proper disposition of irresponsible offenders. It cannot very well recognize partial responsibility, yet every degree of responsibility exists. Deeds of violence are often committed under the influence of passion so uncontrollable as to render the agent temporarily mad, but the law cannot admit that this *brevis furor* is insanity. It cannot undertake to measure moral turpitude, or even to punish it. To seduce and desert a simple girl is about as atrocious an act as can be imagined, while for a girl so deserted to steal a loaf of bread that will never be missed to save her child from starving, is not easily proved to be even an immorality; yet the latter act is punished by the law and the former is not.

Men quite as bad as any convict never get arrested, and seem to be peculiarly successful in finding their way to positions of honor. The kings and emperors of ancient and mediæval days would perhaps not average much higher in morality than the inmates of a modern jail, and some of the representatives chosen by our own good people are not eminent in virtue. Offenders against the majesty of government are base traitors or noble patriots, according to circumstances. Some kind souls thought it wicked to punish the Anarchists for slaughtering people in Chicago. Emerson said that he had never read of a crime that he might not have committed himself, and most well-behaved persons will admit that some of their virtue is due to immunity from temptation. Crime is only the indulgence of appetite, and people with money can generally procure sufficient indulgence without encountering the law. In the sphere of morals not only acts but also thoughts must be regarded, and the New Testament definition of adultery is fearfully broad. There is some unexhausted philosophy in the celebrated exclamation over the felon led to the gallows: "But for the grace of God, there goes John Bunyan!"

It is obvious from these considerations that criminals, in the sense of convicts, do not constitute a physiological class, and that in the sense of moral offenders they constitute a class as broad as humanity. The author of this book seems to be entirely unqualified to deal with the difficulties of constructing a science under these circumstances. The statistics that he has collected have a certain value so far as they relate to offenders that are distinctly defective in their physical, mental, and moral endowment, but this value is very slight. The figures may very well be submitted to specialists—who have not received them with much favor—but they are altogether unsuitable for presentation to the public under the name of science. Mr. Ellis makes some judicious observations, but is rather prone to utterances that must arouse in some of the physiologists whom he quotes the desire to examine the convolutions of his brain. Speaking of the classification of insectivorous plants as criminals, he soberly declares, "I doubt whether by any tenable definition of the criminal such a classification can be upheld." Criminality, he charitably observes, "cannot be attributed indiscriminately even to the lowest of races." His looseness of thought is manifest in the loose construction of such a sentence as this: "This act took from the courts the power of definitely fixing the period of confinement in prisons until, in the opinion of the managers of the Reformatory, they may be let out on parole for a probationary period of six months." Whether the courts or the managers are to be paroled, we do not undertake to decide.

Mr. Ellis complains that in England "no book, scarcely a solitary magazine article dealing with this matter," has appeared, and states that he was compelled to undertake this task because he found no one in England who was competent. If he had discovered the writings of an Englishman well known in this country, the late Barwick Baker, he would have learned more wisdom than is to be derived from the literature out of which he has made this book. His ignorance does not excuse his incompetence. The most valuable part of his work consists of an account of the methods in use at the Elmira Reformatory in New York; and the citizen of that State, who has so many things of which to be ashamed, may reflect with satisfaction that it possesses one institution which is not surpassed in the civilized world.

Two Summers in Greenland: An Artist's Adventures among Ice and Islands, in Fjords and Mountains. By A. Riis Carstensen. London: Chapman & Hall. 1890. 8vo, xxxii, 185 pp. Illustrated.

THIS book comprises a series of full-page reproductions of the artist's sketches, with many smaller illustrations, to which the narrative serves chiefly as a succession of connecting links. The pictures vary in merit as well as in their suitability for "process" work, but, as a whole, the collection forms an interesting album of characteristic Greenland views, inhabitants, and animals. Most books about this region are written from the standpoint of the explorer, the anthropologist, or the missionary. This one has a certain freshness in being the work of one in no sense scientific, but alive to the picturesque element of Greenlandic scenery, and who regards the social conditions there from the ordinary level of good people of the middle class in northern Europe.

The author succeeds very well in conveying a clear idea of Greenland life, and incidentally points out, with much justice, the unfortunate effect of the policy which, with the best intentions, has guided the intercourse of missionaries and officials with the Greenlanders, almost from the beginning. While the influence of their missionaries for nearly two centuries has indirectly tended to undermine the individual independence and personal energy which were the chief stay of the old social order among the Greenlanders, and were then regarded as the highest civic virtues, this influence has not been successful in conquering the improvidence and communal interdependence which constitute the great element of weakness in such social organisms. Where the lazy, the thriftless, and the incapable rely on the energetic for all that makes existence possible, experience shows that the essential prop of this kind of socialism is the high and universal appreciation of courage and energy. This popular feeling is manifested and the popular ideal sustained for successive generations not by personal gratitude for benefits received (a feeling lost as the benefits become a matter of custom), but chiefly by songs, legends, and ceremonies, of which the ideal individual becomes the hero, and tribal festivities the occasion of his eulogy. The dismissal of the songs and myths as pagan fancies, the suppression of the annual feasts as heathen customs, deprives the community of a stimulus for which the singing of hymns affords no equivalent. That this, for a community which must remain dependent upon the hunter for its prosperity, and will not renounce its rights in the fruit of his exertions, is a very real loss, has been conclusively shown in the history of the Greenland people.

Another curious fact brought out clearly by the author is the prepotency, as we may call it, of the tendencies towards barbarism over the settler's grasp on the civilization he has left. The blood is much mixed, especially in South Greenland, but the half-bloods are more Eskimo than Danish. Even the Danish settlers yield to some extent, and we are told of the blonde daughter "of a Dane from Godthaab" "not to be persuaded to pronounce a word in her father's tongue, and dressed throughout in native costume," who was the wife of an educated native pastor. In young Eskimo babies "the child is almost white, with the exception" of a peculiar spot of a bluish-black color "situated below the small of the back" and somewhat lozenge-shaped, "from which a yellowish shade seems to spread to all parts of the body, until it finally disappears when the child is a couple of years old. A child with a distinct regular mark was supposed to be healthy. The half-castes are often born with it, though in their case it is not so regularly shaped as in that of pure Eskimos" (pp. 116-117).

The author's conclusions in regard to the future of the Greenlander are summed up in the following paragraph:

"He is kept under a trade monopoly which, it must be admitted, is a necessary evil in his present state of culture, but to say that he feels content with it would not be correct. Be the trade monopoly ever so fatherly—which it is said to be in this case—those who have to pay for it will naturally think it selfish. During the time that Denmark has possessed Greenland, the population has by frequent intermarriages become so crossed that Scandinavian are as frequently met with as Eskimo faces, and if young Danish mechanics continue to settle there for another hundred and fifty years, there will probably be no traces of Eskimo origin left. Then the world may witness that Denmark, out of humanity, and admiration for something strange and scientifically interesting, has sunk a population of Scandinavians to the average level of Eskimos and Indians" (p. 179).

The publishers have done their part admirably, but the book would have been improved by the presence of an index.

France and the Republic. By William Henry Hurlbert. Longmans, Green & Co. 1890. 8vo, pp. cxiii, 515.

MR. HURLBERT was for several years a New York editor, and it is perhaps not surprising that his book has a curious family resemblance in bulk, in tone, and in literary value to the ordinary run of Sunday newspapers. It purports, on its title-page, to be "a record of things seen and learned in the French provinces during the 'centennial' year, 1889"; but what it really is, is only a violent diatribe against the French Republic and its anti-clerical tendencies. Not content with venting his indignation against the present Government of France, Mr. Hurlbert indulges in much strident denunciation of the first French Revolution, all of which has a rather belated effect. But even the Revolution is not remote enough to satisfy Mr. Hurlbert's historical ambition: he fills his pages with a great deal of ancient lore of the approved guide-book pattern, and peppers them thickly with learned references to Macaulay, Carlyle, Ruskin, Condorcet, and many other worthies whose names, printed in small capitals, make a brave enough show on an editorial page, but, in a book big enough to stand alone, convey an impression that the author's literary digestion is outstripped by his

appetite. However, Mr. Hurlbert will not have written in vain if his book serve as a practical demonstration of the emptiness of the complaints frequently indulged in by newspaper writers when they lament the transitory career of their productions, and flatter themselves that if they wrote books instead of articles, they might earn not only money, but fame to boot.

There is still another good use to which Mr. Hurlbert's book may be put. It offers a telling refutation of Henry George's theory that wages are not drawn from capital, but are produced by labor. It is perfectly evident that the compositors, the pressmen, and the binders who combined to manufacture Mr. Hurlbert's book were not engaged in producing merchandise of any commercial or literary value; so far were they from doing that, that they actually spoiled a large number of reams of fair white paper; the wages which they received for their worse than futile labor were not and could not be drawn from the value of their product, for that is a negative quantity; they were nothing but an impairment and diminution of capital—whether of Messrs. Longmans' capital or of Mr. Hurlbert's is immaterial to the argument. It is quite certain that whoever furnished the money will never get it back again, and has simply expended it in maintaining a number of workmen who might just as well have been pouring water into a sieve.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Badt, Lieut. F. B., and Carhart, Prof. H. S. Derivation of Practical Electrical Units. Chicago: Electrician Publishing Co.
Bainton, G. The Art of Authorship. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.
Balzac, H. de. Père Goriot. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Berry, E. P. Leah of Jerusalem. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.25.
Bittenbender, Ada M. The National Prohibitory Amendment Guide. Chicago: Woman's Temperance Publication Association. 25 cents.
Britton, W. The Civil War on the Border (1861–62). G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.
Chester, E. Girls and Women. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
Coppée, F. The Days of My Youth. Belford Co. 50 cents.
James, H. The Tragic Muse. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50.
Little, Rev. H. W. Henry M. Stanley: his Life, Travels, and Explorations. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.
Poor, Laura E. Sanskrit and its Kindred Literatures. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.
Taylor, Prof. J. M. A College Algebra. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.50.
Tennis, Lawn Tennis, Rackets, Fives. [Badminton Library.] Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Thayer, E. H. The Mortgage Foreclosed. Chicago: Belford-Clarke Co.
The Two Kinds of Truth: A Test of All Theories. Scribner & Welford. $3.
Thomas, Annie. Kilburns. F. F. Lovell Co. 30 cents.
Thurston, R. H. Heat as a Form of Energy. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Tolstoi, Count L. N. The Kreutzer Sonata. Boston: Benj. R. Tucker.
Underwood, H. G. Concise Dictionary of the Korean Language: Korean-English, English-Korean. A. D. F. Randolph & Co.
Underwood, H. G. Introduction to the Korean Spoken Language. A. D. F. Randolph & Co.
Verrall, Margaret de G. Mythology and Monuments of Ancient Athens. Macmillan & Co. $4.50.
Waite, C. W. Helen: a Poem. Chicago: W. E. Dibble & Co. $2.50.
Weyman, S. J. The House of the Wolf. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Whiting, H. A Short Course of Experiments in Physical Measurement. Part I. Density, Heat, Light, and Sound. Cambridge, Mass.
Wikkey: A Scrap. E. P. Dutton & Co. 60 cents.

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